THE ACQUISITION OF ARABIC LANGUAGE, LITERATURE, AND CULTURE FROM A SOCIO-EDUCATIONAL PERSPECTIVE: STUDENT ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTIONS OF ARABS AND THE ARAB WORLD

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate School of The Ohio State University

By

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the effect of culture learning in Arabic foreign language, Arabic literature, and Arabic culture classrooms upon college students' attitudes and perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world and Americans and the United States in relation to change in attitudes, gains in cultural knowledge, motivation, and success in foreign language or culture study using both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Arabic culture students experienced the largest change in cultural knowledge, the most positive change in attitudes toward Arabs, and positive change in perception of self. Arabic literature students experienced the lowest gains in cultural knowledge, negative change in attitudes toward Arabs, positive change in attitudes toward Americans, and negative change in self-perception. Arabic language students experienced the least amount of change in cultural knowledge, the most negative change in attitudes toward both Arabs and Americans, even though their knowledge of culture and attitudes were highest initially, and positive and negative change in perception of self. Different types of academic orientations and strength of either an instrumental motivational orientation (for Arabic language students) or integrative motivational orientation (for Arabic literature and culture students) best predicted the response variables. Students who attended each respective class to complete a minor or major in Arabic studies had positive gains in cultural knowledge or positive change in attitudes toward Arabs. Students who enrolled in these classes to fulfill a General Education Curriculum
requirement did not perform as well and did not persist in Arabic studies after this requirement was met.

Finally, other factors such as age, gender, nationality, ethnicity, number of years of previous foreign language study, and previous education or introduction to Arabs and the Arab world influenced the response variables. The major implication of the study suggests that only highly-structured, culturally-oriented foreign language classrooms that integrate the teaching of Arabic language, literature, and culture into a single course will arrest the negative effect of language study upon student attitudes and promote persistence in foreign language and culture study for beginning-level Arabic Studies students.
Dedicated to my parents,

H. R. P. Niehoff and Betty L. Niehoff
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Research within the past thirty-five years in the field of foreign/second language education has well documented the effect of student attitudes upon their motivation to learn in foreign/second language classrooms. Such research, whether grounded in the socio-psychological model of Lambert (1963, 1967, 1974) or in the socio-educational model of Gardner (1979, 1983, 1985) continues to influence the field and to demonstrate that a student's "motivation to learn is thought to be determined by both his attitudes and by the type of orientation he has toward learning a second language" (Lambert, 1967, p. 102). As Gardner (1985) expounds, "language courses are different from other curricular topics. They require that the individual incorporates elements from another culture. As a consequence, reactions to the other culture become important considerations" (p. 8). Thus "cultural beliefs about the second language community influence both the nature and the role played by attitudes in the language learning process" (Gardner, Lalonde, & Pierson, 1983, p. 3).

In studying either a foreign language, a foreign culture or its literature, learners manifest different attitudes towards (1) the target language, the language speakers, the target-language culture, (2) the social value of learning the second language, its culture
and its literature, and (3) themselves as members of their own culture. Students also bring with them different motivational orientations or purposes for language and culture study. Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) postulated the existence of two types of motivational orientations--integrative and instrumental--as being central to the language learning process. Their initial distinction between an integrative orientation (the desire to learn second languages in order to both communicate with and emulate people of the second language) and an instrumental orientation (the desire to learn the second language for self-advancement) has been repeatedly tested. Yet research in general has not reached a uniform consensus as to which type of motivational orientation among students (whether integrative, instrumental or otherwise) is more influential than others. Findings suggest, however, that the strength of Gardner and Lambert's initial distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation, specifically when linked with language proficiency, vary as a function of the environment in which learning takes place.

Potentially, there are as many reasons for foreign/second language and culture study as there are students in a classroom. To Gardner et al.'s integrative-instrumental duality may be added a third dimension identified by Graham (1984) as an assimilative motive--the desire to become an indistinguishable member of a community. Both learner attitudes and student motivational orientations, however, are likely to reflect the cultural milieu, beliefs, and social settings (monolingual or bilingual) in which learners find themselves. Although the majority of research testing for motivational orientations as a variable in language proficiency tends to find the existence of either an instrumental
orientation or an integrative orientation or a combination of the two (see literature review below), the definition of such integrative or instrumental orientations are conditioned by situational factors that reflect the learning environment as well as the linguistic background of the learners.

To illustrate, two studies that sought to test for the influence of learner’s linguistic backgrounds and the influence of the learning environment upon motivational orientations are those of Clément and Kruidenier (1983) and Dornyei (1990). Both researchers were seeking clarification of the integrative-instrumental duality on a more universal level by testing several groups of learners in a foreign language environment, as opposed to a second language (L2) environment. Clément & Kruidenier investigated a variety of language motivational orientations using different samples of students in Canada. They discovered that four different orientations, in addition to an instrumental orientation, were universal across all samples. These were knowledge, friendship, travel orientations (which traditionally had been lumped together under integrativeness), and a socio-cultural orientation that emerged specifically among the group of learners who had no contact with the target-language community.

Dornyei (1990), investigating 134 young adult learners of English in Hungary, identified three loosely related dimensions of an integrative motivational subsystem and an instrumental motivational subsystem. In addition to this, the constructs of Need for achievement and Attributions about Past Failures were also postulated. As Dornyei summarizes (1994) “to put it simply, the exact nature of the social and pragmatic
dimensions of L2 motivation is always dependent on who learns what languages where” (p. 275).

In foreign/second language acquisition research (SLA), student attitudes and motivation have been identified as key variables in the acquisition of a target language and culture. In conjunction with learner intelligence and aptitude, student attitudes (whether positive or negative) correlate positively not only with students' initial motivational orientations, but also with achievement (or lack of it) in language and culture learning. (Chihara & Oller, 1978; Clément, Gardner, & Smythe, 1977; Dornyei, 1991; Gardner, 1973, 1985, 1988, 1993; Gardner et al., 1974; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner & Smythe, 1975, 1977; Lukmani, 1972; Oller, Hudson, & Liu, 1977; Mantle-Bromley & Miller, 1991; Mantle-Bromley, 1992, 1995; Samimy & Tabuse, 1992; Smythe, Stennett, & Feenstra, 1972).

Learner attitudes also impact upon the level of L2 proficiency and are themselves influenced by this success. Students with initial positive attitudes and who experience success will have these attitudes reinforced. Initial student attitudes may also influence future language learning behavior or student motivations to continue or discontinue the study of a foreign language (Gardner, 1985). Positive attitudes may also turn negative as a result of initial frustrations in learning the language due to culture shock or lack of success in learning the L2 (Mantle-Bromley, 1992; Mantle-Bromley & Miller, 1991; Samimy & Tabuse, 1992). Anxiety and affective variables, such as self-esteem and the ability to take risks inside the foreign language classroom, in combination with attitudes,
motivation, aptitude and intelligence may also be significant predictors of successful language and culture learning (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991, 1992, 1993b, 1994; MacIntyre, 1995). In a recent study by Gardner and MacIntyre (1993a) involving college-age students studying French, they found that some measures of achievement correlated with certain affective variables only. In this study, for example, the best single correlate of achievement is language anxiety. Motivation and Integrativeness (as defined by the socio-educational model) do, however, correlate significantly with all objective measures of achievement (except the Cloze test used in this study). While student orientations in general do not have a direct effect upon language achievement, they do correlate positively with motivation that does. Likewise, student attitudes toward the learning environment also affect their motivation to learn.

To summarize, research has demonstrated that affective variables play a significant role in L2 learning. Attitudes and their effect upon motivation in conjunction with student motivational orientations, levels of anxiety, and degrees of risk-taking function independently of intelligence and aptitude in regard to achievement in a second language. Specific student attitudes toward the culture, the language, and speakers of a foreign language or culture determine to a large extent both the nature and the role of attitudes in a foreign language context. Because of this correlational relationship between attitudes, motivation, and foreign language and culture learning, this research is designed to examine motivational orientations of college-level students of Arabic language, Arabic culture, and Arabic literature in relation to their attitudes and perceptions of Arabs and
the Arab world, and also in relation to their perception of themselves. To date, no attitude studies have been completed on students studying Arabic in a foreign language setting, nor of students enrolled in Arabic culture or Arabic literature classes whose attitudes about the target culture and its people necessarily impact (according to the Gardner and Lambert’s socio-educational model) upon the learning process. This study will, therefore, (1) describe the initial attitudes and motivational orientations of college-level Arabic foreign language, Arabic culture, and Arabic literature students when they enter the classroom, (2) investigate the effect of culture teaching upon student attitudes and perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world and of themselves as a result of their foreign language, literature, and culture study, and (3) determine the extent to which students’ initial attitudes and motivational orientations are related to any changes in attitudes or success in foreign language and culture learning as a result of their participation in an Arabic language, Arabic culture, and Arabic literature class.

Statement of the Problem

It is frequently asserted by foreign language education programs that the study of a foreign language through either the medium of the target language, the literature or target culture will engender cross-cultural understanding or intercultural competence in their students (Damen, 1987; Hanvey, 1974; Jarvis, 1974). Indeed, the communicative proficiency movement in foreign language education stresses the acquisition of cultural competence in addition to linguistic or grammatical competence as the prerequisite for the development of cross-cultural communicative skills (Canale & Swain, 1980; Crawford-Lange & Lange, 1987; Lafayette, 1988; Mantle-Bromley, 1992; Robinson, 1988; Savignon, 1972).
The research literature, however, has revealed that foreign language study by itself does not usually fulfill certain cross-cultural goals—such as a deeper understanding, tolerance, and a more positive attitude toward the target culture (Robinson, 1978, p. 138; Byram et al., 1991; Cooke, 1969; Lett, 1976; Mantel-Bromley & Miller, 1991; Mantel-Bromley, 1992; Meyer, 1991). Moreover, no research has shown that attitude change is a pre-determined outcome of any type of foreign language instruction (Gardner, 1985; Robinson, 1978). Different studies directed toward different types of language learning experiences produce various results. The effect on attitudes when one is exposed to another language and culture is still ambiguous in many ways. Research from as early as 1969 (Cooke) and as recent as 1991 (Byram, Esarte-Sarries & Taylor) finds that the study of a foreign language does not automatically produce changes in attitudes, and that when attitude change does occur (whether positive or negative), it is by no means uniform, and more likely than not is the result of experiential factors located outside the classroom environment.

There is evidence, however, that arenas outside the foreign language classroom where students are directly exposed to the target language and culture do appear to fulfill certain cross-cultural objectives. Gardner (1979) states that several non-linguistic outcomes of such language study may include "favorable attitudes toward the other cultural community, a general appreciation of other cultures, and interest in further language study..." (p. 199). Studies conducted primarily in Canada involving bicultural excursion programs, regular language courses, and intensive language programs support the notion that study of an L2 within its cultural context may produce changes in attitudes toward the target language, the target culture and its people, as well as influence future language behavior. Yet since such language programs involve such a wide variety of language learning environments—ranging from those that are strictly classroom-based to
those where students are immersed in the culture for either brief or extended periods of
time--, it is difficult to conclude whether the nature of the language learning experience
itself or the nature of the contact involved affects learner attitudes. In Gardner’s (1985)
review of such programs, he states that “the language course can be an emotional
experience. Negative attitudes might result from frustrations experienced, while positive
attitudes might evolve from success . . . [Since] students are members of a language
class in addition to engaging in many other activities, . . . it is quite likely that their
experiences influence their attitudes and motivation not simply the one [language]
programme” (pp. 106-107).

While the act of becoming more proficient in a foreign language may not produce
predictable changes in social attitudes or motivation, research has shown that certain
types of exposure to the target language and culture can produce positive results. In
Gardner’s (1985) review of such programs, for example, he concluded that “the most
pronounced attitudinal and motivational changes seem to emerge in brief bicultural
excursions, particularly among those students who dive right in and try to maximize their
contacts with members of the other community instead of acting like passive sightseers”
(p. 106). Moreover, classroom settings where culture-related lessons incorporating
attitude-change theory are introduced similarly produced more positive attitudes (Mantle-
Bromley & Miller, 1991; Mantle-Bromley, 1995). Immersion programs, where students
are not only exposed to native-language teachers on a daily basis, but also receive
intensive training in a second or foreign language, appear to have a more lasting impact
programmes demonstrate that attitude change does occur as a result of intensive language
study” (p. 102).

Similarly, studies of long term immersion programs (Lambert & Tucker, 1972;
Lambert et al., 1973) indicate that positive attitude change is just as an important
consequence of immersion programs as the development of students’ linguistic and
cognitive skills. Lambert and Tucker’s 1972 study discovered that although more
positive attitudes toward the target language community emerged among younger
students (grades one and two) than attitudes of students in grades three and four (as
compared to their English controls), that immersion students by the fifth grade
demonstrated equally more positive attitudes. In response to direct questions concerning
their social attitudes, fifth grade students reported that “they liked French Canadians more
than when they began studying French and that they would be just as happy if they had
been born into a French Canadian family . . . “(Gardner, 1985, p. 102). The Lambert et
al. 1973 study also found that Anglo-Canadian immersion students’ perception of French
Canadians fell mid-way between that of their English controls and the French-control
students used in the study. In Cziko et al.’s 1980 study conducted as a follow-up to
Lambert and Tucker’s 1972 study, long range effects of favorable attitudes toward the
program and late development of favorable attitudes toward the other language
community also surfaced.

In summary, research reveals that the issues involved in assessing the impact of
language training upon students’ attitudes and perceptions of a target language and
culture are complex. On the one hand, findings suggest that (a) students’ attitudes may
become less positive during the first semester of language study and only more positive
after several years of study due to the mediating factor of language anxiety (Gardner &
MacIntyre, 1993a; Mantle-Bromley & Miller, 1992; Oller, Hudson & Liu, 1977; Samimy
& Tabuse, 1991), (b) that previous student familiarity with and/or exposure to the target
culture does not always correlate significantly with incentives to study foreign literature
among college students (Davis et al., 1992), (c) that significant correlations between
foreign language education and cultural teaching may not exist unless multi-cultural
lessons incorporating attitude-change theory are incorporated in the classroom (Cooke,
1969; Lett, 1976; Mantle-Bromley, 1995), and (d) that changes in attitudes or perceptions of students may be the result of the interaction of other factors in students’ environments (Byram, Esarte-Sarries & Taylor, 1991; Gardner, 1985; Meyer, 1991).

On the other hand, findings have been instrumental in showing (a) how empathy and identification with the target culture can affect second language (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Guiora et. al, 1972; Schumann, 1976), (b) how the use of multicultural sensitivity lessons incorporating attitude change theory may engender more positive attitudes among a certain number of students (Mantle-Bromley & Miller, 1991; Mantle-Bromley 1992, 1995), (c) that motivation to attain a greater understanding of a culture may be a primary reason for foreign language study among college-age students (Roberts, 1992), and (d) that intensive immersion or bicultural language programs may have a more positive effect in producing significant changes in student attitudes toward the target language and culture than others (Gardner, 1985).

Although the foreign language experience by itself may not always engender attitude change, student exposure to the target language and culture usually does. The difficulty in isolating which type of experience--either inside the classroom or elsewhere--has determined to a large extent the focus of research. Frequently investigations look at the effects of both the language training experience as well as the effects of contact with the other community to account for all relevant arenas that may produce attitude change. A small number of studies have also attempted to measure the impact of teaching methods, texts used, and nationality of the teachers themselves to account for attitude change. In the foreign language classroom, however, students are generally limited to only indirect exposure to the target language and culture, even though their teachers may
be native target language speakers themselves. Therefore, assessing student perceptions of the target language and culture as well as identifying sources for student knowledge about the target language community are central for such classroom-based research. Such an approach may be the only way to reduce the complexity of the issues involved in understanding the effect of foreign language training upon student attitudes and motivations.

In conclusion, the challenge of any foreign language, foreign literature or culture classroom is to introduce students to the linguistic and/or cultural systems that make the study of a foreign language, literature or culture a meaningful experience. Student attitudes and students’ lack of accurate cultural knowledge and/or cultural stereotypes, however, may impede this process. The recognition of student perceptions, therefore, is the first step toward understanding the impact of such attitudes upon the learning experience as a whole. Once we gain knowledge of this process, then such knowledge can in turn be analyzed to understand how the language learning experience may in turn impact student attitudes and motivations. In the words of Mantle-Bromley (1992),

If teachers are to restructure their students’ cultural conceptions (along with their linguistic ones), they need to recognize that cultural attitudes will play a paramount role in that restructuring. Research suggests that attitudes affect not only the students’ motivation to learn the language, but also their willingness to learn about and participate in acculturation. This process will be slow and frustrating for the students; the teacher’s role is critical if the students are to be successful (p. 118).

Significance of the Problem

The limitations of previous research are that attitude studies in foreign language education (a) focus primarily, but not exclusively, upon primary or secondary foreign
language students in the majority of the research; (b) use primarily survey questionnaires as the sole means of data collection; (c) limit the focus of their studies to language learning environments without acknowledging cultural teaching in other arenas (i.e., foreign literature and cultural classes); and (d) focus in general upon the more commonly-taught languages, like English in either a foreign or second language setting, Spanish, French, etc. without considering such less commonly-taught languages like Arabic.

Two studies to date, conducted by Samimy and Tabuse (1992) and Samimy and Saito (1996), investigated affective variables and the less commonly-taught language of Japanese among beginning, intermediate, and advanced-level college students. Another study conducted by Kenny (1992) gave a descriptive account of Arab-Americans’ motivational orientations and attitudes toward the study of Arabic in order to revise syllabi to reflect student cultural interests. No studies to date, however, have investigated the impact of student attitudes and perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world in relation to Arabic foreign language, Arabic culture, or Arabic literature classrooms.

Another significant area in foreign language attitude research that has currently been neglected is the impact of culture teaching within the foreign language classroom upon student cultural stereotypes. To the best of my knowledge, only one other major study has addressed this area of inquiry in foreign language education. The Durham project, as reported by Byram, Esarte-Sarries, Taylor, and Allatt (1991) and Byram, Esarte-Sarries and Taylor (1991), investigated the effects of French foreign language teaching upon British pupils’ tolerance of French people and student insight into French culture. Analysis of student stereotypes was also part of this project. As part of the research design, the Durham project also isolated the impact of culture teaching not only upon student attitudes and perceptions, but also in relation to the effects of other factors in students’ environment. No significant associations between learning French and
attitude change resulted from their study; however, the students’ experience of visiting France did produce more significant results.

More studies focusing upon this cultural variable in relation to student cultural stereotypes need to be conducted, as well as studies investigating such less commonly-taught subjects as Arabic language and culture. Culture stereotypes about Arabs and the Arab World are just as pervasive in a foreign language setting as are cultural stereotypes held by students who study the more commonly-taught languages, such as Spanish (Mantle-Bromley, 1995; Munich and Wolfe, 1982) and French (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972). Although researchers recognize the impact of such cultural stereotypes upon student motivations to learn, they have often addressed this issue on a secondary, rather than a primary level. The focus of research has been directed, therefore, upon cultural attitudes as part and parcel of a higher construct defined as motivation. Such a construct may operate most effectively in a second language setting; however in a foreign language setting where students are limited in their direct contact with the target language and culture, student cultural stereotypes may impact more significantly upon the language/culture learning process as a whole than previously hypothesized.

To summarize, the most current research on foreign language students' attitudes and perceptions toward target languages and cultures has revealed certain levels of ethnocentricity among foreign language students; yet such research has still not been able to determine the overall effects of culture teaching in the foreign language classroom (as opposed to an second language classroom). Moreover, no studies have been conducted on the impact of culture teaching among a less commonly-taught language like Arabic. Findings suggest that student attitudes toward language study may decrease after one semester; but such findings do not delineate the effect of cultural teaching as an isolated variable within foreign language classrooms. It is clear that students come to the study of foreign languages and cultures with the hope of gaining some cultural knowledge about
the target culture; however, the effect of this motivational orientation to understand a foreign language and culture has not yet been evaluated by current research in relation to other variables in a student's environment that may predict student attitudes and perceptions in an foreign language setting.

In conclusion, the significance of the present study is its ability to throw additional light on the topic of cultural teaching from both a cross-cultural and interdisciplinary perspective in an foreign language setting. By looking at the effects of cultural teaching through the lens of three separate, but interrelated classroom environments, this study will provide valuable insights into how cultural teaching may or may not contribute to students' ability to gain cultural understanding. Moreover, if the effect of culture teaching is looked at from the perspective of both native and non-native Arabic language, culture, and literature students, then students' perceptions of themselves in relation to other foreign peoples and cultures may become more clear.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study is to isolate student cultural attitudes from other mediating variables that effect foreign language learning. While teachers strive to teach for cultural understanding in their classrooms, they often fall short of these goals due to the cultural stereotypes and negative attitudes which students frequently bring into the foreign language classroom. (Mantle-Bromley, 1992). (The effect of such perceptions and stereotypes is also confounded by the fact that the study of a foreign language and culture maybe a frustrating experience for beginning language students.) By isolating this variable, moreover, and by recognizing parallel learning environments where students are exposed to cultural elements representative of the target language and culture, it may be possible to interpret not only the impact of such stereotypes and cultural attitudes, but
also the impact of culture learning upon student attitudes and perceptions as a result of attending a foreign language, literature or culture class.

This study will build upon the results of past attitude research and second language studies by examining not only the effect that culture teaching has upon college students' views of target and indigenous cultures, but also how this effect relates to other factors in students' socio-cultural environments. Once this effect has been determined, this inquiry will determine the extent to which students' initial attitudes and motivational orientations are related to any changes in attitudes or success in foreign language and culture learning as a result of their participation in an Arabic language, Arabic culture, or Arabic literature class. Subjects will be drawn from college-age students enrolled in Arabic language, Arabic culture, and Arabic literature classes at The Ohio State University. Its focus will be upon the effect that culture teaching has upon both American and Arab students' perceptions and attitudes of themselves and of native Arabic-speakers and the Arab world. The present study will offer tentative answers to the effect of study of a foreign language and culture upon students' attitudes and perceptions by addressing the following seven research questions:

1. What effect does the teaching of Arabic culture within Arabic foreign language classrooms have upon American college students' perceptions and attitudes of Arabs and the Arab world, and how does this effect relate to other factors within students' socio-cultural environments?

2. What effect does the teaching of Arabic culture within Arabic culture classrooms have upon American college students' perceptions and attitudes of Arabs and the Arab world, and how does this effect relate to other factors within students' socio-cultural environments?

3. What effect does the teaching of Arabic culture within Arabic literature classrooms have upon American college students' perceptions and attitudes of Arabs and the Arab world, and how does this effect relate to other factors within students' socio-cultural environments?
4. What effect does the teaching of Arabic language, Arabic culture, and Arabic literature have upon native Arabic-speakers' perceptions of themselves and of the Arab World, and how does this effect relate to other factors in native Arabic-speakers' socio-cultural environments?

5. What effect does the teaching of Arabic language, Arabic culture, and Arabic literature have upon native Arabic-speakers' perceptions of Americans and the United States, and how does this effect relate to other factors in native Arabic-speakers' socio-cultural environments?

6. What effect does the teaching of Arabic culture within Arabic language, Arabic culture and Arabic literature classrooms have upon American and Arab college students' perceptions of themselves in relation to other foreign peoples and cultures?

7. What effect do students' motivational orientations and attitudes towards Arabs and the Arab world have upon their changes in attitudes or success in foreign language or culture learning as a result of their participation in an Arabic language, Arabic culture or Arabic literature class?

Theoretical Bases

Social Models of L2 Acquisition

In second language research, linguistic, psychological, and social theories of language learning have been developed to define the processes involved in the acquisition of a target language and culture. While these theories in general recognize both internal and external variables as being fundamental to the act of acquiring a target language and culture, socio-psychological theories in particular emphasize two variables—the impact of social/structural characteristics of a community upon an individual’s L2 acquisition and cultural competence, and the impact of L2 or foreign language learning upon students’ behavior and concepts of self. In investigating the impact of these two variables, socio-psychological theories of language learning assume that acquisition of a target language or culture involves an emotional and social adjustment on the part of the language learner to another community’s linguistic code or cultural system. Whether studying a target language, literature or culture, the language or culture learner is confronted with stimuli
that are the products of another cultural community. "The student's reactions to this stimulation, be it interest and enthusiasm, boredom, or frustration, etc., and his/her relative degree of success in learning and using the language are just some of the many behaviours that can be observed and analyzed" (Gardner, 1983, p. 220).

In a socio-psychological theory of language learning, the effects of the socio-cultural milieu (whether actual or perceived on the part of the language learner), attitudes toward the language community, ethnocentric tendencies, orientation, and motivation are hypothesized to be major contributing factors to successful acquisition of a target language and culture. In investigating the effects of these socio-cultural factors upon a student’s motivation to learn, five socio-psychological models have emerged in second language research. These five models are (1) Lambert's (1967, 1974) Socio-psychological model; (2) Gardner's (1979, 1983, 1985) Socio-educational model; (3) Clément's (1980) Social Context Model (as dubbed by Gardner, 1985); (4) Schumann's (1978, 1986) Acculturation Model; and (5) Giles and Byrne's (1982, 1989) Intergroup model. Three of the five models--Lambert's Socio-psychological model, Gardner's Socio-educational model, and Clément's Social Context Model--have investigated second language in bilingual and formal language learning environments. The last two models--Schumann's Acculturation Model and Giles and Byrne's Intergroup model--describe second language in natural settings. Gardner's socio-educational model, however, also applies to language learning in natural settings even though the majority of his research has been completed in formal language learning environments. Each of these models will be described in turn, and areas where they converge or diverge on the relationship between attitudes and motivation in different socio-cultural or socio-educational settings will be summarized.
Lambert's socio-psychological model

The socio-psychological theory of second language was first developed by Lambert in the 1950s to account for the process of bilingualism and self-identity modification that results from achieving proficiency in an L2 in Canadian bilingual settings. The basic precepts of his model have borne direct influence not only upon Gardner's socio-educational Model, but also indirectly upon other models (Clément's Social Context Model and Giles & Byrne's Intergroup Model). The most salient features of this model were described by Lambert in an article entitled "A social psychology of bilingualism" (1967). He writes,

\[\ldots\text{[O]ne would expect that if the student is to be successful in his attempts to learn another social group's language he must be both able and willing to adopt various aspects of behavior, including verbal behavior, which characterize members of the other linguistic-cultural group. The learner's ethnocentric tendencies and his attitudes toward the other group are believed to determine his success in learning the new language. His motivation to learn is thought to be determined by both his attitudes and by the type of orientation he has toward learning the new language. The orientation is instrumental in form if, for example, the purposes of language study reflect the more utilitarian value of linguistic achievement, such as getting ahead in one's occupation, and is integrative if, for example, the student is oriented to learn more about the other cultural community, as if he desired to become a potential member of the other group (p. 225 of Dil's (1972) collection of Lambert's essays).}\]

Future socio-psychological models of second language will adopt Lambert's initial distinction between an integrative motive and an instrumental motive and the role of attitudes, ethnocentric tendencies, and motivation as the basic affective features that interact with aptitude and intelligence in predicting successful language learning. Lambert (1963) also insisted, however, that a third type of orientation—a machiavellian motive, i.e., the desire to get inside of a cultural community in order to
exploit or control—may also serve as another reason for language study. Lambert hypothesized that the combination of one's attitudes and orientation in conjunction with one's aptitude directly influence one's motivation to learn an L2. In turn, the interaction of these three variables directly relates to one's proficiency level and hence L2 acquisition. Once proficiency has been achieved, such proficiency bears a direct influence upon a student's self-identity which, depending upon the nature of the cultural context, will result in either additive or subtractive bilingualism. A diagram of Lambert's socio-psychological model of second language is displayed below, as adapted from Gardner (1985).

Figure 1.1. Lambert's social psychology model (as adapted from Gardner, 1985)
Gardner’s Socio-educational Model

Like Lambert’s Socio-psychological model, Gardner’s Socio-educational model is concerned with the role of individual differences in second language. Gardner’s formal development of his model began in 1960. It’s roots lie in Lambert’s Socio-psychological model and Carroll’s (1962) initial distinction between the variables of aptitude, intelligence, motivation, and opportunity to learn as predictors of language proficiency. Gardner and Lambert’s (1959) first study demonstrated that two independent factors, language aptitude and social motivation, were both related to L2 achievement among Canadian English-speaking high school students. Later studies conducted in Montreal, Canada, Maine, Louisiana, Connecticut, and the Phillipines (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) showed relationships between both language aptitude and attitudes and motivation with achievement in an L2. Subsequent formalization of the composition and measurement aspects of the model (the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery [AMTB]) were undertaken by Gardner and Smythe (1981), while Gardner, Smythe, Clément and Glikman (1976) presented summary data of the relationships of the various measures with achievement in French drawn from various grade levels in seven different cities across Canada. Glikman (1981) in turn applied the model to students at the university level (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993b).

Since 1974, Gardner’s Socio-educational model has undergone several revisions in order to account for new information or to more clearly describe its operating principles (Gardner, 1979, 1981, 1983, 1985, 1993). Germaine to the model as a whole is the assumption that language learning involves the development of knowledge and behavioral skills of another language community. “As a consequence, the relative degree of success will be influenced to some extent by the individual’s attitudes toward the other community or to other communities in general as well as by the beliefs in the community which are relevant to the language learning process” (Gardner, 1985, p. 146). Such
culturally-defined beliefs may include generalized attitudes developed in the home and in
the environment that influence not only general levels of proficiency, but also those
factors that influence individual differences in achievement.

The model itself consists of four major components: (1) the socio-cultural milieu,
(2) individual differences, (3) language acquisition contexts, and (4) language learning
outcomes. Among these four components, the socio-cultural milieu is conceived as over-
riding all aspects of the model. The most recent revision to the model (Gardner &
MacIntyre, 1993b) stresses additional delineation of antecedent factors in the social
milieu that influence the role of individual differences in L2 learning. These factors,
either biological or experiential, include such variables as age, gender, prior language
training etc. (See figure 1.2 below, as adapted from Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993b).

Six major individual difference variables comprise component no. 2. They are
defined cognitively as intelligence, language aptitude, and language-learning strategies
and affectively as language attitudes, motivation, and language anxiety. In the model
(figure 1.2), the cognitive variables are depicted as being relatively independent of each
other, even though they might correlate significantly to each other in various ways across
several studies. Intelligence is hypothesized to play an independent role because it
determines how well or how quickly individuals understand the nature of the learning
task. Language aptitude, though correlated with intelligence, is defined as a series of
verbal and cognitive abilities that enable a student to learn an L2. Strategies refer to
techniques individuals use to learn the language. All three impact upon language
proficiency directly.
Figure 1.2. Schematic representation of the socio-educational model of second-language acquisition

Among the affective variables, motivation is understood to consist of three elements: (1) effort, (2) want (desire), and (3) affect associated with learning a foreign language or L2. As a construct, motivation determines how actively the individual works to acquire the foreign language or L2. Motivation and language anxiety are causally
linked and tend to correlate negatively with each other. On the one hand, language anxiety, being associated with the language learning experience itself, determines the level of inhibition that may impede an individual's performance and thus affect his/her overall acquisition. On the other hand, equally high levels of motivation may depress language anxiety. Language attitudes refer to any affective variables that undergird motivation. Previously, such attitudes had been classified into two categories, integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation. Integrativeness is understood to refer to an individual's willingness to adopt behavioral aspects of the target language community. It is measured by attitudes toward the other group, interest in other languages, and integrative orientations. Attitudes toward the language situation are measured in terms of attitudes toward the course, attitudes toward the teacher etc. These attitudes are causally linked to motivation, which in turn is causally linked to language anxiety and language-learning strategies.

Component 3 of the model defines the two second language acquisition contexts where language learning takes place--i.e., formal language learning environments and informal language learning environments. In formal language learning contexts where instruction in the second language or foreign language is the focus, all individual difference variables are hypothesized to bear a direct influence upon acquisition, except for language attitudes. Individual differences in intelligence, language aptitude, the use of language-learning strategies, motivation, and language anxiety will influence how well an individual acquires the target language. In informal contexts, where language instruction is not the primary focus, only motivation is hypothesized to have a direct role. According to Gardner, "because of the voluntary nature of the informal context, it is expected that individuals who are not motivated will simply not take part in the context, while those who are motivated will" (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993b, p. 9).
In component 4, two outcomes--linguistic and non-linguistic--are seen to result from the experience of learning an foreign language or L2. The linguistic outcome obviously refers to L2 proficiency, knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation etc. Non-linguistic outcomes refer to attitudes, values, future language learning endeavors etc. Both formal and informal acquisition contexts bear directly upon these outcomes. Moreover, the model posits a causal link from the linguistic outcomes to the non-linguistic outcomes, recognizing the fact that individuals’ reactions to the language learning experience will depend to some extent upon their relative degree of success. The model is dynamic, cyclic and non-static; and for this reason the model postulates that both linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes will have an influence on individual difference variables. For example, achievement in the language will influence the use of language-learning strategies, while non-linguistic outcomes are anticipated to have direct effects upon language attitudes, motivation, and language anxiety.

The socio-educational Model to date undergoes continuing revisions and refinement, as Gardner and others test newly suggested motivational constructs from related research areas. A present study by Gardner and Tremblay (1995), for example, investigated the relations of a number of new measures of motivation, such as persistence, attention, goal specificity, and causal attributions to each other, to existing measures of attitudes and motivation, and to indices of achievement in French courses among 75 francophone secondary school students. They concluded that new motivational measures add to understanding of motivation in L2 learning (p. 505, 515).
Clément's Social Context Model

Like Lambert's socio-psychological theory of second language and Gardner's Socio-educational model of the same persuasion, Clément's Social Context Model assumes that second language involves both development of language skills and adoption of behavioral patterns of the L2 community. Part and parcel of the acquisition process too is the notion that proficiency in an L2 results in changes in self-identity. For Clément (1980), the cultural milieu and the relative vitality of the language communities involved define the context for second language and determine its primary motivating factors. In analyzing these factors, Clément looked at both monocultural and multicultural environments and the status or prestige of either the L1 or the L2 as the foundation for his operating principles. The relative vitality of any given language is called 'ethnolinguistic vitality' by Clément, and is a term which he adopted from Giles (1977) to characterize the influence that any given language's status or prestige has upon an individual's inter-ethnic behavior. Vitality itself has three major components: status, demography, and institutional support of an L2 in any L1 community.

The central focus of Clément's model is motivation, which is conceived to consist of two operating processes—a primary motivational process and a secondary motivational process (see figure 1.3 below).
Figure 1.3. The social context model, as adapted from Clément, 1980.

Depending upon the cultural background of the community at large, either one or both of these motivational processes account for L2 acquisition. For example, in environments
where the ethnolinguistic vitality of the L1 and L2 are unequal, a primary motivational process functions exclusive of any secondary motivational process. However in environments where the ethnolinguistic vitality of both the L1 and L2 are equal, a secondary motivational process comes into play.

In Clément’s model (figure 1.3), the primary process of motivation itself functions according to two operating principles defined respectively as ‘integrativeness’—‘the desire to become an accepted member of the other culture’ and as ‘fear of assimilation’—‘the fear that such belonging might result in the loss of the first language and culture’ (1980, p.149). In situations where one of the communities’ languages has lower ethnolinguistic vitality than the other, defined by Clément as unicultural environments, one operating principle will dominate over the other. If this motivational process happens to be integrative in nature, than motivation to acquire the L2 will be quite high and positive in nature. However, if this motivational process is dominated by fear of assimilation or the loss of one’s primary language and culture, then motivation to acquire the L2 will be quite low and negative in nature. As a result, those individuals with higher levels of motivation will develop more competency in the L2 than those whose fear of assimilation may impede their L2 acquisition.

In multicultural contexts, however, where the ethnolinguistic vitality of both languages is relatively high, a second motivational process comes into play. This second motivational process is dominated by another operating principle defined by Clément as self-confidence. Research conducted by Clément and his colleagues (1977) with Francophone students in Montreal studying English revealed that a factor analytic cluster reflecting an individual’s self-confidence in his/her ability to communicate in English showed a stronger association with indices of English achievement than did attitudinal indices. An opposite study of bilingualism in Canada of Anglophone students studying French conducted by Gardner (1979) revealed that anxiety experienced by the students
when using the L2 emerged as a better predictor of competence than attitudes or motivation. In a follow-up study conducted by Clément, Gardner and Smythe (1980) involving 223 grade 11 francophone students in Montreal, this operating principle of self-confidence emerged as a result of an individual’s opportunity for contact with members of the L2 community. Moreover, fear of assimilation correlated negatively with the integrative motive factor.

As a result of these findings, a dynamic relationship between the integrative motive and self-confidence operates in Clément’s model when multilingual environments are taken into consideration. High levels of self-confidence result if an individual experiences a high frequency of pleasant contacts with L2 speakers, whereas low levels of self-confidence result if an individual experiences a high frequency of unpleasant contacts with L2 speakers. In such settings then, “an individual’s motivation would be determined by both the Primary and Secondary Motivational Processes operating in sequence” (Clément, 1980, p. 151). Such motivational operating processes in turn are seen as primary determinants of competence in the L2.

The results of gaining competence in an L2 define that last tier of Clément’s Social Context Model--i.e., the process of integration or assimilation that reflects the social consequences of bilingualism. Similar to Lambert’s distinction between additive and subtractive bilingualism, whether an individual integrates or assimilates into the target language community appears to be a function of the status of his/her’s L1 community. If the L1 is in the majority, then integration or the ability to participate in two cultures results from communicative competence. If the L1 is in the minority, however, then assimilation or loss of the first language and culture in favor of the L2 language and culture results from gaining proficiency in an L2. In turn, different levels of integration or assimilation into a community determine to varying degrees the primary
motivational process and its operating principles of integrativeness or fear of assimilation. For these reasons, Clément’s Social Context model is cyclic and dynamic.

Schumann’s Acculturation Model

Schumann’s acculturation model (1978, 1986) is a theory of second language restricted to natural language learning environments where no instruction in the L2 is present. He developed his model to account for the language acquisition of immigrant speakers in a majority language setting. Like Gardner’s socio-educational model, Schumann’s acculturation model places considerable emphasis upon both individual learner variables and social context variables as the major causal variables underlying second language. Although Schumann was not concerned with second language in formal language settings, Gardner (1985) believes that many of his arguments may also be applicable to ‘artificial’ L2 environments where languages are learned, such as in a school setting (p. 135). Unlike Gardner and others, however, Schumann postulated that second language is just one aspect of a larger construct defined as acculturation “and the degree to which a learner acculturates to the target-language group will control the degree to which he acquires the second language” (1978, p. 34). The assumptions underlying this acculturation process are similar to Lambert’s (1967) position that identification with the target language community is primary for successful L2 acquisition. Yet unlike Lambert, Schumann explores the many social factors that play a causal role in this process.

In Schumann’s model (see figure 1.4 below), the major causal factor for L2 development is acculturation--i.e., “the process of becoming adapted to a new culture” (Brown, 1980, p. 129). Schumann (1986) actually identifies two types of acculturation. In type one acculturation, learners are both socially integrated into the target-language group and psychologically open to the target language. In type two acculturation, learners additionally desire consciously or unconsciously to adopt the lifestyles and values of the
target-language group. Both types of acculturation result in L2 acquisition, regardless of the fact that type two acculturation assumes additional assimilative orientations on the part of language learners.

Figure 1.4. Schumann’s acculturation model, as adapted from Gardner, 1985.

In both types of acculturation, two causal factors—social and psychological—influence L2 acquisition. These two factors in turn determine the levels of social or psychological distance between the L1 group and the target-language group. The social factor in particular influences the extent to which individuals become members of the target-language group, and therefore, achieve contact with them; whereas the psychological factor determines the extent to which individuals are comfortable with learning the L2, and therefore, reflects the affective side of acculturation. Taken together, both factors influence the rate and extent of second language.
Variables used by Schumann to define the social factor include (1) social dominance patterns between the two groups, (2) integration strategies (such as assimilation, preservation, and adaptation), (3) enclosure (the extent to which the group is separated from the other by institutional boundaries), size (number of L1 or L2 speakers relative to each other), cohesiveness (intra-L2 group contacts vs. inter-L2 group contacts) and intended length of residence, (4) cultural congruence (degrees of similarity or difference between the L1 and L2 groups), and (5) group attitudes (positive or negative attitudes held by each group toward each other).

Variables used by Schumann to define the psychological or individual factor include (1) language shock (extent of fear and apprehensiveness on the part of L2 learner when using the L2), (2) cultural shock (extent to which an L2 learner feels anxious and disorientated upon entering a new culture), (3) motivation (extent to which an L2 learner is integratively or instrumentally motivated to learn the L2), and (4) ego permeability (extent to which an L2 learner's perception of the L1 is defined as having either fixed and rigid boundaries or permeable and flexible boundaries that either cause inhibition or the ability to empathize respectively).

As a model of second language, Schumann’s acculturation model is a progressive one. The model shows acculturation as a process moving forward, but with a series of social and affective variables that might impede this process. For example, Schumann (1978) states that “if language shock and cultural shock are not overcome, and if the learner does not have sufficient and appropriate motivation and ego permeability, then he will not fully acculturate and hence will not acquire the second language fully” (p. 34). The social variables inherent in the social factor may also present a series of mitigating conditions that impede second language. For example, lack of cultural congruence between the L1 and L2 may act as a cultural barrier to second language. Stated another way, if the social and psychological distance between the L1 and the L2 and its respective
communities is too great, then the extent to which L2 learners seek contact with the target language community will diminish, and thus the acculturation process as a whole will suffer.

**Giles and Byrne’s Intergroup Model**

Like Clément's Social Context Model, Giles and Byrne’s Intergroup Model (1982, 1989) was developed to account for second language among minority groups in majority L2 situations. Conceptually, the model is similar to Lambert’s Social Psychology Model, Gardner’s Socio-educational Model, and Clément’s Social Context Model whose socio-psychological orientations were consciously adapted by Giles and Byrne in the development of their theory. Like Lambert’s, Gardner’s, and Clément’s models of second language, Giles and Byrne assume that the integrative motive is the strongest form of motivation, and that some form of identification with the target language community is essential for acquisition of an L2. Yet unlike Lambert’s, Gardner’s, and Clément’s models of second language, Giles and Byrne’s Intergroup Model (1982, 1989) expands the role of intergroup variables, such as ethnic identification and social differentiation, to account more fully for the linguistic, cognitive, and social processes that define second language.

In applying social identification theory to second language, Giles and Byrne recognize three factors that are salient to the concept of social identity among minority L2 learners in a majority L2 situation. These are ethnolinguistic vitality, perceived group boundaries, and multiple group memberships. Levels of ethnolinguistic vitality are important in the model because they determine how much psychological effort is expended by minority L2 learners to maintain their ethnic affiliations (Garrett, Giles, & Coupland, 1989, pp. 203-205). Perceived group boundaries are important in the model because they determine the level of freedom felt by an L2 learner in moving in or out of their linguistic group. Multiple group memberships are important in the model because
they signify the possible number of group affiliations an L2 learner may have as a result of their ethnic identification.

Based upon the study of these three factors in intergroup relations, Giles and Byrne identify 10 socio-psychological propositions that influence second language acquisition (Garrett, Giles, & Coupland, 1989). These ten propositions represent the learning orientations of minority L2 learners, whose positive or negative effects upon an individual’s choice to resist or persist in learning the L2 determine L2 proficiency. The first five propositions (see a-e of figure 1.5 below) are separated from the second set of propositions (see f-j of figure 1.5 below) in the model because they are seen as conditions which actually inhibit second language among subordinate groups where L2 acquisition is perceived as a possible threat to the majority group. Inhibition emerges when minority group members

(a) identify strongly with their ethnic group and perceive the in-group language (L1) as an important dimension of their cultural identity;

(b) construe “cognitive alternatives” to their subordinate intergroup status, such as feeling that their own relative positions was illegitimately created historically by dominant group oppression (rather than its being part of the accepted order of nature), and that there is some possibility of the status hierarchy being changed now;

(c) perceive both their in-group and the out-group boundaries to be hard and closed;

(d) identify with few other social categories, each of which provides them with inadequate identities and low intragroup statuses, relative to their ethnic identification; and

(e) perceive their in-group “ethnolinguistic vitality” to be high and compare it favorably with that of the out-group (Garrett, Giles, & Coupland, 1989, p. 203).
In recent revisions to the Intergroup Model (Garrett, Giles, & Coupland, 1989), Giles and Byrnes have recognized that study of an L2 by minority L2 learners may not always be commensurate with identity loss in some cases. Previously, Giles & Byrne (1982) hypothesized that if the converse of propositions a-e were the case, then a high propensity to accommodate the dominant L2 may exist producing higher levels of L2 proficiency. Now, however, this high propensity to accommodate the dominant L2 may exist when minority group members

(f) identify weakly with their ethnic group, and their language is not a salient dimension of ethnicity; or, if L1 is a salient dimension, it is not perceived to be threatened by second language; or, if seen as threatened, there are alternative nonlinguistic salient dimensions deemed satisfactory for preserving ethnic identity;

(g) construe no cognitive alternatives to their subordinate status to the extent that it is attributed as legitimate and there is little likelihood of change; or, when aware of alternatives, these are realizable only through second language;

(h) perceive in-group and out-group boundaries to be soft and open;

(i) identify with many other social categories, each of which provides adequate group identities and a satisfactory intragroup status; and

(j) perceive in-group vitality as low and neglected relative to out-group vitality; or, it is judged that second language will maintain or promote satisfying nonlinguistic aspects of in-group vitality (p. 212).

Based upon the ten propositions of this model, members who endorse propositions a-e will demonstrate low levels of the integrative motive in their learning orientation as a way to maintain their own cultural distinctiveness. They will avoid informal language learning contexts and develop proficiency only in those language skills taught in a L2 classroom environment. Members of the majority group in confirming
their out-group prejudices will perceive their non-proficiency. Their fellow in-group members who do gain proficiency will view their non-proficiency as the result of inadequate educational opportunities. Those members of the in-group, however, who endorse propositions f-j will demonstrate high levels of the integrative motive in their learning orientations, and thus achieve higher levels of proficiency. They will actively seek informal language learning contexts that develop their communicative competence and self-confidence in using the L2 in public. They will benefit from some nonlinguistic outcomes of L2 proficiency, such as increased liking for the L2 speakers and their culture. Individual levels of anxiety in general would only influence their proficiency. Their fellow in-group members, in turn, would perceive their proficiency differentially. Those alike in their learning orientation would have their motivation increased as a result of their success, while those who manifest fear of assimilation would view them as individuals who betrayed their heritage.
As a final note to the revised Intergroup model, Garrett, Giles, and Coupland (1989) stress three contextual features of the model that influence successful second language. They are “(1) the L2 and culture are fairly similar in their components of communicative proficiency to the L1 and its culture; (2) there is facultative exposure to the L2; and (3) there is facultative use of the L2” (pp. 213-214). Sociolinguistically speaking, it is possible that the most difficult L2s to master are those which are either closest or most distant from the L1. In the operations of these three features, obviously the learning context is paramount. It determines both the quality and the quantity of contact by which language ‘input’ is converted into language ‘intake’. Moreover, the perception of in-group and out-group boundaries may well have profound impacts upon learner orientations. Taken together, they define the specific sociolinguistic processes that
account for successful second language among minority L2 learners in majority language learning situations.

In summary, the five models described above focus upon attitudes and motivation in addition to individual learner variables conditioned by various social contexts to account for second language. The models in general focus heavily upon motivation, especially the integrative motive, which is hypothesized across all models to be the strongest form of motivation. In some of the models, this integrative motive is merely assumed to exist; whereas in others, the opposite of the integrative motive—i.e., fear of assimilation, is hypothesized to account for different routes and levels of second language. In each of the five models, however, the construct of motivation, as well as a number of motivational orientations, function to mediate the relationship between the socio-cultural milieu, individual learner variables, and general language learning outcomes.

General attitudes as well have received considerable attention in each of the five models. In some of the models, attitudes toward the L2 language or the L2 community function in conjunction with the integrative motive; whereas in others, attitudes are parceled out and are subsumed under the larger construct of the socio-cultural milieu. Of the five models, Lambert’s socio-psychological model and Gardner’s socio-educational model are the closest, the first being the foundation for the second since many of the constructs of Lambert’s model were consciously adopted by Gardner. The two models differ, however, in that Lambert posits direct causal links between attitudes and orientations and second language, while Gardner’s repeated testing of his model through Linear Structural Analysis (Gardner, Lalonde, & Pierson, 1983; Lalonde & Gardner, 1985; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995) reveals that this association is mediated instead by motivation.
Lambert's model too is the foundation for other socio-psychological models reviewed in this section. Lambert's model was the first to make explicit the effects of second language upon learners' self-identity and the social implications of bilingualism. Both Clément's social context model and Giles and Byrne's intergroup model investigate directly these social consequences of bilingualism, specifically as they relate to language learning outcomes and intergroup relations. Even though Gardner's model does not focus directly upon changes in self-identity as a result of second language, his definition of certain non-linguistic outcomes of language learning are synonymous with other concepts related to changes in self-identity that are made explicit elsewhere.

Although Schumann's acculturation model on the surface does not appear to be directly influenced by any of the previous models, his socio-psychological theory of second language bears strong resemblance to several aspects of each of the four models discussed above. Like Lambert, Schumann assumes that a primary requirement of the acculturation process is identification with the target language community. Unlike Lambert, however, but like Clément, Schumann places considerable emphasis upon the social milieu as the causal factor in this process. Similar too is Schumann's emphasis upon both social and psychological or individual difference variables that may impede the acculturation process. His definition of the social context as well as its mediating variables of enclosure, size, cohesiveness, and cultural congruence between the L1 and the L2 community parallel both Gardner's definition of the cultural milieu and Giles and Byrne's emphasis upon social dominance patterns, integration strategies (i.e., the salience of acquiring the L2), and perceived in-group or out-group boundaries. Moreover, Schumann's identification of such affective variables as culture shock and language shock parallels the notions of language anxiety and its opposite effect--i.e., self-confidence--as they are defined by Gardner in his socio-educational model, Giles and Byrne in their intergroup model, and Clément in his social context model.
In conclusion, the rationale for adopting a socio-psychological approach in this study is the salience of its application to other educational settings where study of a target language, literature, or culture is involved. Socio-psychological theories of SLA are important because they make explicit the fact that some language and cross-cultural communication skills have different causes that are not strictly linguistic in orientation. Recognition of some of the non-linguistic causes of SLA, like student cultural attitudes or motivational orientations, allow for application of these theories to other environments where observation of these processes can in tum can shed light upon the larger issue of acculturation in general or SLA in particular. Moreover, since socio-psychological theories of SLA look at acculturation and language learning from the perspective of both the individual and the communities involved, variations in the cultural setting or the populations under study do not diminish the power of the models themselves. Gardner (1985), for example, sees saliency in applying Schumann’s acculturation model or Giles and Byrne’s intergroup model to formal L2 classroom environments. Such research may reveal that significant learner attitudes function at both the individual and group level simultaneously. Similarly, research conducted by Clément and Kruidenier (1983), Gardner and MacIntyre (1991), Kraemer (1990), and Keesling and Lett (1993) suggest that future research must not only take into account significant features of the social-cultural milieu that influence individual differences in second language, but also examine the effect of social forces in specific language-learning situations that produce different clusters of motivational orientations than previously hypothesized.
Definition of Terms

**Culture:** The knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, needs and motivation that develop cognitive and connotative patterns which in turn shape an individual’s adaptation to the cultural setting in which he or she lives. (Inkeles, 1969). The focus of this study is contemporary Arabic culture as observed in the twenty-one Arabic-speaking countries that comprise the Arab World.

**Arabic foreign language classrooms:** Beginning to advanced-level Arabic language foreign language classrooms where Modern Standard Arabic (as opposed to dialectal Arabic) is taught (Arabic 101-603).

**Arabic culture classrooms:** College-level culture classrooms where culture of the contemporary Arab World is taught (Arabic 241).

**Arabic literature classrooms:** College-level literature survey classrooms where Arabic poetry, Arabic short stories, and Arabic novels are taught in translation (Arabic 372).

**Perception:** The process, act, or faculty of perceiving, including any insight, intuition, or knowledge gained by perceiving (The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language). The focus of this study is perceptions of Arabs and the Arab World in particular as accessed by attitude measures (see below).

**Attitude:** According to Mantle-Bromley (1995), psychological theories on attitudes share in common the notion that attitudes actually have three components: affect, cognition, and behavior (pp. 372-373). The affective dimension is defined as positiveness or negativeness toward a psychological object (Mueller, 1986). Cognition “refers to what a person knows about the attitudinal object. (“Know” is used loosely here and does not imply fact or truth)” (Mantle-Bromley, 1995, p. 373). The behavioral dimension reflects
intentions or actions related to the attitudinal object. In classrooms involving foreign
language and culture teaching, such attitudinal behaviors may include seeking out native
speakers of the language and intent to continue studying the language or culture.
Affective attitudes measured in this study include attitudes toward Middle Easterners in
general and Arabs in particular, attitudes toward Americans living in the United States,
and attitudes toward oneself. Cognitive attitude measures used in this study include
perceptions about Arabs and the Arab World and measures of student knowledge about
Arab customs, practices, the religion of Islam, cultural figures, and educational and
governmental systems. Behavior attitude measures used in this study include attitudes
toward further Arabic language and culture study, as well as attitudes toward Middle
Easterners based upon a social distance scale.

**Motivational orientation**: The purpose for electing study of a target language, its literature
and/or culture. Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) define two types of purposes—an
integrative motive (desire to emulate or communicate with people of the target language
culture) or an instrumental motive (desire to learn a second language/foreign language
for utilitarian reasons). Graham (1984) defines a third motivational orientation as
assimilative (the desire to become an indistinguishable member of a community).

Motivational orientation measures used in this study include purposes for Arabic
language, Arabic literature and Arabic culture study that are integrative, instrumental,
assimilative, as well as open-ended. Student desires to remain in contact with either their
ethnic background or religious heritage are also included based upon the researcher’s
previous experience in teaching Arabic language, Arabic literature, and Arabic culture in
a foreign language context.
Socio-cultural milieu: The social or cultural setting where learners grow up that determines the attitudes and motivational orientations they have towards the target language, its speakers, its culture, and its literature. These in turn influence learning outcomes (Ellis, 1994, p. 723). According to Gardner and Maclntyre (1993b), certain antecedent factors found in the socio-cultural milieu that need to be taken into account in the process of L2 learning include such biological and experiential variables as age, gender, prior language training etc.

Antecedent factor measures used in this study to describe learners’ socio-cultural backgrounds include two background sections of the questionnaire. Section one elicits student biographic information concerning age, gender, ethnic identity, religion etc. Section two elicits previous educational experiences related to the study of the Middle East in general or study of Arabic language, Arabic culture or Arabic literature in particular. Previous or anticipated travel to the Arab world is also included in this section. For non-native speakers of English, a third background section is included to measure current English usage outside the classroom, preference for use of either Arabic or English, and current attitudes toward native-English or Arabic-speakers on an individual level.

Assumptions

The proposed study is based upon the following theoretical and procedural assumptions:

1. There is a symbiotic relationship between language and culture teaching and literature and culture teaching within Arabic foreign language, Arabic literature, and Arabic
culture classrooms that facilitates study of the impact of culture teaching upon both language and acculturation processes simultaneously.

2. The choice of attitudinal and motivational variables is based upon the assumption that they are recognized in socio-psychological theories of second language as significant factors in foreign language acquisition and acculturation.

3. The attitudinal/motivational measures used in this study are valid and reliable. Any Likert scales responses that appear to be invalid due to ‘response-set’ variability—the tendency to respond in ways that appear socially desirable or the tendency to follow a set pattern in one’s responses—were thrown out.

4. Those participants who volunteer for this study were able to perform the tasks to the best of their ability on all measures.

5. Those participants whose primary language is not English have achieved a high-enough level of proficiency in English to satisfactorily complete the tasks to the best of their ability on all measures.

6. Those participants who volunteer for this study (both students and teachers) responded honestly on the attitudinal/motivational measures and gave honest answers to the interview questions to the best of their ability.

Limitations

The following are the limitation of the present study:

1. The proposed study is exploratory. As such, it supplies preliminary data on the impact of foreign language and culture teaching upon student attitudes and perceptions in Arabic foreign language, Arabic culture, and Arabic literature classrooms only. Replications of this study implicating other motivational orientations and methods of foreign language, literature and culture teaching in relation to other less commonly-taught languages is necessary.
2. Generalizability of the results is limited to the population under study and generalizations to other less-commonly taught foreign language, literature or culture classrooms must be made with caution.

3. Random selection of subjects was no possible. Students participated in the study on a voluntary basis. The results, therefore, can not be generalized to other populations.
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter reviews the most relevant research to date reflecting a socio-psychological orientation in the learning of a foreign language or culture. Studies addressed in this chapter will be limited to those that focus upon individual difference variables involved in the processes of SLA and acculturation, the effect of the socio-cultural milieu upon SLA and acculturation, and non-linguistic outcomes of FL or culture study. Within each of these areas, priority is given to those studies that investigate the variables of student attitudes toward learning the language, student attitudes toward the target culture and its speakers, student motivation and orientations, and concepts of self-identification and possible attitude modification as a result of foreign language and culture study. In the organization of this chapter, the reader should bear in mind that the placement of articles and monographs into the above-mentioned categories is an artificial construct on the part of this researcher to aid comprehension and avoid redundancy of information. Frequently certain articles may fall into more than one category. The reader is encouraged, therefore, to infer the relevance of certain articles to other categories as one sees fit.

Individual Difference Variables and SLA

Attitudes toward Learning the L2

In general, findings reveal that student attitudes toward study of a foreign language generally decrease after initial stages of language study due to higher levels of
language anxiety experienced at this stage or due to negative attitudes brought into the classroom by language learners. This downward trend continues until advanced levels are reached at which point anxiety toward language learning decreases. Anxiety levels may decrease sooner due to mitigating variables of motivation or other socio-educational factors. To meet the needs of this study, this section will focus more heavily upon initial student attitudes toward language study and changes-in-attitude research more than research to date on anxiety as an affective variable in SLA. (Except in cases where anxiety research in relation to less commonly taught languages may be useful for understanding the acquisition of the Arabic language).

Studies in FL education stressing the significant role played by student attitudes in SLA were first conducted by Bartley (1969, 1970), Jones (1949, 1950), and Jordan (1941). These early studies confirmed a general downward trend in attitudes among secondary-school language learners involved in the study of French, German, Spanish, and Welsh. Jordan (1941), for example, in his assessment of the attitudes of 231 boys in North London toward history, mathematics, geography, English, and French, found that attitudes toward French tended to be positive in the first year of language study, but declined steadily thereafter in sharp contrast to attitudes measured in three of the four other subject areas (History being the exception).

Jones (1949, 1950) similarly discovered that positive attitudes toward the study of Welsh declined with age and experience among secondary students studying Welsh in both rural and suburban settings. Jones believed that both the increase in student perception of the lack of utility in learning Welsh as well as the emphasis upon
grammatical instruction were contributing factors toward this decline. Moreover, Jones also found statistically significant sex differences in attitude scores between boys and girls with girls showing a more favourable attitude toward Welsh than their male counterparts.

Bartley (1969, 1970) also noted statistically significant sex differences in attitude scores between boys and girls in her studies designed to assess the difference in attitudes among students who either continued or dropped out of the study of French, German, and Spanish upon the conclusion of the eighth grade in Palo Alto, California. In comparing the attitudes of those students who continued language study in high school to those that opted out of language study, she found that the drop-out group had 5.07 points negative mean change in attitude, while the continuing-language group had more stable attitude mean scores. Girls in both groups, however, achieved significantly higher scores than the boys.

Based upon results of these previous studies, research in the 1970s began to investigate the impact of attitudes of L2 students toward language learning for its possible predictive value in relation to achievement. In 1973, for example, Randhawa and Korpan conducted a study to measure attitudes toward the study of French among 100 seventh- and eighth-grade students in mid-west Canada. Factor analysis of the attitude scores obtained in the study revealed that four factors (defined as utilitarian, aestheticism, tolerance, and projection-attitude) in addition to measures of total motivational intensity, instrumental orientation, and integrative orientation operated to account for 30.6 percent of the variance. Of these seven factors, tolerance and motivational intensity were the
most effective in predicting achievement in French, accounting for 27.8 percent of the variance.

In a longitudinal study of French conducted by Burstall, Jamieson, Cohen, and Hargreaves (1974) with English elementary-school pupils, they found that attitudes toward French generally became more negative from the first to the third year of study. Older pupils expressed less interest in learning foreign languages, stressed the increased difficulty of learning French, and saw less future advantage in studying French in relation to other school subjects. Findings reported by Gardner and Smythe (1975) and Gardner (1985) similarly confirmed that attitudes toward the study of a FL appear to decrease with age and level of education. According to Gardner (1985), “The older students tend to have more knowledge of the language, hence the assessment of their achievement probably has more to do with their knowledge of the language than that for younger students. Then, too, their increased experience with the language would permit greater variation in success and failure which could be generalized to attitudes toward learning the second language” (p. 44).

In reporting their findings, Burstall et al. (1974) suggest that students who achieve a high level of proficiency in L2 study experience rewards that consequently motivate them to develop favorable attitudes; students experiencing lower levels of success consequently develop lower attitudes toward the language. Although previous studies suggest an association between attitudes and achievement (Gardner & Symthe, 1975; Jones, 1950; Jordan, 1941; Randhawa & Korpman, 1973; Burstall, 1975), Gardner (1985)
is of the opinion that attitude measures relate to achievement because of important affective components and "not simply because the attitudes covary with ability" (p. 45).

To investigate this possibility, Gardner (1985) collected data from 15 samples of students drawn from four regions across Canada in two successive years to determine whether or not levels of achievement attained by the student influenced attitude scores. Gardner performed a 2 x 2 analysis of variance where the two factors analyzed were level of achievement (high versus low) and time of testing (year one versus year two) and used French class grades to identify levels of achievement. Gardner used French class grades in lieu of scores taken from objective measures of French achievement because such scores "would reflect more adequately than results on objective tests [students'] personal feelings of success with respect to the French programme" (p. 93). The results from the study indicated that for both level of achievement and time of testing significant effects were most pronounced for the measure of motivation, next for attitudes toward the learning situation, and least for integrativeness. (For a definition of these terms, see chapter 1 under Gardner's socio-educational model). This evidence confirmed existence of a relationship between attitudes and achievement. Yet the general lack of "interactions between level of achievement and year of testing indicates, however, that whatever changes do take place from one year to the next are fairly common for both the successful and unsuccessful student. Such results seriously question the validity of the notion 'nothing succeeds like success' as it applies to the language acquisition situation" (p. 95). Gardner further hypothesized that decreases in attitudes toward the L2 may be a
result of the effect of increases in age, education, experience, or the effect of taking the
test twice. (p. 97).

Relying upon the basis of Gardner and his associates’ extensive research on
attitudes and motivation in the 1960s and 1970s inside Canada¹, researchers in the 1980s
and 1990s have investigated the impact of attitudes toward the L2 upon proficiency levels
in language learning environments outside Canada. Seeking to replicate Gardner and
Lambert’s (1972) research concerning the nature of L2 learning in other environments,
Pierson, Fu, and Lee (1980) conducted a study with 466 secondary school ESL students at
the 10th grade level. Their subjects were drawn from 8 English-medium and 3 Chinese-
medium schools throughout Hong Kong. Subjects were asked to complete attitude
questionnaires (developed by Gardner & Lambert, 1972, & Spolsky, 1969) that measured
their attitudes toward the study and use of English and their attitudes toward native
English speakers in relation to attitudes toward themselves. English attainment was
assessed by a cloze procedure as suggested by Oller et al. (1977).

Based upon factor analysis of the attitude measures, results from this study
revealed that “the more the Ss said they felt uneasy and insecure when speaking English,
the higher their cloze scores . . . Equally interesting is the fact that the more Ss agreed
with the statement ‘If I use English, I will be praised and approved of by my family,
relative, and friends,’ the lower their cloze scores “(Pierson, Fu, & Lee, 1980, p. 297).
These researchers suggest that the complexity of these findings may be reflexive of

¹ For a summary of Gardner and his associates’ research producing his socio-educational model of SLA see
Language Learning.
Oller's (1977) suggestions that matters of self-flattery, approval motive, and threat to identity (in a multilingual situation such as this one) were operating to confound the results of the direct attitude measures used in the study. Interestingly, however, the results of the indirect measures as adapted from Spolsky (1969) did not correlate significantly with the cloze test scores. This finding contrasted with a previous study of Oller, Huson, and Liu (1977) in which attitudes towards both the self and the native language group correlated positively, in general, with attained proficiency in English as a second language.

Another test of Gardner's socio-educational model for SLA in learning environments outside Canada is Muchnick and Wolfe's (1982) study of attitudes and motivations of 337 middle-school and high-school students studying Spanish in middle-class, white suburbs located outside Philadelphia. Adapting Gardner et al.'s AMTB (Attitudinal and Motivational Test Battery) to measure American students' attitudes and motivations toward the subject of Spanish and Spanish-speakers in the U.S. and in Europe, Muchnick and Wolfe found that attitudes toward the Spanish course and Spanish class anxiety correlated significantly with grades in Spanish. "Positive attitudes toward learning a foreign language such as Spanish, and positive attitudes toward native speakers of Spanish, as well as positive motivation to learn Spanish, were associated with lack of anxiety in the Spanish classroom" (Muchnick & Wolfe, 1982, p. 272). Moreover, males and females reacted differently toward the learning of Spanish, Spanish-speakers, the course itself, and the classroom teacher. "Female subjects reported positive attitudes
toward learning Spanish and interacting with Spanish speakers, yet actually reported negative attitudes about their specific Spanish classroom teacher and course. Males, however, while reporting less positive attitudes and motivations for Spanish study, reported significantly higher perceptions of the Spanish teacher and course” (Muchnick & Wolfe, 1982, p. 274). Jones (1949, 1950) reported similar differences between males and females in their attitudes toward the subject of Welsh in his study.

Another longitudinal study conducted by Kraemer and Zisenwine (1989) also found similar results among students studying Hebrew in a private school setting in South Africa. Kraemer and Zisenwine investigated the changes in attitudes among 1,252 students ranging in age from nine to eighteen years over an extended period of time. They also looked for patterns of attitude change in relation to other affective variables such as orientations toward learning the language and motivation. Their findings supported the notion that attitudes toward the study of Hebrew dropped with increased age, although this decrease was more pronounced and steady throughout the elementary and junior-high divisions than in the high-school grades. Upon completion of the Hebrew language program, upper-level student attitudes increased slightly, which, according to Kraemer and Zisenwine, "might be an expression of increased motivation for studying Hebrew as the matriculation examination approaches" (1989, p. 11).

Based upon the overwhelming evidence supporting the notion that student attitudes toward study of a FL decreases throughout language study, Maatle-Bromley and Miller (1991) initiated research incorporating attitude-change theory to test the effects of active intervention on the part of teachers to reverse this trend. In two studies conducted by
Mantle-Bromley and Miller (1991) and Mantle-Bromley (1995), intercultural communication and sensitivity lessons were incorporated into French and Spanish language classes for the duration of one semester at the middle- and high school levels. Pre-tests and post-tests were given to those classes receiving the instruction and to those classes where no such instruction was present (those classes used as the control group).

At the end of the treatment, ANCOVA was performed to determine if attitudes of students who participated in the treatment lesson differed from attitudes of the control group. Gardner, Smythe and Clément’s (1974) AMTB was used to measure students’ attitudes. ANCOVA was also used to determine if students’ achievement was different based on their treatment group. Students’ language aptitude (as measured by GPA) was used as the covariate.

In the first study (1991), no significant differences in relation to achievement were found between the treatment groups (p > .10). According to Mantle-Bromley, “This finding is not too surprising given the relatively brief duration of the treatment lessons and the overall decline in both groups’ attitude scores. However, gains in achievement made by some students were possibly counterbalanced by drops in achievement by students whose attitudes became less positive” (p. 423). Moreover, “Achievement was significantly higher for students whose attitude scores increased over the period of one semester than for students whose scores had remained stable or had decreased . . . While these tests in no way reflect the lessons given to the treatment group, they do indicate a relationship between improved attitudes and higher achievement in the Spanish class (p. 423).
In Mantle-Bromley's (1995) replication of her first study, this time conducted with Middle School Spanish and French students, the ANCOVA showed that the experimental groups’ mean scores on the AMTB was significantly greater than that of the students in the control group (p < .05). The results of a test battery designed to assess student beliefs about L2 acquisition (BALLI), as adapted from Horowitz (1988), indicated that students who enter their first language class may have misconceptions about language learning that may hinder their progress and persistence in language study. Overall, ANCOVA procedures revealed that the experimental students’ mean score on the pre-AIOI (Attitudes, Interest, and Orientation Index --a sub-test of the AMTB) increased slightly by 2.8 points, while the control groups’ decreased by 7.4 points. Moreover, differences in the control and experimental groups’ post-AIOI scores seemed to reflect more of maintenance of the experimental groups’ attitudes than a positive attitude gain, because the decrease in the control group’s overall score was greater than the experimental group’s increase. Such evidence suggests, according to Mantle-Bromley, that “without teacher intervention, students become not more, but less positive about other language and cultures after initial exposure to language study” (p. 278). These effects may be the result, as Gardner (1985) suggests, of student disinterest in retaking the AMTB.

A Dutch study conducted by Kuhlemeier, Van Den Bergh, and Melse (1996) with 1307 first-year German students at the secondary-school level in the Netherlands is the most recent research to date seeking to determine the strength of relationships between attitudes and achievement. Kuhlemeier, Van Den Bergh, and Melse designed their study
using statistical modeling procedures with two goals in mind: First, to investigate the type of casual relationships existing between attitudes toward the German teacher, toward the course material, and the subject of German in relation to achievements at both the beginning and at the end of the first year of German study; and second, to compare the effect of attitudes and achievement among students enrolled in grammar-oriented versus communicative-oriented classrooms. They hypothesized that a substantial relationship between attitudes and achievements is present at both the beginning and at the end of an initial year of German study and that initial attitudes at the beginning of the school year exert a certain amount of influence on final attitudes and achievements at the end of the school year.

The results of this study revealed, in contrast to Kuhlemeier, Van Den Bergh, and Melse's initial beliefs, that "After one year of German instruction, the attitudes and achievements correlated about as weakly as at the beginning of the school year" (1996, p. 500). The relationship between attitudes toward the subject of German and word comprehension is largely responsible for this weak relationship. At the beginning of the first year of German, however, students with a positive attitude demonstrated a better comprehension of German words than those having a less favourable attitude. At the end of the school year, "students with a positive attitude toward German, the course material, and the teacher show slightly better achievements in some language skills than their classmates with a less positive attitude" (1996, p. 504). Moreover, students' attitudes toward German do not appear to have a direct effect on their final achievements. This study does show, however, that student "attitudes toward German at the beginning of the
school year strongly influenced their attitudes toward the subject, the course, and the
teacher at the end of the school year” (Kuhlemeier, Van Den Bergh, & Melse 1996, p.
505). These findings confirm conclusions suggested by Gardner (1985) that increases in
age, experience, etc. (i.e., affective variables) may bear direct effects upon achievement in
FL study, but initial attitudes do not.

Of the four external variables which were hypothesized by Kuhlemeier, Van Den
Bergh, and Melse to have an effect upon attitudes--course (grammatical versus
communicative), repeating the school year, ethnicity, and intelligence--only the course
and repeating showed a substantial relationship to attitudes in this study. Those who took
the communicative-oriented German course demonstrated more positive attitudes toward
the course than those students enrolled in the grammar-oriented course, while repeaters
had a slightly less-positive attitude toward German and less appreciation toward the
course at the end of the school year. Such findings--less appreciation of the course over
time, as well as preference for communicative-oriented instruction over grammar-
oriented instruction--are finding similar to those found by Jones (1969).

To conclude, in two studies conducted by Samimy and Tabuse (1992) and
Samimy and Saito (1996), the relationship between affective variables and a less
commonly taught language (Japanese) was explored to determine if the difficulty level of
Japanese triggers negative affective reactions that in turn affect student linguistic
performance. In Samimy and Tabuse’s (1992) first study, they measured beginning-level
collegiate Japanese student attitudes, motivation, and classroom personality styles (i.e.,
language class risktaking, language class discomfort, and language class sociability--as
defined by Ely, 1986), both in the Autumn and the Spring quarters. Final course grades were used as a global measure of performance. Step-wise regression analysis revealed that female graduate students who were willing risk-takers received high grades at the end of the Autumn quarter. In the Spring quarter, however, strength of motivation and the presence of Japanese spoken at home were the best two predictors of learners' final grades. Results of paired-t tests measuring changes in motivation and attitudes from Autumn to Spring revealed that there were significant negative changes in attitude, motivation, and achievement among the students who completed Japanese 101, 102, and 103 consecutively. Samimi and Tabuse speculated that either the difficulty of Japanese as a noncognate language or higher levels of anxiety may have contributed to this decline. Based upon the results of this study, they concluded that “A strong claim cannot be made that this [decline] was caused by the language learning per se, or by a more general decline of enthusiasm for studying among students during the Spring quarter” (1992, p. 392).

In Samimi and Saito's (1996) second study, they focused attention upon the affective variable of anxiety and its possible relationship to students' performance among beginning, intermediate, and advanced Japanese language learners enrolled at the University of Texas at Austin. Using Ely's (1984, 1986) two-part questionnaire, they also attempted to define what variables correlated significantly with anxiety at each instructional level and what role anxiety plays in relation to student overall performance in Japanese. The results of their step-wise regression procedures revealed that Language Class Anxiety was the only variable considered for entry into the equation model that best
predicted student final grades for both intermediate- and advanced-levels. For beginning
level students, however, Year in College was the only variable considered for entry into
the model. Similar to Samimy and Tabuse’s first study (1992), Year in College was the
best predictor for student final grades. At all three instructional levels, however, both
Language Class Risk-taking and final grades correlated significantly with Language Class
Anxiety.

The results of Samimy and Saito’s 1996 study collaborate findings suggested by
MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) that in early stages of language acquisition, motivation and
language aptitude function as best predictors of proficiency. In Samimy and Saito’s
study, however, the mean Language Anxiety scores revealed an interesting trend in that
advanced students scored the highest ($x = 3.15$); intermediate students scored the lowest
($x = 2.79$); while beginning students scored in between ($x = 2.99$). Such results
contrasted with Gardner et. al.’s (1977) study of French Class Anxiety of English-
speaking students learning French at beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels. In
Gardner et al.’s study, beginning-level mean anxiety scores were highest, while advanced-
level mean scores were lowest, and intermediate-level mean scores fell in between. This
contrast in findings lead Samimy and Tabuse to conclude that “Although additional
research is called for, it may be that the assertion made by MacIntyre and Gardner (1991)
that ‘as experience and proficiency increase, anxiety declines in a fairly consistent
manner’ is more applicable to the learners of commonly taught or cognate languages than
to learners of the other less commonly taught, noncognate languages” (1996, p. 247).
**Attitudes toward the Target-Language Community and its Speakers**

In FL research conducted from a socio-psychological perspective, findings suggest that a contiguous relationship may exist between the process of SLA and the processes of acculturation or integration into a foreign language and culture. In both cases, attitudes toward the target language itself as well as attitudes toward the target-language speakers may correlate under certain conditions with attained proficiency levels. To explore the nature of this relationship between motivation for language study inclusive of attitudes toward the target-language community and its speakers, a number of comparative studies within the last thirty years investigated attitudes toward oneself, attitudes toward the native group, and attitudes toward the target language community in relation to proficiency levels in FL and SL settings. The results of these specific studies are discussed below.

The first study to compare the relationships between these affective variables and attained proficiency levels was that of Spolsky (1969). In his study, he investigated motivations for studying English and attitudes toward one's native language group and attitudes toward English-speaking individuals across four sets of ESL college-level students representative of 80 different countries studying English in the United States. Results of his direct questionnaire revealed that no more than 20% of the students queued could be considered integratively motivated, the remainder giving instrumental reasons for studying English in the U.S. No significant correlations were obtained between motivation for FL study and proficiency in English.
Results of Spolsky's (1969) indirect questionnaire revealed however that attitudes toward speakers of the FL have effects upon how well one acquires the language. "A person learns a language better when he wants to be a member of the group speaking that language" (Spolsky, 1969, p. 281). In the correlation of scores taken from lists 1 and 4 of Spolsky's indirect questionnaire, measuring the degree to which a subject perceives himself as already being like speakers of English, a significant correlation between this perception and proficiency in English was found. For all groups, Spolsky's subtraction of the correlation between lists 2 and 3 from the correlation of lists 2 and 4 (whose positive remainder measures a greater desire to be like speakers of English than to be like speakers of the native language) was also statistically significant at the .01% level. Moreover, this relationship held true for the individual groups as well (with the exception of group IV). Groups I and II, the most homogeneous in terms of proficiency in English, had the highest correlation when compared to the other two groups (III and IV). No significant correlations were obtained, however, on those sections of the indirect questionnaire that measured differences in perceptions between self-image and desired self-image and that section of the indirect questionnaire that measured the degree to which a subject perceives himself as being like speakers of his own language.

A second study conducted by Lyczak, Fu, and Ho (1976) with 210 first-year university students in the British Crown Colony of Hong Kong tested findings suggested by Gardner and Lambert (1972) that attitudes of bilinguals toward speakers of their second language are related to proficiency levels in the second language. Using a matchguise technique, subjects were asked to evaluate the personality characteristics of four
bilingual female narrators reciting ten passages (five in Chinese, five in English) on 13 measures (one narrator was used twice). Lyczak et al. speculated that their findings may be different from those of Lambert et al.'s (1965) similar study with Arab-Israeli samples and from Gardner and Lambert's (1972) study with French-Canadian samples due to the fact that, in contrast to the situation in Israel and Montreal, there is much more integration of subcultures in Hong Kong than what exists in Montreal. There is also the appearance of more peaceful co-existence between the Chinese and English in Hong Kong than what one finds between the Arabs and Israelis in Israel.

In Lyczak et al.'s study, factorial analysis of variance (guise x gender of subjects x order of passage) performed on each of the 13 traits revealed significant main effects for guise (Chinese vs. English) and sex (male vs. female). "Chinese guises were rated significantly more kind, trustworthy, honest, considerate, serious of purpose, humble, and friendly. English guises were rated significantly more good looking, intelligent, well-off, and competent. In addition, males rated speakers more favorably than females on the following traits: considerate, ..., good looking, ..., and status of occupation" (Lyczak et al., 1976, p. 430). When the 13 traits were then factor analyzed, two factors emerged—factor I containing traits of 'character' and factor II relating to 'success' or 'competence'. The majority of traits defining factor I were traits associated more favorably with the Chinese guises, while the four traits comprising factor II were ones rated more favorably with the English guises. In contrast to findings that reveal a relationship between attitude and language performance—as suggested by Lambert, Gardner, Barik and Tunstail,
(1963)--, only the correlation on the difference between Chinese and English guises on the trait of ‘friendliness’ was statistically significant in relation to Chinese proficiency.

The results of this study do not support the premise advocated by Gardner and Lambert (1972) that attitudes of bilinguals toward the L2 community are related to proficiency of the bilinguals in the L2. Lyuczak et al speculate however that in bilingual communities such as Hong Kong where 99% of the population are Chinese-speakers verses Montreal where two-thirds of the population is ethnically French-Canadian, Chinese interaction with the English-speaking minority is very limited. Moreover in Montreal, French-Canadian interaction with the English-speaking minority is not only possible, but unavoidable. In addition, racial and cultural similarities between the two groups make integration into English-speaking society on the part of French Canadians much more easier than the possibility for integration by Chinese-speakers into the English-speaking community of Hong Kong. Such differences in the socio-cultural milieu, therefore, may account for the different results found by Gardner and Lambert and Lyuczak et al.

Three studies conducted by Oller, Hudson and Liu (1977), Oller, Baca, and Vigil (1977), and Chihara and Oller (1978) investigated attitudes and attained proficiency in ESL and EFL among three separate groups of Chinese-speakers, Mexican-American speakers, and Adult Japanese-speakers studying English in the United States and in Japan. In each study, the relations between various measures of attitudes toward self, the native language group, the target language group, reasons for learning English as a second language, reasons for traveling to the U.S., and attained proficiency levels were examined
using similar direct and indirect measures adopted from the work of Gardner and Lambert (1972) and Spolsky (1969).

The results of these three studies question the claim advocated by Spolsky (1969) that attitudes toward speakers of the FL have effects upon how well one acquires a second or foreign language. Although Oller, Hudson and Liu’s (1977) study of 44 Chinese ESL graduate students tended to support in general the notion that attitudes toward self, the native language group, and the target language group tend to correlate positively with attained proficiency in ESL, they had difficulty in explaining why significant negative correlations were obtained between attained English proficiency and students’ desire to stay permanently in the U.S. Moreover, the relation between attained proficiency and attitudes toward the target language group seemed more complex than the relations between attained proficiency and attitudes toward self and towards the native language group. Results of the study did support however the notion that learners who are more integratively oriented do perform better than those who are less integratively oriented.

The second study in this series by Oller, Baca, and Vigil (1977) investigated attitudes and attained proficiency in ESL among Mexican-American women studying English in the job corps in Alberquerque, New Mexico. “This study found that the more positively a group of Mexican-American women . . . rated anglos on personal traits such as ‘religious’, ‘sensitive’, ‘shy’, ‘kind’, and ‘considerate’, the lower was their score on a proficiency test in English” (Oller & Perkins, 1978, p. 91). Moreover, they appeared to be anti-integratively oriented towards the Anglo-American community. Oller, Baca, and Vigil concluded from the results of this study that as these Mexican-American women
became more proficient in English, they appeared to be more negative toward Americans. This observation was consistent with their findings that those traits valued positively if attributed to self or the native language group were the same traits valued negatively with reference to Americans (1977, p. 173).

The last study in this series conducted by Chihara and Oller (1978) with 123 Japanese adults enrolled in beginning, intermediate, and advanced EFL classes at the Osaka YMCA in Japan investigated attitudes toward self, toward native Japanese, toward English, and toward travel to an English-speaking country in relation to attained proficiency in a FL setting. The goal of the study was to see if positive attitudes toward self and toward members of the native language group that result in higher scores on English proficiency tests within ESL settings (Oller, Hudson, & Liu, 1977) also result in EFL settings. Based upon results of a cloze test designed by Oller, Hudson, and Liu (1977) and the indirect questionnaire designed by Spolsky (1969), this study concluded that only weak correlations substantiate any relationship between attitudes and proficiency levels in EFL settings. Attitudes seemed to be about equally favorable toward Americans and Japanese. The only areas of contrast between the two were on the traits of modesty, cheerfulness, optimism, and shyness. On these traits Japanese rated Americans as being less shy and less modest, but more cheerful and more optimistic in relation to their Japanese counter-parts. Only one factor among nine resulting from factor analysis of the attitude measure toward self correlated with scores on the cloze test; no correlations were apparent between factors deduced from measures of how students would like to be and scores from the cloze test; only two factors among eight resulting
from factor analysis of the attitude measure toward Japanese people correlated with scores on the cloze test; and only two factors among nine resulting from factor analysis of the attitude measure toward English-speakers correlated with scores on the cloze test. Within this last category, the lower EFL learners rated English-speakers on the two factors of ‘modest’ and ‘confident’, the higher their scores on the cloze test.

The inability to define the exact nature of the relationship between student attitudes toward self, the native language group, the target language group, and attained levels of proficiency is best explained by Gardner’s extensive study of attitudinal/motivational variables and SLA as summarized in Gardner (1985). In Gardner’s (1980) review of conflicting findings apparent in the articles reviewed above, he states that “There may be other ‘inconsistencies’ in the literature, but do they really invalidate the generalization that affective variables are predictably related to second language achievement (please note I said predictably, not strongly or weakly). And to these ‘exceptions’ necessitate postulating other sources of variance?” (p. 256). According to Gardner (1980, 1985), affective variables of the sorts described above are probably only indirectly related to language learning. He believes that they may be directly related to motivations to learn which in their turn have a direct effect on the learning of a FL or SL. Full explanation of this relationship is delineated in his socio-educational model (see the development of this model in chapter 1). Based upon extensive research conducted by Clément, Gardner, and Smythe (1977), Gardner (1977, 1979, 1980, 1985), Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) and Gardner, Smythe, Clément, and Gliksman (1976), ample
evidence exists of a verifiable association between attitudinal/motivational variables and second language achievement.

**Student Motivation, Orientations, and SLA**

In FL research, explanations for differential rates of success among students studying a foreign language and its culture are not based upon composite measures of student attitudes and perceptions of the target language and its speakers alone. Frequently, those studies that investigate attitude variables in relation to SLA also consider student motivational orientations toward language study in conjunction with other affective variables to account for achievement in an L2. Extensive research carried out by Gardner and Lambert supports the notion, however, that in most L2 learning environments, it is more lucrative to examine the interaction between student attitudes and motivational orientations in relation to SLA to determine both the rate and success of language acquisition and subsequent degrees of integration into the target-language community. Even though earlier studies—such as those of Bartley (1969, 1970), Chihara and Oller (1978), Jones (1949, 1950), Oller, Baca, and Vigil (1977), Oller, Hudson, and Liu (1977), Pierson, Fu, and Lee (1980), Randhawa and Karpman (1973), and Spolsky (1969)—often imply correlations between initial attitudes and motivational orientations in relation to indexes of achievement, these studies, do not, due to the limitations of their research designs, take the next step to explain the nature of the interrelationship between attitudinal and motivational variables to account for SLA. These studies have been valuable, nevertheless, in establishing important links between attitudes and motivational orientations in different L2 learning environments.
Consequently, in this section of the literature review, focus will be placed upon that research (such as studies conducted by Gardner and his colleagues) that explore either the interrelationship between attitudinal and motivational orientations in relation to SLA (integrative motivation) or research that investigates other motivational constructs to account for differential rates of success among FL/SL students. The foundation for this type of research was established initially by Gardner and Lambert prior to 1972. In their earlier studies, Gardner and Lambert isolated attitudinal/motivational variables from other independent variables of aptitude and intelligence to account for rates of success among English-speaking students studying French in Canada. (Gardner & Lambert, 1959; Gardner, 1960; Lambert, Gardner, Barik, & Tunstall, 1962; and Feenstra & Gardner, 1968). Initial distinctions between integrative and instrumental orientations were also clarified at this time.

In 1970, Gardner and Santos began replicating their Canadian research elsewhere, first with Philippine high school students of English (Gardner & Santos, 1970) and second with American high school students of French (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). In the Gardner and Santos (1970) study, correlations between measures of attitudes of students and their parents in conjunction with either instrumental or integrative motivational indexes were found to be statistically significant with achievement in English. In Gardner and Lambert’s (1972) studies conducted with American high-school students of French in Maine, in Louisiana, and in Connecticut, they found that both instrumental and integrative motivational orientations correlated with achievement in French—specifically in relation to French aural and oral skills. As summarized by Gardner and Lambert
(1972), differences in the socio-psychological settings found in Canada, in the US, and in the Philippines account best for strength of either integrative motivation or instrumental motivation or a combination of the two in relation to SLA. In North America, for example, successful students of a foreign language that is not readily present and whose culture is generally absent demonstrate an integrative orientation, since an instrumental orientation does not seem as relevant for their socio-psychological setting. In contrast, students in the Phillipines or in other developing nations whose imported second language has become the principal national language demonstrate both instrumental and integrative orientations in relation to achievement in the L2

**Integrativeness and SLA**

The term integrativeness or the integrative motive as defined by Gardner and Smythe (1975) is a configuration of attitudinal/motivational variables comprising attitudes toward the L2 community, the language learning situation, and motivational attributes. As a construct, it includes a type of orientation to learn an L2 that is based upon positive feelings toward the L2 community, specifically among English-speaking students studying French. This form of motivation is also associated with an interest in continued language study as well as proficiency in the language (Gardner, 1985, pp. 82-83). According to Gardner and Smythe (1975), this construct “is not meant to suggest that this is the only motivational base which will promote second-language acquisition, but it seems to be one which is particularly effective in many cultural settings where second-language acquisition is neither necessary nor perceived as an accepted fact of life” (p. 219).
Based upon this understanding of the possible interrelationship between attitudinal and motivational variables and SLA, several studies have tested the saliency of the integrative motive in contexts outside the range of Gardner and Lambert’s initial research. Gliksman (1976, 1981), for example, investigated in two studies the effects of the integrative motive on classroom behaviour among grade nine students enrolled in French at a London secondary school. In the first study, he contrasted the classroom behavior of students identified as integratively motivated with those who were less-integratively motivated (as defined by a median split on an aggregate score based on measures of integrativeness and motivation). Study one revealed that integratively motivated students volunteered more, made more correct responses, and received more positive reinforcement than non-integratively motivated students. Study two replicated the findings of study one and also “demonstrated that integratively motivated students evidenced more positive affect in the ongoing classroom activities. These results tend to suggest that one of the reasons integratively motivated students attain higher levels of proficiency in French is because they expend more effort in learning the language in class” (Gliksman, 1976, p. 71).

A similar study to Gliksman’s (1976), conducted by Gardner, Smythe, Clément, and Gliksman (1976), tested the saliency of the integrative motive across a much broader sample of 1000 high school French students taken from seven regions across Canada. In this study, Gardner et al. hypothesized that differences in cultural milieux may not only influence certain attitudinal/motivational variables, but also influence the extent to which a student’s language aptitude relates to achievement. “That is, if the cultural milieu is
such that all students are expected to learn a second language, then a major determinant of a student’s level of achievement would be his cognitive skills. If, on the other hand, second-language acquisition is not expected, then one might hypothesize that motivational differences might moderate the relative contribution of language aptitude” (Gardner et al., 1976, p. 200). In formal classroom settings, for example, where structural characteristics of the L2 are emphasized, both aptitude and motivational orientations influence achievement. In informal settings, however, student individual variables (such as willingness to interact with native speakers etc.) influence to a higher degree motivational variables and thus achievement.

The results of Gardner et al.’s (1976) study indicate that for this sample of Canadian French students, the index of motivation was the most consistent predictor of each of the variables under consideration, followed next by the measures of interest in foreign languages, language aptitude, and integrativeness respectively. French classroom anxiety predicted only one measure, speech skills, which was negatively correlated to a measure of oral production. This study also confirmed the assumption that the integrative motive provides students with the necessary motivation to persist in their language studies in contrast to those students in the study who opted out of French class in high school. Moreover, integratively motivated students expended more effort in learning French as evidenced by the amount of time they spent outside of class doing homework-related activities. Such measures related not only to motivational intensity when correlated with achievement, but also related to strength of the integrative motive--i.e., the desire to communicate with French-speakers. Inside the classroom, more
integratively motivated students volunteered to answer questions more with a higher percentage of right answers. This behavior of integratively-oriented students as observed by Gardner et al. paralleled behavioral characteristics of the more integratively motivated students as observed by Gilksman (1976).

Several studies have tested the saliency of the integrative motive principle with minority ethnic groups studying a FL or SL inside Canada and also with FL students outside Canada. A preliminary study addressing this issue of integrativeness with students inside the US is a study conducted by Munich and Wolfe (1982), (see also above under Attitudes toward target language speakers). The results of this study revealed that American high school students studying Spanish demonstrate both integrative and instrumental reasons for undertaking language study. Sums of scores taken from integrative indexes and instrumental indexes loaded together to form factor one in this study. This composite measure of orientation toward language study related to positive attitudes about learning Spanish and was additionally associated with positive attitudes toward language study and native speakers of Spanish, whether in Europe or in the United States. The overall factor structure of Munich and Wolfe’s adapted AMTB differed, however, from the logical derivatives found in Montreal by Gardner et al. with English-speaking Canadians learning French. Whereas in Montreal, successful students reported integrative orientations for language study, as well as positive attitudes toward native speakers and foreign languages in general, successful students in Philadelphia reported both integrative and instrumental orientations for L2 learning along with positive attitudes toward Spanish speakers and the Spanish language. Munich and Wolfe
concluded that differences in these composite measures between their study and Gardner et al.'s study may be the result of differences in the socio-cultural settings found in Montreal and in Philadelphia. Whereas Montreal is definitely bilingual, Philadelphia is monolingual and monocultural. Therefore, in environments where students lack opportunity to interact with native language speakers, students do not separate integrative and instrumental orientations for language study. The predictive nature of Gardner's socio-educational model, nevertheless, holds true; for Gardner's model presupposes that differences in socio-cultural settings will determine differential attitudes and motivations for foreign language study among speakers in disparate language learning settings.

Central to Gardner's integrative motive construct is the concept that more integratively oriented students demonstrate persistence in language study that separates them from less integratively oriented students. Several studies have called into question this hypothesis (see, for example, Burstall et al., 1974 under Attitudes toward the L2), as well as questioned clear distinction between integrative and instrumental orientations among students studying an L2 in language learning environments outside Canada. Hermann (1980), for example, in her study of 750 English students who had either just begun English study or had just completed a five-year program in English, postulated that the integrative motive is the result of successful language learning (called the resultant hypothesis), not the cause of it. From the results of her study, she suggests that a dialectic interrelationship between level of achievement and the integrative motive may be operative in FL classroom settings. Even though at initial stages of language learning, the integrative motive may be strongest, after several years of language study, however, the
integrative motive may be replaced the resultant motive. To support her case, she cites the fact that students with lower achievement scores in her study appeared to be influenced by the resultant hypothesis, not by attitudes toward the target language community, as measured by their responses to the ethnolinguistic community.

Strong (1984), as well, questioned the strength of the integrative motive to predict achievement in an L2 in his study of nineteen Spanish-speaking kindergarten students learning English. By comparing the strength of the integrative motive among beginning English-language kindergartners versus advanced-level English speaking kindergartners at the beginning of the school year, he hypothesized that among the beginning group, those who showed signs of an integrative orientation to members of the target culture would develop communicative skills in English faster than those who showed no evidence of integrative motivation. (The integrative orientation was measured in this study by observation of children’s preferences for friends, playmates, and workmates and scoring them according to their tendencies to nominate members of the target language group.) English proficiency at the end of the study was measured by analysis of spontaneous language usage. Results of the Kendall’s tau test showed, however, no positive association between integrative motivation and acquired English proficiency. Moreover, a comparison of beginning-level versus advanced-level English students revealed that advanced children showed significantly more integrative orientation to the target language group than the beginners, supporting the notion that integrative attitudes follow SLA skills rather than promoting them. Certainly the age of the children
(kindergartners who may not yet have developed abstract notions of cultural differences between speakers of different languages) may account for the findings in this study.

Another study, this time conducted by Svanes (1987) at the University of Bergen, Norway, sought replication of the impact of an integrative motive upon students’ achievement in relation to languages other than English or French in a FL setting outside the US. Based upon results of past research conducted by Gardner and Lambert (1972), Laine (1984) and Spolsky (1969) (indicating that integrative motivation is positively related to language learning in FL settings) and the work of Oller, Bacca, and Vigil (1977) (indicating that an instrumental motivation may be the best predictor of language proficiency in a L2 setting), Svanes designed his study to clarify which types of motivational orientations among an ethnically diverse group of students (students from the US, from Europe, from the Middle East, and from Asia) affect the acquisition of Norwegian. Testing the results of research conducted by Clément and Kruidenier (1983) as well, suggesting that integrative orientations in relation to achievement operate only among members of clearly dominant groups (see below), Svanes also investigated the relationship between possible group differences of proficiency and ‘cultural distance’.

For the purposes of his study, Svanes operationalized ‘cultural distance’ as the interaction of such factors as knowledge of /familiarity with Western culture among the variegate members of his population with levels of congruency between mother tongue and/or proficiency in English or another European language among his population of students, some of whom may or may not be familiar with other European languages due to their geographic and/or ethnic origins.
The results of Svanes’ study revealed that “The European and American students were significantly higher integratively motivated than the other students, while the students from Middle East/Africa and from Asia were significantly higher instrumentally motivated than the Western students. There were significant differences in means of proficiency in Norwegian; European and American students having the best grades, the students from the Middle East/Africa third best and Asians, the poorest” (p. 351).

Moreover, 2% of the variance in grades was accounted for by integrative motivation, an additional 9% by instrumental motivation, and 23% of the variance by cultural distance. These findings lead Svanes to conclude that “From the Beta values it can be seen . . . that only cultural distance is an independent predictor of grades. In other words, difference in grades between the different groups cannot be explained by motivational factors” (p. 355).

The results of this study suggest that in FL settings, students from less industrialized countries (such as countries in the Middle East/Africa and Asia) appear to demonstrate instrumental orientations toward language study, whereas their European and American counterparts demonstrate integrative orientations for language study. This finding collaborates findings of Gardner and Lambert (1972) and Gardner and Santos (1970), which suggest that differences in socio-cultural milieu (i.e., socio-cultural differences in the Phillipines and in the US) determine the dominance of integrative orientations, instrumental orientations or both. Collaborating the findings of Clément and Kruidenier (1983), ethnicity did appear to similarly influence orientation toward language study. The weak correlations between motivational orientations and grades and the
strength of cultural distance as a predictor of grades, however, contrast findings suggested by Gardner (1985) that motivational factors are important predictors of language proficiency. Moreover, the lack of positive correlations between grades and the integrative motive found in this study also contrast the strength of the integrative motive as a predictor of proficiency. It must be kept in mind, however, as Svanes rightly implies, that strength of motivation, as measured by Gardner’s AMTB, was not assessed in this study—the inclusion of which might possibly have been able to explain the difference in results between Gardner’s research and Svanes’ study. As an adjunct to this study, it would have been interesting to analyze how cultural distance, as perceived by the Norwegian professor(s) who assigned the grades to this group of students, may have influenced final grade outcomes in contrast to attained proficiency levels as measured by more objective tests of Norwegian proficiency.

In a study conducted by Ely (1986), the issue of strength of motivation and the dynamics by which this strength of motivation mediates the effect of motivational type on language learning outcomes was addressed. Ely similarly investigated which reasons for language study, whether they are instrumental, integrative or otherwise, predict the greatest motivational strength in a particular population. Ely also tested the validity of the integrative/instrumental duality prominent in Gardner’s research by asking piloting students to identify their various reasons for undertaking language study.

The results of this study, conducted with seventy-five first-year Spanish students at the collegiate level, revealed three clusters of motivational orientations (labeled A, B, and C) toward language study. These clusters can be loosely defined as instrumental,
integrative, and fulfilling a university FL requirement respectively. Certain similarities emerged between Gardner’s operationalization of these terms and those identified by Ely (see Ely, 1986, p. 31 for these similarities). Areas of difference relevant to the outcome of the study were the addition of belief in the importance of studying an FL and interest in using the FL for travel (in cluster A), desire to converse with speakers of the FL in the US (in cluster B), and the presence of cluster C identifying the requirement motive not previously operationalized in Gardner’s AMTB. Results of analysis of variance based upon step-wise procedures revealed that both clusters A and B were positive predictors of strength of motivation. Cluster C was a non-significant negative predictor of strength of motivation. Since nearly 60% of the strength of motivation variance was due to the combined effect of Clusters A and B, this study confirmed Gardner’s hypothesis that strength of motivation does indeed appear to mediate the effect of motivation upon FL learning outcomes.

Several studies previously reviewed have questioned certain aspects of Gardner’s integrative motive principle among language learners who represent divergent linguistic groups in relation to target language, ethnicity, and cultural milieu. The results of these studies have either collectively confirmed Gardner’s integrative motive hypothesis or suggested alternative ways of accounting for L2 proficiency in relation to emerging motivational orientations. An example of such research that supports alternative clusters of motivational orientations is a study conducted by Clément and Kruidenier (1983) with Canadian students studying French, English, and Spanish in both unicultural and multicultural settings. Clément and Kruidenier designed their study to assess the
simultaneous influence of ethnicity (French vs. English), milieu (unicultural vs. multicultural), and target second language (French or English vs. Spanish) on the emergence of orientations among 871 grade 11 students. The students were then distributed into eight groups obtained by permutations of the above three factors. The unicultural setting selected for the study was Quebec City for Francophones and London, Ontario for Anglophones, while the multicultural setting selected was Ottawa for both groups. In the analysis of the data, clusters of orientations comparing students studying French or English in relation to Spanish in both unicultural and multicultural settings were factor analyzed to determine which orientations were common to all eight groups in general and to discover which orientations were specific to certain sub-groups in particular.

Results of this study revealed that five factors (labeled instrumental, friendship, travel, and knowledge orientations) were common across all groups. Among this population of students in Canada, students learned a foreign language in order to achieve pragmatic goals, to travel, to seek new friendships, and to acquire knowledge. Five additional factors emerged which pertained to specific subsets of the population: the desire for greater involvement with known groups (factor V), the recognition of the importance of a visible minority (factor VI), Anglophones' interest in control of pragmatic factors (factor VII), interest in sociocultural aspects of the target language group (Factor VIII), and a specific interest in academic success (factor IX).

In contrast to research conducted by Gardner (1985), this study does not support the construct validity of a general integrative orientation. "While a general friendship
orientation was obtained, it represented affective goals sought through learning a second language without reference to eventual identification with members of the second language group. Most often, the affective component was coupled with the intention to use the second language to travel" (Clément & Kruidenier, 1983, p. 286). Integrative-type orientation did emerge, however, for two groups: the multicultural Francophones and Anglophones learning Spanish. For the Francophones, this integrative orientation was coupled with a desire to become influential in one’s community. The notion of ethnicity plays a dominant role here, because only in multicultural settings where students are assured of their first language and culture and have immediate access to the target language group do integrative orientations emerge.

Moreover, for several of the alternative orientations specific to certain subgroups, the interaction of ethnicity and target language appear to combine to define dominance/nondominance relationship of the learner to the target language group. Factor VII (Angolphone Pragmatic Control), for example, revealed that for three of the four Anglophone groups (two multicultural and one unicultural studying Spanish), interest in studying a foreign language for pragmatic reasons relates to desire for social influence and dominance. In addition, Factor VIII (Socio-Cultural Knowledge), revealed that such gains in knowledge about the target culture were not only related to desires for influence in one’s milieu (unicultural Francophone groups), but also associated with general knowledge about the world and about the self (Anglophone group). Finally this interaction between ethnicity and target language (defining the nature of integration between Francophone and Anglophones studying a minority culture’s language for
pragmatic reasons) led Clément and Kruidenier to conclude that such orientation emerges only when learners have some contact with speakers of the minority language.

In an attempt to expand initial research on the effect of attitudes and motivations upon SLA in relation to other minority ethnic groups inside Canada, Gardner and Young (1988) conducted a study investigating this effect of ethnicity upon SLA in relation to acculturation. Subjects for this study were 102 members of the Hong Kong Chinese community attending the university in Ontario. All subjects were born outside Canada and had reached proficiency levels in English high enough to facilitate completion of the research questionnaire in English rather than in Cantonese.

Based upon acculturation models of Clément (1980), Giles and Byrne (1982), Lambert (1974), and Schumann (1978), Gardner and Young designed their study to investigate how different types of acculturation (defined as integrative, assimilative, fear of assimilation, and deculturation) relate to affective variables (attitudes, motivation, anxiety etc.) and to levels of proficiency. Factor analysis of the relationship between these variables yielded five factors: Linguistic Identification, Identification with Another Community, Fear of Assimilation, Maintenance of the Chinese Culture, and Desire to Learn English. Among these five factors, factors I and II (Linguistic Identification and Identification with Another Community) were similar in that they support links between ethnic and linguistic identification and two acculturation attitudes--namely rejection and marginality. Individuals reflecting characteristics of these two factors identified themselves as Canadians, were competent in English (factor I) or perceived themselves to be competent in English (factor II), do not feel marginal to either culture, and do not
reject the Canadian culture. English use anxiety was also low on these two factors. Factor II differs from factor I in that these individuals tended to be older, were Canadian citizens, and had lived in Canada for a longer period of time. Actual competence in English, however, did not contribute to this factor (as it did for factor I), whereas perception of competence in English did.

Factor III received appreciable loadings from variables that reflect a fear of assimilation on the part of those subjects who perceive cultural assimilation as a threat leading to loss in Chinese proficiency and to a loss of identification with the Chinese community. Factor III is similar to Lambert’s concept of subtractive bilingualism. These individuals reject Canadian society, feel caught between Chinese and Canadian culture (i.e. are marginalized), and are no longer able to identify with either community (i.e., feel deculturated). Since loss of proficiency in Chinese is both a real as well as perceived threat for this group of people (based upon the negative loadings on the Chinese language skills variable), this factor supports clear associations between Lambert’s subtractive bilingualism or Clément’s fear of assimilation and language proficiency.

In contrast to factors I-III, Factors IV (Maintenance of the Chinese Culture) and V (Desire to Learn English) did not, however, support links between ethnic identity and language proficiency. No loadings assessing competence in either English or Chinese were associated with these factors. For factor IV, appreciable loadings reflected characteristics of individuals who desire integration over assimilation, who want to maintain their Chinese culture and language, but at the same time participate in Canadian culture, who are females, and who are Canadian citizens. For Factor V, appreciable
loadings reflected characteristics of individuals who are both integratively and instrumentally oriented, who think it important to know English well, and want to participate in Canadian culture and society for both integrative and instrumental reasons.

The results of this study suggest, in contrast to previous research conducted by Clément et al. (1977, 1980); Gardner (1985); Gardner & Lambert (1972), that certain attitudinal/motivational measures (those apparent in Factors IV and V) do not relate to proficiency in the L2. Gardner and Young hypothesize that lack of evidence for such a relationship may be a reflection of the fact that since this group had already reached some level of competency in the language (i.e., all subjects were able to fill out the questionnaire in English), attitudinal/motivational measures were no longer relevant to individual differences in proficiency. Moreover, since subjects in this study were not engaged in language learning in formal language learning environments, attitudinal/motivational variables (such as attitudes toward learning the language, motivational intensity, and interest in foreign languages) do not play as dominant a role as they do in formal classroom settings. Evidence of relationships between language proficiency and variables comprising factors I-III in this study, however, make explicit the relationship between ethnicity and attitudes and their impact upon certain types of acculturation as experienced by members of a minority group living and studying abroad.

Two final studies—conducted by Dornyei (1990) and Ramage (1990)—conclude research to date investigating the construct validity of Gardner's notion of integrativeness and persistence in language study characteristic of his integrative motive principle. Both studies are important because they test components of motivation in FL classrooms
outside Canada where students have no contact with the target language community.

Dornyei's research tackles the issue of persistence in language study as related to integration through the first two levels of L2 learning, while Ramage's research analyses this function of persistence beyond the second level to discriminate continuing language students from those who opt out of language classes after two years of language study.

In the first study, Dornyei (1990) investigated the acquisition of English among 137 Hungarian young adult students enrolled in an international language school at both the beginning and intermediate levels. Dornyei designed his questionnaire to measure two sets of variables—student language use fields and student intentions, beliefs, values, interest, and attitudes. Dornyei assumed that results obtained in FL contexts would differ from results obtained in SLA contexts in either one of two ways. First, affective predispositions among students studying such international target languages as English, Spanish, or Russian are unlikely to explain a great proportion of the variance in language attainment; or second, affective variables that are normally part of integrative motivation in SLA contexts do play a role in FL learning as well, but that such attitudes, interests, and values form clusters that differ from those emerging in SLA contexts.

The results of this study based upon factor analysis of language use fields, factor analysis of student intentions, beliefs, values, interest, and attitudes, and interrelations between these two sets of factor scores revealed that certain elements of integrativeness and instrumentality account partially for motivations in FL settings, thus confirming Dornyei's second assumption. Other sources accounting for a great proportion of the explained variance in motivation includes two independent factors defined by Dornyei as
Need for Achievement and Attributions about Past Failures. Collectively, these four areas of variance fall into sets reflective of an Instrumental Motivational subsystem, an Integrative Motivational subsystem, Need for Achievement, and Attributions about Past Failures. Interrelations between language use variables and attitude variables demonstrated that both strong and weak associations exist between these two sets. Certain language use components, such as Instrumental Language Use, for example, relate to several dimensions of attitudes, such as Instrumentality and Desire to Spend Time Abroad. The variable Desire to Spend Time Abroad in turn relates to a larger cluster composed of Passive Socio-cultural Language Use, Interest in Foreign Languages and Cultures, Desire of Knowledge and Values Associated with English, and Language Learning is a new Challenge. Instrumentality in general reflects tendencies to acquire English for mostly career-oriented reasons, such as “my bosses expect me to learn English” and “the wish to be able to read the technical literature” (Dornyei, 1990; p. 64).

The Integrative motivational subsystem in turn comprises four dimensions: (1) Desire to integrate into a new community at least temporarily for both instrumental and integrative reasons (similar to Clément & Kruidenier’s (1983) “travel orientation”); (2) Interest in foreign languages, cultures, and people (similar to Clément & Kruidenier’s (1983) “socio-cultural orientation”); (3) Desire to broaden one’s view and avoid provincialism (similar to Clément & Kruidenier’s (1983) “knowledge orientation”); and (4) Desire for new stimuli and challenges (similar to Clément and Kruidenier’s (1983) “friendship orientation” and “travel orientation”).
Dornyei’s classification of his last two motivational subsystems, Need for Achievement and Attributions about Past Failures, represent arenas where motivation in FL contexts differ most from motivation in SLA contexts. Need For Achievement variables represent goals associated with study of a FL in institutional/academic settings where dispositions to initiate achievement activities, to work with heightened intensity at these tasks, and to be interested in excellence for its own sake predominate among students. This composite is perhaps similar to Gardner’s (1985) motivational intensity construct characteristic of classroom learning in SL settings. Finally, Attributions about Past Failures relates to negative or Bad Learning Experiences, whose affective components relate indirectly to motivation in FL learning overall. Such negative attributes may be reflective of a general decline in language attitudes as summarized above under Attitudes Toward Language Study.

In Dornyei’s final analysis, he also compared the factor scores obtained from the two levels sampled (beginning and intermediate) to determine if the intermediate learners--i.e., those who have proved the strength of their commitment to learning by reaching this level--score higher on certain motivational components. Significant level differences were found with three factors only: Instrumental Language Use, Instrumentality, and Need for Achievement. The significant level difference on the variable Need for Achievement was not surprising, since this trait is associated with perseverance in language study. Comparative correctional data obtained in this section of the study also suggested that those who progress to the intermediate level reflect desires for proficiency that relate to integrative orientations toward language study. Since
a significant positive relationship was obtained between Desired Proficiency and Interest in Foreign Languages and Cultures, passive Sociocultural Language Use, and Reading for Professional Purposes, Dornyei concluded that “although, as has been shown before, it is instrumental motives and need for achievement that most efficiently promote learning up to the intermediate level, to go beyond this point, that is to ‘really learn’ the target language, one has to be interrogatively motivated” (1990, p. 62). This conclusion confirms findings suggested by Gardner (1985) that integrative motivation is generally associated with higher levels of attained proficiency in contrast to levels of achievement attained through instrumental motivation.

Ramage (1990)’s study conducted with three classes of French high-school students and three classes of Spanish high-school students located in two different geographic areas in the US investigated the predictive ability of motivational and attitudinal factors in continuing FL students beyond the second level. The results of this study parallel suggestions made by Dornyei that in order for students to really master the language, to go beyond the second level, students need to be integratively motivated. In compiling composite profiles of continuing students versus non-continuing students, Ramage found that both sets of students expressed extrinsic goals (i.e., the desire to study a L2 to fulfill a College Entrance or Graduation Requirement) as well as intrinsic goals (i.e., the desire to study an L2 to reach proficiency in speaking, reading, and writing coupled by an interest in learning the culture of the target language population). When comparing the strength of these goals, however, continuing students attributed more importance to intrinsic reasons for continuing language study, in contrast to their non-
continuing counterparts. Discriminate function analysis confirmed the strength of this factor in relation to other contributing factors that account for differences between the two groups.

Two other significant variables--grade level in high school when undertaking the second level and grade in French or Spanish--made the largest contribution to the discriminate function analysis of any single factor when all possible factors were entered into the analysis. Students who started level two in grade nine versus grade eleven and students who had higher grades in Spanish or French and in Math, English, and Science as well tended to continue study of an L2 beyond the second level. Both sets of students, however, indicated fairly positive attitudes toward the teacher and course, and more neutrality in their commitment to language study. They expressed similar desires for language study in order to increase their general knowledge reflected in a well-rounded education and a desire to learn to speak another language. However, the degree of importance attributed to these intrinsic reasons for L2 study was much less among non-continuing students, especially in relation to the degree of importance attributed to meeting a language requirement.

The results of this study suggested to Ramage that realizing the practical value of FL study does not appear to provide students with the motivation to continue. Moreover, neither grade alone nor the grade level at which one begins the second level of FL study predicts success. Although it may appear that those who start level 2 earlier may have more opportunity to develop an interest in continuing as a result of the process, it is more likely, according to Ramage, that those who start earlier simply have more motivation to
continue from the outset. Thus, both attitudes and motivation must be considered in
tandem when predicting success in FL learning. These results confirm findings suggested
by Gardner (1985) and lend support to the predictive value of the integrative motive
principle to account for SLA across divergent socio-cultural settings.

Instrumental Motivation and Other Motivational Constructs in relation to SLA

Even though the integrative motive principle has been tested repeatedly as a viable
predictor of language learning achievement across several divergent socio-cultural
settings, measures of actual competence in the language reveal other dimensions of
motivation that may function independently of integrativeness. In two studies conducted
by Clément, Gardner, and Smythe (1977, 1980) with French high-school students
studying English in Montreal, an independent factor defined as self-confidence emerged
when competency in English usage was measured in relation to other
attitudinal/motivational variables. A discussion of Clément, Gardner, and Smythe's two
studies are important, therefore, because the first study (1977) specifies how self-
confidence as a motivational variable relates to SLA, while the second study (1980)
builds upon the first to clarify how social dimensions of self-confidence in turn affect
acculturation.

In Clément, Gardner, and Smythe's first study (1977), factor analysis of scores
taken from Gardner's AMTB revealed that four factors defined relationships among
measures of academic achievement, intelligence, attitude, motivation, and English
achievement. These four factors were identified as Integrative Motive, Self-Confidence
with English, Academic Achievement, and Alienation factors respectively. Initially, in designing this study, Clément, Gardner, and Smythe hypothesized that both integrative and instrumental orientations might equally be related to competence in English, since socio-economic relations between French and English Canadians in Quebec parallel to a large extent similar socio-economic conditions prevalent in the Phillipines (Gardner & Santos, 1970). Moreover, they also hypothesized that instrumental orientation would also be more predictive of English achievement, since strong traditional nationalistic orientations among Quebec francophone students might be antithetical to any willingness to integrate with the English-speaking community.

In the study, however, analysis of the components comprising the four factors of Integrative Motive, Self-Confidence with English, Academic Achievement, and Alienation revealed that “while English proficiency appears to be related to academic achievement, it also appears to have a potent motivational component. English competence is related to the individual’s prior experience with English and his ensuing self-confidence and greater motivation to learn the language. Among this sample of students, such self-confidence with English tends to be characteristic of students who perceive themselves as bilingual and as coming from bilingual homes. This motivation to learn the language is also associated with positive feelings towards the anglophone community and the English course, a cluster of attitudinal/motivational characteristics which has previously been referred to as an Integrative Motive” (Clément, Gardner, & Smythe, 1977, p. 131).
Moreover, students who scored high on the Integrative Motive and Self-Confidence with English factors also scored negatively on two measures of anxiety, indicating that these two types of motivation might also be based upon a student’s high comfort level when using the language. Findings from Gardner, Smythe, Clément, and Gliksman (1976) suggest that anxiety variables such as those used in this study are strong predictors of French for anglophones, and that they appear to function independently of integrativeness for not only anglophones studying French, but also for francophones studying English. Similarly, Factor III, defined as Academic Achievement because it received considerable loadings from measures of academic achievement and intellectual ability, also received appreciable loadings from the self-perception of competency in understanding and writing English among students who expressed a high need achievement and a lack of ethnocentrism. In contrast, however, Factor IV, defined as the Alienation factor, received considerable loadings from students who are anomic, tend to be ethnocentric, critical of the self, the English teacher, and French Canadians, to be instrumentally oriented toward learning English, and to be some what low in intellectual ability. The negative emotional connotation associated with this factor, moreover, suggests that such feelings of alienation toward self and one’s role in society may be related to an instrumental orientation towards the study of English. Results from this study suggest, therefore, that while self-confidence as an independent factor underlying motivation may operate separately from integrativeness in relation to English competence, the integrative motive principle still functions to a large degree (as witnessed in two factors), contributing primarily to achievement in English.
In Clément, Gardner, and Smythe’s (1980) second study, they assessed the relationship between social factors involved in the development of self-confidence, attitudes, motivation, language aptitude, and SLA from the perspective of acculturation. Subjects used in the study were 233 grade 11 students attending two Montreal Catholic Schools. The process of self-confidence was specifically looked at from the perspective of the demographic characteristics of a community (i.e., the availability of the other group), perceived consequences of learning English (i.e., assimilation), and self-ratings of English proficiency (as suggested by research conducted by Taylor, Meynard, & Rheault, 1977). Individual levels of competence were also explored bearing in mind suggestions made by Giles, Bourhis, and Taylor (1977) that the ‘ethnolinguistic vitality’ of a language within a community--i.e., the social status of the language, the demographic distribution of its speakers, and its institutional support--influences the individual’s level of competence. Clément, Gardner, and Smythe hypothesized that such levels of competence could potentially lead to two results--either assimilation, similar to Lambert’s (1974, 1978) notion of ‘subtractive bilingualism’ (where SLA leads to the loss of the first cultural heritage), or integration, similar to Lambert’s notion of ‘additive bilingualism’ (the sharing of two cultures).

The results of this study based upon standardization of scores within each school and subsequent factor analyze of the data revealed that three factors define the acquisition and nature of competency in English by French students studying in Montreal. Factor I, labeled the Integrative Motive factor, received appreciable loadings from nine variables whose characteristics define an individual who has a positive attitude toward learning.
English, has a positive attitude toward English Canadians, is both integratively and instrumentally oriented, tends to speak English frequently with anglophones, is motivated to learn English, intends to continue studying English, and tends to have a positive attitude toward Americans. Moreover, such individuals report an absence of threat of assimilation when speaking English. The negative correlations between this factor and measures of threat to ethnic identity clearly indicate that integrative motivation is negatively associated with fear of assimilation.

Factor II, labeled as Self-Confidence with English, received appreciable loading from 14 variables whose characteristics define an individual who rates himself as relatively competent in their ability to speak, read, write, and understand spoken English, who reports little anxiety when speaking in an English class, speaking in public, writing an English exam, or simply in the presence of others. Such individuals frequently report speaking English with anglophones, studying English for many years, and speaking many languages at home. These individuals are motivated to learn English and attained relatively good scores on knowledge of English on tests of aural comprehension and grammatical knowledge. The composition of this factor is highly similar to the Self-Confidence factor reported by Clément, Gardner, and Smythe (1977).

Factor III, labeled Academic Achievement, received appreciable loading from seven variables characteristic of individuals who have a relatively high level of English proficiency, are intelligent, and are competent in French and Mathematics. The results from this factor and the previous two factors suggest that SLA in bilingual settings is related to both motivation and ability. Desire to learn English, as measured by
motivational intensity, as well as the frequency of English usage outside the classroom are related to two types of motivation: Integrative Motivation and Self-Competence with English. Competency in English, moreover, results from students’ opportunity for contact with members of the second language community. Reports of frequency of contact with English-speakers outside the classroom, characteristic of factors I and II, suggest also that a dynamic relationship may exist between these two forms of motivation. “According to this interpretation, whether the individual will actually interact with members of the second language-speaking group when given the opportunity, and thus become more self-confident, is dependent upon the integrative motive. As suggested by the negative loading of the Threat to Ethnic Identity variable on the Integrative Motive factor, this latter tendency might not be operative if learning a second language implies . . . the loss of the first language” (Clément, Gardner, & Smythe, 1980, p. 299).

The results from this study suggest distinctions between motivational factors in SLA when Francophones are learning English in contrast to motivational factors in SLA when Anglophones are learning French. Due to the correctional nature of the measures used in this study, it is difficult to state unequivocally the exact nature of the relationship between Integrative Motivation and Self-Confidence. According to Clément, Gardner, and Smythe, however, findings suggest that from the perspective of assimilation, the minority status of Canadian francophones learning English mitigates the degree to which the integrative motive is related to achievement in English, specifically if acquisition of English is perceived as being a threat to Canadian French language and culture. The
relationship between Self-Confidence and competency in English, however, suggests that these students no longer feel any threats to identity in their acquisition of English. Therefore, as assimilation progresses, fear of losing one's cultural identity is no longer an issue. In this context then, self-confidence in English becomes possibly either a symptom of assimilation or a sign of additive bilingualism or integration, the sharing of two cultures. In this bi-cultural setting in Canada, therefore, whether self-confidence leads to assimilation or integration could possibly be a function of the relative ethnolinguistic vitality of French and English in Quebec (Clément, Gardner, & Smythe, 1980, p. 300-301).

Little research has been completed to date isolating conditions that give rise specifically to strength of instrumental motivation over others to account for SLA. One study conducted by Gardner and MacIntyre (1991), however, was designed to investigate how an instrumental motive (as distinct from an instrumental orientation) affects the learning of 26 English/French word pairs among ninety-two introductory psychology students who had not studied French since the beginning of high-school. Instrumental motivation was situationally defined by the reward of $10 dollars offered at random to one-half of the subjects if they achieved a superior level of success in the final trial of the learning task. A second purpose of the study addressed the consequences of computer administration of the AMTB to determine if the completion of the AMTB on the computer detracted in any way from the internal consistency reliability of the subscales used or if different instructions with respect to the learning task influenced either attitude/motivation scores or item response latencies. (Computer administration did not
detract from the internal consistency reliability of the scales and indexes of reaction time to individual items does provide a way of identifying social response tendencies.)

In conducting the study, Gardner and MacIntyre hypothesized that both instrumental and integrative motivations would influence the learning of French vocabulary items and also condition in possibly separate ways how subjects approached the learning task. Two measures of effort expended during the task (viewing time and study time as calculated by the computer) were also investigated based upon research conducted by Carroll (1962), suggesting that time devoted to learning is a valid index of motivation. Subjects were initially asked to translate a French word that appeared on the computer screen for up to 10 seconds or given the option of moving on to the next task. If they did not know the answer, they pressed the return key whereupon the complete pair of English/French vocabulary items appeared for study on the screen for up to 10 seconds. The computer recorded the viewing time, the French response typed by the student, and the study time for each item. At the end of the sixth trial, the computer calculated the number that the subject had gotten correct. Those subjects in the experimental group who achieved a score of at least 24 out of 26 were given $10 dollars. Only nine subjects scored high enough to receive money.

The results of the study revealed that significant main effects were obtained for Integrative Motivation, Incentive Condition, and Trials in relation to both study time and viewing time. The rate of learning for those subjects who were integratively motivated was higher than the rate of learning for those who were low on this scale. Significant main effects were also obtained for both Incentive Condition and trials, indicating that
those students who were offered money consequently spend more time studying each pair. As the trials progressed, both sets of subjects spent less time studying the pairs; however, the incentive group spent the most time viewing the pairs except on the last trial. Moreover, more integratively motivated students spend more time viewing the English/French word pairs, as did those subjects who were offered money in relation to those who were not. Viewing time increased slightly from trial 1 to 2, but thereafter decreased as learning progressed.

In relation to vocabulary scores, 30 out of 54 (56%) correlations were significant. Desire to learn French and Attitudes toward Learning French were positively correlated with achievement for all six trials; Attitudes toward French Canadians correlated significantly with Achievement on trials 2 through 6; Attitudes toward the Learning Situation were significant for trials 3 to 6; French Use Anxiety correlated negatively with vocabulary on trials 1 to 3; and Integrative Orientation correlated significantly with achievement only on trial 1. Neither Interest in Foreign Languages nor Instrumental Orientation nor Integrative Orientation revealed significant correlations in relation to vocabulary scores (except as noted above on trial 1 for Integrative Orientation).

The results of this study indicate that consistent with previous research (Gardner, 1983, 1985), both types of motivating conditions influence achievement. “Subjects with higher levels of integrative motivation learned more words overall than did subjects with low levels, and those who anticipated a possible financial reward learned more than those who didn’t” (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991, p. 68). Moreover, these level differences became more pronounced as learning progressed supporting the generalization that both
instrumentally and integratively motivated subjects learned better than subjects not so
motivated. When integratively motivated students are compared with instrumentally
motivated students, however, it is clear that a monetary reward can motivate individuals
to study longer; yet when the chance for receiving a reward is eliminated, subjects in this
incentive group stopped applying extra effort, revealing a major disadvantage of
instrumental motivation. In real-life classroom scenarios, however, while it is apparent
that more integratively motivated students persist in language learning (due to the
positive correlations between Desire to Learn French, Attitudes toward Learning French,
Attitudes toward French Canadians and achievement) it is also possible that extending
incentive conditions beyond the task at hand allows for instrumental motivation to remain
effective. The role of economic factors in SLA becomes paramount here in some
contexts, as suggested by Spolsky (1989).

Finally, the lack of meaningful correlations between integrative and instrumental
orientation scales and measures of attitudes when analyzed in conjunction with the
positive correlations between such factors and motivation confirm the hypothesis that
even though orientations may not relate directly to achievement, motivation certainly
does. It is not surprising then, as concluded by Gardner and MacIntyre, that studies which
only consider correlations between orientation and achievement often, fail to find
associations. Findings suggest, therefore, that orientation is an indirect rather than a
direct influence upon achievement (Gardner, 1985). To summarize, it appears on the one
hand that integrative motivation has a continuing influence on language learning and use,
while on the other hand that instrumental motivation may have a continuing influence
upon achievement only to the extent that an instrumental motive is tied to a specific goal. Once that goal has been reached, however, instrumental motivation is no longer as effective as its integrative counterpart.

In conclusion, recent reviews of motivation in relation to SLA have suggested that previously-tested constructs of motivation in SLA research could benefit from models of motivation taken from related areas of study (see, for example, Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dorneyi, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Critiques of Gardner’s socio-educational model in particular have stressed that the constructs used in his model to define motivation are too narrow and too remote from pedagogical issues to provide direction for teachers, who often observe that students fail to learn not because of the type of motivation they bring to the classroom, but because such students lack the right form of motivational intensity to be successful. Teachers also observe that students with distinct motivational profiles can learn a language (McGroarty, chapter 1, 1996). In foreign language education then, analysis of students’ behavior in relation to how they achieve their goals may be one way to expand the motivation construct in language learning.

In response to such suggestions, Gardner and Tremblay (1995) designed a study to investigate the relation of new measures of motivation taken from related areas of psychology to aspects of student behavior that can be observed through assessment of students’ efforts, persistence, and attention to language learning inside the classroom. These new measures include theories and concepts related to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, need for achievement, expectancy-value, learned helplessness, and goal-oriented behavior (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991, Dorneyi, 1994, Oxford & Shearin, 1994).
Of these new measures, Gardner and Tremblay chose to investigate the relationship of expectancy and self-efficacy, valence, causal attributions, and goal setting to each other, to existing measures of attitudes and motivation, and to indices of achievement in French courses. Subjects selected for the study were 75 bilingual students enrolled in French language courses in a Northern Ontario francophone secondary school. Seventy-six percent of the students reported that French was their first language, while 24% reported that English was their first language. Due to the bilingual nature of the language learning environment, Gardner and Tremblay also included measures of French Language Dominance to identify the role played by language background and experience. They also expanded the index of French Achievement to include an Essay Writing component in conjunction with French class grades.

In designing the framework for their study, Gardner and Tremblay adapted Gardner’s (1985) Socio-educational Model of L2 learning to include new measures of Persistence and Attention, Causal Attribution, Goal Salience, and Performance Expectancy. Ten hypotheses guided the study. They are that (1) Motivational Behavior (i.e., student effort, persistence, and attention) will have a direct influence on achievement; (2) French Language Dominance (students’ relative dominance in French compared to English) could influence achievement; (3)-(5) Goal Salience (i.e., the specific type of goals students have for L2 study and the extent to which students set goals by making plans), Valence (the subjective value associated with L2 study), and Self-Efficacy (i.e., the belief that one has the capability to reach a certain level of achievement) directly influence the level of Motivational Behavior respectively; (6)
Adaptive Attributions (i.e., students attributing their success to ability) have a direct influence on Self-Efficacy; (7)-(9) Language Attitudes (integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation) have direct influences on Goal Salience, Valence, and Self-Efficacy respectively; and (10) French Language Dominance has a direct influence on Adaptive Attributions.

In analyzing the results of this study, Gardner and Tremblay used linear structural relations analysis (LISREAL) to test the saliency of Gardner's adapted version of the Socio-Educational Model to define the effect and interrelationships of attitudes and motivation upon SLA. The results of the study confirmed the validity of all ten hypotheses suggested. For example, Motivational Behavior and French Language Dominance have a significant effect upon achievement. Goal Salience, Valence, and Self-Efficacy in turn directly influence levels of Motivational Behavior; Self-Efficacy is in turn affected by Adaptive Attributions. The data suggests as well that possible correlations not hypothesized define other relationships between the variables. Language Attitudes and French Language Dominance are doubly correlated suggesting that "individuals who are dominant in French have more favorable Language Attitudes than those dominant in English, and vice versa." Moreover, "although French Language Dominance has an indirect effect on Self-Efficacy through the mediation of Adaptive Attributions, the modification indices suggest that it also has a direct influence" (Gardner & Tremblay, 1995, p. 514).

In addition, the study confirms that a number of variables--such as Goal Salience, Valence, and Self-Efficacy--mediate the relationship between Language Attitudes and
Motivational Behavior. For example, students with specific goals and frequent reference to these goals have increased levels of motivational behavior. “One reasonable explanation for this relationship is the idea that positive language attitudes will orient students to develop specific language learning goals. Students who have negative attitudes are more likely not to give much consideration to what they would like to achieve in the French course” (Gardner & Tremblay, 1995, p. 515). Moreover, since language attitudes are shown to influence Valence, which in turn effects levels of Motivational Behavior, then positive attitudes associated with valuing language learning effect levels of Motivational Behavior.

Self-Efficacy also mediates the relationship between attitudes and motivation. Since self-efficacy or the belief in one’s capability to master a language is similar to the concept of self-confidence, the nature of this relationship then parallels findings suggested by Clément, Gardner, and Smythe (1977, 1980) and Clément (1980, 1985) that self-confidence is not only independently related to achievement, but is also an important determinant of motivation, specifically among language learners in multi-cultural settings (one could add bilingual settings as well!). Moreover, since the model also posits that French Language Dominance and Motivational Behavior influence achievement both directly and independently of each other, then Self-Efficacy may also function as an independent predictor of achievement, albeit in this model via its effect upon Motivational Behavior.

In conclusion, the results of this study confirm the validity of Gardner’s (1985) Socio-Educational model and the functionality of non-previousely tested new measures of
motivation to increase understanding of the interrelationships between attitudes and motivation in relation to SLA. The student behavior-oriented nature of these new measures have pedagogical implications for L2 or FL teachers who are faced with the reality that language-learning students come to the classroom with diverse motivational orientations. Implementing ways to alter goal setting, valence, self-efficacy, casual attributions, language attitudes, and motivational behavior define, according to Gardner and Tremblay, fruitful areas of future research.

Socio-Cultural Influences and SLA

Intergroup Relations and their Effect upon Attitudes and Motivation

The culmination of research to date on attitudes and motivation in relation to SLA indicates that student attitudes and orientations do play a significant role, albeit indirectly in the models suggested above. According to Clément and Kruidenier (1986), “These models posit orientations to be precursors of motivation, which, along with attitudes (toward the target group and other cultural groups in general, and toward the learning situation) serve to sustain motivation through the long learning process” (p. 73). The studies discussed above, however, are limited by the fact that they do not delineate in detail how formal aspects of the learning context might affect the cultural beliefs of the learner. Three studies reviewed below have addressed this limitation by focusing upon the role played by the socio-cultural milieu in relation to attitudinal/motivational variables in general, and the role of the cultural context of learners in relation to achievement in a L2 in particular.
A first study to address this issue by Genesee, Rogers, and Holobow (1983) tested the hypothesis that predictions concerning SLA would be improved by considering the motivational support the learner expects from the target language group in relation to the learner’s own motivations for learning the language. According to Genesee, Rogers, and Holobow, even though Gardner’s Socio-Educational Model is effective in delineating the possible causal effect (see Gardner & Lalone, 1983 below) that the social context plays upon attitudes and motivation in SLA, lack of the model’s emphasis upon the possible role of intergroup factors within the socio-cultural context delimits the model’s ability to account for the full extent of learning. This consideration, therefore, may be of utmost value to the model, especially for those integratively-oriented learners who strive to learn a language in order to integrate into the target language culture and society. Genesee, Rogers, and Holobow assumed in conducting their study that potential perceptions among integratively-motivated students that the target language (TL) group may not want them to integrate into their culture and society could negatively impact upon student language use and proficiency. “In contrast, individuals who perceive the TL group as supporting their efforts to learn the language would be encouraged and, therefore, undertake the steps necessary to learn the language and as a result ultimately perhaps demonstrate higher levels of SL proficiency” (Genesee, Rogers, & Holobow, 1983, p. 212).

To test this hypothesis, Genesee, Rogers, and Holobow selected 34 grade 12 French L2 English-speaking Canadian students in Montreal for the study. Two sets of questionnaires consisting of 23 items each were administered to the students asking them to rate the importance of their own motivations for learning French, as well as to rate how
important they thought French Canadians thought each reason was for English Canadians
learning French. Through factor analysis of each set of scores, 14 statements were
selected on the basis of their high loadings. If a statement concerning the importance of
studying French for pragmatic goals received high loadings, for example, then the
corresponding statement representing the TL group’s support for L2 study was also
selected. These 14 statements and their significant counterparts were thus selected to
predict three criteria: (a) the students’ L2 proficiency; (b) their L2 use; and (c) their
willingness to affiliate with members of the TL group.

Based upon stepwise regression procedures, nine analyses were conducted on the
criterion variables. In three of the nine analyses, statements pertaining to the learner’s
perceptions of motivational support from the TL group emerged as the most significant
univariate predictors for situations where active involvement with members of the TL
group included speaking the language and participating in groups comprising members of
the TL group. “Thus, the more our English Canadian respondents reported that French
Canadians wanted them to learn French, the more willing they said they would be to be a
member or the leader of a group comprising only French Canadians and the higher they
rated their speaking ability in French” (Genesse, Rogers, & Holebow, 1983, pp. 216-217).
The learners’ own motivations emerged as the best univariate predictors for situations
where less active use of the language or less active involvement with members of the TL
group was implicated—i.e., situations where students’ mixed with their own members and
members of the TL group together. Here the respondents’ willingness to belong to such
mixed groups correlated with intensity of motivation to learn French.
The importance of the learners’ perceptions of motivational support from the TL group figured into the multivariate solutions as well. Such perceptions of motivational support figured into seven of the nine multivariate solutions, with the exception of two cases—namely listening comprehension and willingness to participate as a member of a mixed language group, whose multivariate solutions comprised students’ own motivations exclusively.

In analysis of the total variance configuration, moreover, students’ perceptions of motivational support from the TL group still accounted for substantial amount of variance in five of the nine outcomes—two of which implicate L2 competence, one of which implicates L2 use, and two of which implicate L2 affiliation as a leader of a mixed language group or member of a mixed language group. Multivariate solutions comprising students’ own motivations exclusively predicted two variables only—listening comprehension and willingness to be a member of a mixed language group.

The results of this study indicate that students’ perceptions of motivational support from the TL group to learn their language correlate positively with students’ self-rated proficiency and willingness to belong to social groups that include members of the TL community. This correlation is particularly strong when predicting learners’ willingness to be the leader of a French-only group, or in mixed group situations where active use of French is involved. In contrast, less active involvement with members of the TL group is predicted by learners’ own motivations the majority of the time. Taken together, these two observations not only confirm the active role of the socio-cultural milieu in affecting student motivations to learn a language (as hypothesized in Gardner’s
Socio-Educational Model), but also explain the impact of intergroup relations to predict levels of achievement and L2 usage.

In Gardner’s (1979) development of his Socio-Educational model of L2 learning, he emphasized in particular the function of the socio-cultural milieu to determine the relative weight of his four individual difference variables—Intelligence, Language Aptitude, Motivation, and Situation Anxiety—in the process of SLA. To summarize, he writes: “Their relative importance in determining proficiency was seen as being influenced by the cultural milieu in that beliefs held by the community concerning the value of learning the language would affect the extent to which these variables are implicated” (Gardner & Lalonde, 1983, p. 2). He also hypothesized that in formal classroom settings, for example, all four variables play a significant role; however, in informal language learning environments, motivation and situational anxiety may play a different role, determining who avails oneself to use the language to interact with native speakers. These variables likewise can be studied inside the classroom to analyze student behaviors and their impact upon L2 learning.

Motivation, too, is a variable that reflects in particular effects of the socio-cultural milieu. The value associated by students to learn an L2 for either extrinsic or intrinsic reasons may determine not only instrumental or integrative orientations for language study, but possibly strength of motivation as well (Gardner, 1979). In bilingual settings inside Canada, for example, research suggests that integrative motivation may be the strongest form of motivation to sustain language learning. Research conducted outside Canada in monolingual and monocultural settings suggests, however, that student
orientations may be both integrative and instrumental simultaneously. In such situations, affects of the socio-cultural milieu preclude students from discriminating between integrative and instrumental reasons for language study (Munich & Wolfe, 1983, Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993).

To test these formal aspects of the Socio-Educational Model, and in particular the role of the socio-cultural milieu as a causal factor predicting SLA, Gardner and Lalonde designed a study linking cultural beliefs, attitudes, motivation, situational anxiety, and prior achievement to proficiency levels using causal modeling procedures (LISREL). In designing the study, cultural variables were redefined to include measures of Importance of Language Objective and Opportunities to Use the Language. These two background variables were then hypothesized to influence two attitude variables (Integrativeness and Attitudes toward the Learning Situation), that in turn determine students’ level of Motivation. Motivation and Situational Anxiety were hypothesized to determine L2 achievement. Measures of Initial Proficiency were added to the model and hypothesized to cause both final achievement and situational anxiety, allowing for exploration of a possible causal link between proficiency and attitudes and motivation not accounted for in the original model.

In conducting this study, Gardner and Lalonde (1983) selected 140 students enrolled in first year French courses (beginning and intermediate) in a unilingual anglophone city. Subjects were administered Gardner’s modified version of the AMTB consisting of eighteen measures. The final causal model produced by application of LISREL modeling procedures on the data revealed the following significant relationships:
The three background or independent variables of Opportunities to Use the Language, Importance of Language Objectives, and Initial Proficiency initiate the model. Importance of Language Objectives and Opportunities to Use the Language are causally linked with Integrativeness; however, only Importance of Language Objectives is causally related to Attitudes Toward the Learning Situation “suggesting that those individuals who adopt the cultural belief that the objectives of the French course are important tend to hold integrative attitudes and favourable attitudes toward the language learning situation, and furthermore, that those who capitalize . . . on language use opportunities hold integrative attitudes, though not necessarily favourable attitudes toward the learning situation” (Gardner & Lalonde, 1983, p. 11). While Importance of Language Objectives and Opportunities to Use the Language are significantly correlated, Initial Proficiency is unrelated to either latent variable; nor is it causally linked to either Integrativeness or Attitudes Toward the Language Learning Situation.

Integrativeness and Attitudes Toward the Learning Situation are causally linked to Motivation, which causes second language Achievement. This finding confirms hypotheses suggested by Gardner elsewhere that attitudes are important in SLA because they affect the individual’s motivation to learn, even though they are indirectly related to achievement per se. Prior Achievement also influences Final Achievement.

Negative paths between Motivation and Situational Anxiety and between prior Achievement and Situational Anxiety reveal that Situational Anxiety does not have a direct effect on final achievement and suggests that low levels of both motivation and prior achievement cause high levels of situational anxiety. The model also demonstrates
reciprocal causation between final second language achievement and Motivation. Here motivation not only appears to cause second language achievement, but is also enhanced by achievement. Initial achievement, however, is not causally related to motivation, even though final achievement does influence motivation. "The reciprocal causation thus probably reflects temporary increases in motivation resulting from [student] successes. This motivational impetus does not, however, appear to be stable. If it were, it would be expected that Initial Proficiency would show a direct causal link with Motivation, and this did not occur" (Gardner & Lalonde, 1983, p. 12). This finding in particular contradicts conclusions made by Burstall et al. (1974) that Initial Achievement causes Motivation.

The results of this study imply three important criteria for understanding SLA. First, there is a direct causal link between the cultural milieu as reflected in values associated with learning the language and attitudinal precursors to motivation, even though there is no direct causal path between such beliefs to either motivation or SL achievement. Second, attitudinal beliefs directly underlie motivational attributes, but they do not 'cause' situational anxiety or SL achievement. Third, motivation has a direct effect on situational anxiety and SL achievement, and, "although achievement in the language has a reciprocal effect on motivation, situational anxiety is shown to have no direct effects on either motivation or achievement. Finally, initial proficiency in the language is shown to affect directly final achievement and situational anxiety, but not any attitudinal or motivational characteristics" (Gardner & Lalonde, 1983, p. 12).

In conclusion, although Clément (1980) suggests an association between self-confidence (or lack of situational anxiety in this case) and achievement in multicultural
contexts, this study does not support the notion of any direct causal link between situational anxiety and final language achievement, even though there were links between prior achievement and both situational anxiety and final SL achievement. Prior achievement does, however, appear to reduce situational anxiety, and thus perhaps promotes self-confidence in the language. According to Gardner and Lalonde, therefore, emphasis must be placed upon the social context wherein L2 learning occurs to understand the dynamics of the relationship between such variables as self-confidence, situational anxiety and achievement in an L2. They conclude that “Where there are few opportunities to use the language, as in the present social situation, a causal link between situational anxiety and final achievement may not be possible. These results then should not be taken as evidence against the theoretical model proposed by Clément (1980) but rather that the cultural milieu is of considerable importance in determining which factors mediate second language acquisition” (Gardner & Lalonde, 1983, p. 13).

Culturally Different Learners: Effects of L1 Proficiency upon L2 Achievement

A final study, conducted by Olshtain, Shohamy, Kemp, and Chatow (1990), concludes this section of the literature review. It is important because it isolates how differences in the cultural milieu from the perspective of individual difference variables impact upon SLA. In designing this study, Olshtain, Shohamy, Kemp, and Chatow isolated certain cognitive variables in conjunction with attitudinal/motivational variables to explain differential rates of success among culturally-different Hebrew-speaking students studying English as a foreign language. For Olshtain, Shohamy, Kemp, and
Chatow, the importance of the school context from a cognitive perspective conditions the degree to which certain linguistic and cultural differences among students may impact upon their acquisition of English. Proficiency in the first language, specifically as measured by academic language ability, therefore, defines the linguistic component in this school setting, while attitudes and motivation define the larger social arena in which learning takes place.

To conduct this study, Olshtain, Shohamy, Kemp, and Chatow selected 196 Hebrew-speaking seventh grade EFL students taken from three sets of classrooms within the Israeli school system who had been studying English for three years. Set one represented culturally-disadvantaged students who were low on Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) in the L1 (Hebrew); set two represented students who were from a more well-established socio-economic class; and set three represented students who were mixed in terms of being either disadvantaged culturally or non-disadvantaged from the perspective of proficiency in the L1 and social background. Four research questions guided the study. There are: (1) Can a CALP test distinguish between students from a culturally disadvantaged background and advantaged students?; (2) What is the relationship between L1 proficiency and success in EFL among advantaged and disadvantaged student populations?; (3) What is the relationship between attitude and motivation and success in EFL as a school subject among advantaged and disadvantaged students?; and (4) Can success in FLL be explained by the interaction of cognitive and affective variables with respect to the two learner populations?
Results of the study revealed that the Hebrew Cognitive Academic Proficiency measure (HALP) was valid in terms of its ability to distinguish between regular and disadvantaged students. Disadvantaged students received much lower scores on this measure than their regular-counterparts, and the difference in their scores was statistically significant. Moreover, proficiency in Hebrew does predictably relate to achievement in English (research question no. 2), as confirmed by stepwise discriminate analysis between the regular and disadvantaged students on measures of the HALP and English proficiency. Regression analyses performed on sub-tests of HALP also revealed that two measures of HALP in particular—error correction and production of acceptable forms—provided the highest contribution to L2 achievement explaining 37% of the variance, the remaining 10% of a total variance of 47% being accounted for by four additional sub-tests of HALP.

In addition, significant correlations between measures on the attitudes and motivation questionnaire (MOTATT) and success in EFL, as measured by the EFL test (research question no. 3), indicated that the higher students scored on the MOTAAT, the higher was their achievement in English. To determine the strength of this prediction for the two groups, scores on the MOTATT in conjunction with two additional independent variables—students’ class mark in Hebrew and students’ class mark in English—revealed that higher percentages of variance were explained by scores on Hebrew proficiency in relation to the MOTATT for the regular students (38% of the variance) versus the disadvantaged students (20% of the variance). When percentages of variances were compared for the two groups in relation to English achievement scores, however, it was
found that the MOTATT accounted for much more of the variance than did the Hebrew mark in the case of the disadvantaged students. According to Olshtain, Shohamy, Kemp, and Chatow (1990), “This may indicate that the teacher’s grade is related to the students’ attitude and motivation especially in schools and classes where most of the students are disadvantaged. The higher contribution of MOTATT to the English teacher’s grade was also true for the high level students, but to a lesser extent . . . Thus, although we found that MOTATT is a good predictor of success for some students it did not seem to be as strong a predictor once it was considered together with other variables” (pp. 36-37).

Finally in answering research question no. 4, results of the study indicated that the combined effects of academic, linguistic and affective variables (HALP and MOTATT), in conjunction with grades in Hebrew, account for more of the variance in relation to EFL proficiency for the disadvantaged students (60% of the variance) than for the regular students (48% of the variance). Examination of the contribution of each of these variables reveals, however, that knowledge of the L1 is the main factor that explains success in EFL for both groups. This finding, in conjunction with the data supporting the results of research question no. 2, allows Olshtain, Shohamy, Kemp, and Chatow to conclude that proficiency in the L1—specifically as it relates to the components of language usage and register and ability to correct errors in Hebrew—best predicts EFL achievement.

In conclusion, the results of this study reveal that cognitive and linguistic variables implicated in the learning of an L2 are important factors predicting students’ success in formal language learning environments. Proficiency in the L1 (Hebrew) also
is the best predictor for success among culturally-different students. Attitudes and
motivation also play a significant role, albeit to a more limited extent than their cognitive
or linguistic counterparts. Moreover, attitudinal/motivational variables may play a more
significant role for certain sets of learners (in this case the culturally-disadvantaged
students) than for others (in this case the regular set of students).

The results of this study taken in conjunction with findings reviewed elsewhere
confirm two important aspects of SLA in relation to attitudes and motivation and
proficiency in a L2. First, as summarized by Gardner (1985, 1993) in his Socio-
Educational Model, attitude/motivational variables can only be expected to explain part
of the total variance in SLA. Second, to determine the strength of other independent
variables--such as language aptitude, intelligence etc. in relation to individual difference
variables and their affective counterparts--to predict SLA, specific attention must be
given to the socio-cultural milieu in which learning takes place to define the
interrelationships between these variables. Thus, the recognition of differences in
divergent socio-cultural milieux is important on a more general level to determine which
sets of background variables initiate successful SLA under certain learning conditions,
and is equally important on a more particular level to specify how variations in the socio-
cultural milieu differentially affect SLA across stratified learner populations.
Non-Linguistic Outcomes of Foreign/Second Language and Culture Study

In the summary of research that has comprised the previous sections of this literature review, special attention has been focused upon studies that addressed the effect of L2 learning upon students' attitudes and motivations in relation to SLA in predominately formal or second language classroom settings. The contribution of such research to the field of foreign/second language education in general reveals that study of a L2 affects students' attitudes and motivation in ways that are predictably related to achievement on the one hand, and specifically related to persistence in language learning on the other. Research from a socio-psychological perspective in relation to SLA stresses, however, that the impact of foreign/second language culture and learning upon attitudes and motivation is not complete without considering the non-linguistic outcomes of L2 study. The research reviewed in this last section of the chapter will consider therefore studies that address these non-linguistic results of foreign/second language culture and learning. Since the majority of research reviewed above addressed SLA in formal L2 environments, this section of the literature review will focus in contrast upon effects of L2 and culture study in alternative L2 environments. These environments include formal or intensive language learning classrooms, bilingual or immersion classroom settings, and bicultural or study abroad settings where study of the L2 language and culture involves direct exposure to the target language and culture.
Non-Linguistic Results of L2 Learning and Culture Study in Regular Language

Classroom Settings

The majority of research falling into this category comprises studies that address three non-linguistic results of foreign language and culture study. They are: What impact does study of a foreign language and culture have upon (1) developing favorable attitudes toward the other cultural community, (2) creating a general appreciation of foreign cultures and societies, and (3) interest or motivation to continue L2 or culture study. In answering these questions, particular attention has been placed upon how either the classroom setting itself or the teaching methods introduced inside the classroom relate to possible changes in attitudes or motivation to continue language study. These factors are in turn secondarily related to L2 achievement in general or attitudes and motivation in relation to SLA in particular.

A major dilemma addressed by researches in the field of foreign/second language study is the fact that study of a foreign language or its culture does not automatically produce changes in attitudes. In fact, as reviewed above, declining attitudes toward language learning in general (coupled by the fact that some students may indeed develop negative attitudes toward the target language community when acquiring mastery of the language) mitigate against positive attitude change, despite claims by foreign language educators that the study of foreign languages and cultures engenders positive attitudes and cross-cultural understanding. Two early studies focusing upon this dilemma are the research of Riestra and Johnson (1964) and Gardner, Ginsberg, and Smythe (1976). In this first study, Riestra and Johnson explored the type of attitude development that occurs
among elementary-school pupils studying Spanish in relation to peers who do not study
Spanish; while Gardner, Ginsberg and Smythe explored whether a new experimental
course in French would have any consistent effects on student attitudes and motivation
and consequently offer ways to affect attitude change.

In Riestra and Johnson's (1964) study, previous pilot work with elementary-
school pupils suggested that some attitude change and acquisition of cultural information
does occur when young pupils engage in foreign language learning. To explore the nature
of this attitude change and the way such pupils perceive the target language community in
relation to other cultural groups, Riestra and Johnson designed this study to investigate
how such perceptions compare with similar students not engaged in foreign language
learning. Subjects for the study came from ten fifth-grade classrooms comprising 126
pupils. Five of the ten classrooms consisted of 63 pupils who had been studying Spanish
for two years to form the experimental group. Students in three of the five experimental
classrooms were taught by instructors who had been trained in audio-lingual instructional
methods, while students in the last two classrooms received instruction in Spanish
through the media of television and tape recordings prepared by language specialists.
School teachers who had no formal knowledge of Spanish guided them through these
lessons, however. Both sets of classrooms were also given lessons in Hispanic culture.
The control group represented 63 elementary-age pupils not enrolled in Spanish classes
who resembled the experimental group in terms of experience, socio-economic status,
sex, age, and intelligence.
To conduct the study, both the control and experimental groups were given a questionnaire in the spring semester during which they were asked to express their attitudes toward people from Russia, Spain, Germany, Mexico, France, Argentina, and Bolivia. The last part of the questionnaire asked specific questions concerning students’ feelings about children representative of the countries named above. Six research questions guided analysis of the data. The first four questions compared responses of children in the experimental and control groups in relation to (1) choice of positive adjectives to describe people from Spanish-speaking countries whom they had studied about in Spanish class, (2) the number of times Spanish-speaking children were preferred to other foreign-speaking children when all were asked which they liked most, (3) the extent to which positive adjectives were used to describe people from Spanish-speaking countries whom had not been studied about in Spanish class, and (4) the frequency with which positive adjectives were chosen to describe peoples who speak a foreign language other than Spanish. The last two questions contrasted responses of pupils in the experimental group guided through especially prepared TV and tape-recorded Spanish lessons from those taught by specialist teachers on student selection of (1) positive adjectives to describe Spanish-speaking peoples whom they had studied about in Spanish class and (2) positive adjectives to describe foreign-speaking peoples other than Spanish-speaking peoples.

The results of the study revealed that the children who studied Spanish consistently selected more positive adjectives to describe the peoples of Spanish-speaking countries (Spain, Mexico, and Argentina) than children in the control group, and that the
difference in responses between the two groups was statistically significant. These children also expressed preference for Spanish-speaking children significantly more frequently than did those who had not studied Spanish when all children were asked whom they liked most among foreign-speaking children. This preference for Spanish-speaking children among the experimental group also extended to include Bolivian children coming from a country they had not studied about in their Spanish class, but with whom all children were familiar through the same social studies class. When both sets of students were asked about preferences concerning non-Spanish speaking children (those from France, Germany and the USSR), however, the control group exceeded the experimental group in frequency of selecting positive adjectives to describe these foreign peoples. Thus at this grade level, Riestra and Johnson conclude that children studying a foreign language do not yet generalize positive attitudes felt about the target language community to other foreign peoples.

When looking at the relationship within the experimental group between pupils receiving instruction in Spanish and knowledge about Hispanic culture via either TV or tape recorded lessons versus those pupils who received instruction via trained specialists, the results showed that those students who received lessons via TV and tape recorded lessons chose positive adjectives more frequently than their experimental counterparts when describing Spanish-speaking peoples. The difference between these two sub-groups was also statistically significant. When analyzing the two sub-groups attitudes toward foreign people in general, however, the two sets of mean scores were not statistically significant, leading Riestra and Johnson to conclude that differences in
presentation of Spanish material and Hispanic cultural material does not correlate with elementary-school childrens’ perceptions and attitudes toward foreign peoples (other than Spanish-speakers).

The results of this study suggest that the teaching of a foreign language to elementary students specifically within its cultural context may engender positive attitudes toward the target language speakers among students. Yet the development of such positive attitudes may not transfer to other foreign peoples who are not the subject of study within foreign language classrooms. Moreover, since the TV and tape-recorded lessons were developed by Spanish specialists who acted within the material itself, then possibly only exposure to the target language via individuals trained in the culture and the language insures the possibility of students developing positive attitudes toward members of the target language community. Thus, Riestra and Johnson recommend that newer educational media (such as television) through especially designed programs may be more effective than personal contact with classroom teachers in establishing particular attitudes.

In response to a lack of satisfaction with a traditional, drill-oriented approach to language teaching of first-year university French at Dalhousie University in Canada, Gardner, Ginsberg, and Smythe (1976) conducted a study to investigate the effect of a new set of classroom conditions upon the attitudes and motivations of 25 students enrolled in French. A pre-test, post-test research design was selected for comparing the attitudes and motivation of students enrolled in both a traditional classroom setting and in a new experimental setting. The traditional setting consisted of three one-hour per week
classroom meetings where emphasis was placed upon the explanation of grammar, drills, and the use of tests. The experimental setting did away with this traditional format by replacing it with an individualized track whereby the student was given the opportunity to go over material on his own, to use drills as one saw fit, and use tests as a diagnostic tool rather than a negative indicator of achievement. Use of specialized texts on the part of the student and access to a language lab in addition to one-hour weekly meetings gave the student an opportunity to obtain feedback from teachers, evaluate ones progress, and practice free expression in the language. Each student was required to complete a certain number of units at the end of the year at a mastery rate of 75% to receive credit for the experimental course. The control group used the same text, drills, and other materials as the experimental group.

To analyze the effects of individualized instruction upon student attitudes and motivation in relation to traditional teaching methods, Gardner, Ginsberg, and Smythe collected pre- and post-test scores taken from completion of Gardner and Smythe’s AMTB at the beginning and at the end of the program for both the control and experimental groups. (An additional measure of Student Interest in Innovational Courses was added to the AMTB for the purposes of this study.) During the course of the investigation, however, a number of students from both programs dropped out of the course allowing for additional analysis of the differences between the two groups on the pre-test scores. A number of students also entered the experimental group after the pre-test had been distributed who completed the post-test allowing for comparisons to be made between three sets students: those students in the experimental program who had
not answered the pre-test, those in the experimental program who had taken both the pre-test and the post-test, and those in the control group who had responded to both tests.

The results of the data obtained in this study revealed that there were a number of meaningful differences between the experimental and control groups when comparing the average means of pre- and post-test scores for each group respectively. Significant differences between the two groups occurred on measures involving attitudes towards out-groups and their languages in general, attitudes toward French Canadians and the value of learning French, reactions to the French teacher and the course, and general interest in innovative courses. On these measures, those who opted into the experimental language class scored higher than those who took the traditional language program, which, according to Gardner, Ginsberg, and Smythe (1976) “is to be expected in an opt-in type of program, and particularly on these variables which generally reflect reactions to the language group, the language, the course and the teachers” (p. 250).

Although this study also revealed decreases in favorable attitudes for both groups in relation to measures of Need Achievement, Attitudes toward French Canadians, Degrees of Integrativeness, Attitudes toward Learning French, Motivational Intensity, and Desire to Learn French, Gardner, Ginsberg, and Smythe caution that such decreases may be the result of the effects of taking the AMTB twice. Unfavorable attitudes on the post test were also expressed toward Evaluation of the French teacher, less perceived Competence of the French teacher, a lower evaluation of the French course, a lower perceived Utility of the French Course, and a lesser Interest in Innovational French Courses. Since no active intervention to change attitudes took place during language
instruction, such results should best be interpreted to reflect student reactions to taking the questionnaire twice, and not be understood to reflect the experience of language learning per se within either setting.

To control for these testing conditions that potentially confound comparison of attitude measures across both groups, Gardner, Ginsberg, and Smythe looked for significant interactions between group and time of testing to support claims that the experimental classroom may indeed produce a different pattern of attitudes. Significant interactions between these two variables occurred on the measures of Need Achievement, Attitudes toward Learning French, Behavioral Intention to Withdraw from the French Program, and perceived Inspiration of the French Teacher. The control group in particular expressed reduction in Need Achievement from the pre-test to the post-test, while the experimental group reflected less of a change on this measure. Moreover, even though both groups expressed less positive attitudes toward learning French and increases in desires to withdraw from French at the end of the course, the experimental group’s decrease in attitudes was less than the control group’s decrease, suggesting that the experimental group maintained favorable attitudes toward the course and maintained more interest in learning French as a result of the experience of being in the new course. These findings in particular pre-figure finding suggested by Mantle-Bromley and Miller (1991) and Mantley-Bromely (1995) that unless active intervention on the part of teachers is introduced into Foreign language classrooms, student attitudes toward the language and the target community decrease.
When comparing the pattern of attitudes for those students who opted into either the traditional or experimental classroom, Gardner, Ginsberg, and Smythe report that no significant effects were obtained on measures involving motivational orientations (integrative vs. instrumental), Need Achievement, Attitudes toward Learning French, Attitudes toward the Teacher, Behavioural Intention to Withdraw from French, French Course Interest, French Canadian Evaluation, and Attitudes toward the Self. Significant interactions on nine variables suggested, however, that the experimental group was initially more tolerant and generally more interested in French Canadian culture and the learning of French.

Among those students who stayed in each of their respective programs versus those who dropped out, the results indicated that the stay-ins were less ethnocentric than the drop-outs. They also reflected more favorable attitudes toward English Canadians and European French, even though they expressed less desire to learn French than those who dropped-out (a difficult finding to explain). Overall, more significant differences were observed between the stay-ins and drop-outs in relation to the experimental group. Students who dropped out of the experimental program had more favorable attitudes toward European French than drop-outs of the control group, had less prior training in French, had less positive attitudes toward the French teacher, perceived having little rapport with the French teacher, and initially perceived the innovative program as being more easy than either those who stayed in from both programs. From these results Gardner, Ginsberg, and Smythe conclude that “those interested in innovational programs will tend to remain if they are already registered in one, while
those who are not registered in innovational programs but have an interest in such programs will tent to withdraw” (1976, p. 262). Moreover, “those subjects in a rather novel program who do not appreciate such novelty will tend to negatively evaluate the teacher, perceive the teacher as having little rapport, possibly feel that the course is too easy, and question its utility” (1976, pp. 262-263).

To analyze the results of the post-test data, Gardner, Ginsberg, and Smythe divided their subjects into three groups: the experimental group who completed both the pre-test and the post-test, the control group who also completed the pre-test and the post-test, and the experimental students who completed the post-test only. This last group was included to confirm either possible differences between the experimental and control group in relation to effects of the program or differences as a result of the effects on the post-test of having completed the pre-test. The results of the post-test scores revealed that overall the two experimental groups were comparable to each other and differed significantly from the control group on measures related to Motivational Intensity, Desire to learn French, Interest in Foreign languages, and Attitudes toward Learning French. On these measures the experimental groups scored higher than the control group. Moreover, a lower score on measures of Behavioural Intention to Withdraw from French on the part of the experimental groups revealed that they expressed a greater interest in continuing in the program. The measures related to French teacher evaluation and French teacher Inspiration showed, however, that taking the pre-test has the effect of elevating these ratings, based upon the fact that the scores of the experimental group on these measures who did not take the pre-test were significantly lower than the scores of both groups who
completed either program. Thus, experience with the semantic differential on the pre-
test (as a measure of reactions to the French teacher) possibly causes subjects to pay more
attention to generally favorable attitudes on the post-test. In relation to attitudes toward
French Canadians, however, significant differences were observed between all three
groups, "whose pattern of means suggests that the second group [the experimental group
that took both the pre-test and the post-test] had a much more positive attitude towards
French Canadians than did either the first group or the third group" (Gardner, Ginsberg,
& Smythe, 1976, p. 264). The reason for this difference is unclear.

The results of this study suggest that the experimental program of individualized
instruction adopted for the teaching of French at the beginning level affects students’
attitudes toward the subject of French and behavior to continue to study French in a
positive way. This positive attitude change toward French Canadians was specifically
observed for the set of experimental students who completed both the pre- and the post-
tests. The reason why such differences in relation to positive attitudes toward French
Canadians for this set of the experimental group versus the other set (those who took the
post-test only) is unclear, except for the observation that the number of subjects in this
group was considerably larger than the other (sixteen subjects vs. six subjects), suggesting
that either attitude change occurs for only a certain number of students or that the samples
used to conduct this study were too small to demonstrate reliable differences.
Nevertheless, there were also considerable differences between the two programs in
relation to the characteristics of those who opted into either program, and that these initial
differences exist even at the end of the program.
Non-Linguistic Results of L2 Learning in Intensive Language Classroom Settings

A second arena where impacts of L2 study upon student attitudes and motivation can be measured in relation to changes in such attitudes and motivation is the intensive foreign/second language classroom. Two studies conducted by Gardner, Smythe, and Brunet (1977) and Gardner, Smythe, and Clément (1979) investigated the effects of such a classroom in relation to changes in students’ attitudes, motivation, and French achievement across several sets of learners divergent in age, socio-cultural milieu (American vs. Canadian), and language level (beginning, intermediate, and advanced).

In the first study, Gardner, Smythe, and Brunet (1977) investigated the effects of intensive language learning upon student attitudes and motivation among 62 high school students registered in a five-week language program in the Ontario school system; while in the second study, Gardner, Smythe, and Clément (1979) compared two samples of American and Canadian Adult learners in relation to changes in attitudes, motivation, and achievement in a bicultural intensive language learning setting in Northern Quebec.

In both studies, pre-tests and post-tests derived from Gardner and Smythe’s (1975) AMTB were administered to each set of high school and adult French language learners at the beginning and at the end of each respective program. Student perception of French language proficiency in relation to writing, understanding, reading, and speaking French was measured in the first study five times (one per week) throughout the duration of the language program. Additional measures of French oral skills and French Aural achievement were measured by teachers instructing the students at four different times throughout the program as well.
In the second study, the language staff members measured French proficiency in relation to oral expression and aural comprehension both at the beginning and at the end of the program. The pre-test French proficiency measures were used as placement tests, while the post-test French proficiency measures compared advances in proficiency upon the conclusion of the course.

In the first study (Gardner, Smythe, & Brunet, 1977), changes in attitudes and motivation were calculated for three sets of learners studying French (beginning, intermediate, and advanced) by means of a two-factor analysis of variance looking for significant effects of the course based upon interactions between language level and time of testing. Significant effects were obtained across all levels in relation to six variables. These variables were need achievement, ethnocentrism, French classroom anxiety, behavioural intention to continue French, perceived rapport of the French teacher, and perceived difficulty of the French course. Marginal significance (p < .10) was also obtained on the measure of attitudes toward French Canadians. On the variable need achievement, the intermediate group scored the highest, followed by the advanced and beginning group respectively. On the measures of French Classroom anxiety, however, beginning students scored the highest, followed by the intermediate and advanced students respectively, indicating that anxiety about speaking French decreases as proficiency and training increases. Similar effects in relation to proficiency and training were also obtained across the three groups on the measures of Ethnocentrism, French Course Difficulty, and perceived Rapport of the French Teacher. As proficiency increases, perception of the difficulty of the course and ethnocentrism on the part of the
student drops, as does intentions to withdraw from the course; and perceived Rapport of the French Teacher increases. The beginning students differed the most from the other two levels in relation to these measures, while the intermediate and advanced students did not differ much on these measures, reflecting little change from the intermediate to the advanced level. The advanced level, however, scored the highest on the measure of Rapport of the French Teacher, reflecting the fact that advanced-level students spend more time speaking French with the teacher in the classroom in contrast to time spent on acquiring basic language skills experienced at the lower levels.

In relation to changes in attitudes concerning the French course and French Canadians, the intermediate level differed significantly from the other two levels. They expressed less interest in continuing French in general and a decrease in favorable attitudes toward French Canadians in particular. According to Gardner, Smythe, and Brunet (1977), “Possibly students at an intermediate stage of second language acquisition are less certain of their future language studies, and as a result are less positive in their attitudes toward the community speaking that language” (p. 251). Globally, however, all groups were alike in that throughout the duration of the course, two distinct patterns resulting in attitude and motivational changes could be observed. First, the students tend on the post-test to be more ethnocentric, less interested in foreign languages, and less integrative in their orientation to French study than on the pre-test. Second, these students also became less anxious in the French classroom situation, perceived it as less difficult than their initial expectations, were more motivated to learn French, and made greater use of the opportunities provided to them to speak French. “Thus, two highly
contrasting patterns emerge. On the one hand, the intensive language program appeared to have the negative effect of making the students less tolerant of other groups and languages. On the other hand, it tended also to have the positive effect of increasing their motivation to learn French and making them feel at ease with it” (Gardner, Smythe, & Brunet, 1977, p. 252).

The purpose of Gardner, Smythe, and Clément’s (1979) second study was to determine if findings associated with the previous study (Gardner, Smythe, & Brunet, 1977) could be generalized to two groups of older adult students participating in a similar intensive language program. The two samples selected for the study consisted of 65 American adult French learners and 89 Canadian adult French learners divided into three levels (beginning, intermediate, and advanced) at the start of the program. The intensive language program for the Canadian sample lasted six weeks, while the same program for the American sample lasted five weeks. Both sample sets completed the AMTB at the beginning and end of each respective program. Additional factor analyses concerning interrelationships between attitudinal/motivational variables in relation to French proficiency were also included.

The results of this study, particularly in relation to factor analyses to define the motivational/attitudinal characteristics of each group, revealed that for each of the two samples, three factors similar in composition accounted for the common variance among the attitudinal/motivational variables. These factors were identified as an Integrative Motive factor, a French Achievement factor, and an Anxiety factor. The composition of the first factor (the Integrative Motive factor) was similar across both samples as reflected
by the fact that both groups expressed favourable attitudes toward learning French, a considerable interest in learning foreign languages, a strong desire to learn French, favourable attitudes toward bilingualism, a high level of motivational intensity to learn French, favourable attitudes toward French Canadians, an interest in learning French for integrative reasons, and a high need achievement. The American group differed on this factor however in that they additionally expressed an instrumental value for learning French in conjunction with integrative motives for language study. They also reflected favourable attitudes toward European French people in conjunction with favourable attitudes toward French Canadians. The composition of Factor I for the American sample did not, however, correlate positively with indices of satisfaction with the course nor to measures of French achievement as did the Integrative factor for the Canadian sample.

In relation to factor II (French Achievement), the Canadian sample reflected proficiency in aural comprehension before the course and skill in both oral expression and aural comprehension after the program, indicating that those who were more skilled in these areas at the beginning of the course were also relatively more skilled at its termination. The pattern of loadings on this factor for the American group indicated that students who score high on proficiency measures are also satisfied with the program and with their success in it, and experience little anxiety when speaking in French. The Canadian sample also expressed satisfaction with the course, as did the American sample, and also demonstrated a lack of ethnocentrism.
In relation to factor III (the anxiety factor) loadings from variables reflecting French class anxiety, French Use anxiety, and an Integrative Orientation in contrast to an Instrumental Orientation define that nature of this anxiety factor across both samples. For the American sample, dissimilar variables that loaded on this measure in contrast to the Canadian sample include non-ethnocentric tendencies on the part of students and lack of thinking in French when actually using the language. For the Canadian sample, this anxiety is accompanied by a tendency to be critical towards oneself.

In determining the effects of the intensive program in relation to changes in language attitudes and achievement over the duration of the course, both the Canadian and American samples experienced similar decreases in anxiety associated with speaking French inside and outside the classroom, decreases in attitudes toward bilingualism, and increases in French oral and aural comprehension. Such increase in oral and aural skills on the Americans’ part was not accompanied by increases in thinking in French when using French as experienced by their Canadian counterparts. The Americans also differed from their Canadian counterparts by expressing less favourable attitudes toward French Canadians, less of an interest in learning French for integrative reasons, less favourable attitudes toward learning French, and a greater desire to learn French.

The results of this study parallel results obtained by Gardner, Smythe, and Brunet (1977) with high school students studying French in an intensive language learning environment. In both studies, intensive language learning resulted in increases in proficiency, decreases in anxiety, and a general lack of tolerance for other groups and
languages. Apparently foreign language learning does affect attitudes associated with ethnic tolerance, although in ways that are a priori unpredictable.

Gardner, Smythe, and Clément do suggest, however, that changes in ethnic attitudes may be related to the age of the learner and previous French training on the one hand, or to the influence of integrative motive upon attitudes on the other hand. The fact that the American group was older and had completed less number of years of foreign language training than their Canadian counterparts when beginning the intensive language program is significant. Moreover, even though the American group expressed initially higher rating of European French than their Canadian counterparts at the beginning of the program, their integrative orientation in relation to these attitudes was not positively related to their achievement. Integrative motivation on the part of the Canadians was, in contrast, specifically related to attitudes toward learning French, success in developing oral skills, and positive evaluations of the course upon its conclusion. In the American sample, the composition of this integrative motive also included an instrumental orientation that distinguished their type of integrative motive from the Canadian’s composite of integrative motivation where no such form of instrumentality was present. Clearly lack of exposure to French Canadian culture within the American context contributes to differences between these two groups in relation to integrative motivation. The interaction of these three variables--age, length of previous training, and differences in integrative motivation--may account for not only lack of association between attitudinal variables and achievement for Americans, but also for decreases in favorable attitudes by American students. In conclusion, although immersion in a cultural
community in the context of a demanding French program could have served to produce a slight lowering of Americans’ initially favorable attitudes, such students were still slightly more desirous of learning French, indicating that their goal of learning French had nonetheless been strengthened (Gardner, Smythe, & Clément, 1979, p. 319). Decreases in attitudes toward bilingualism on the part of both samples, however, are not easy to explain.

The Effect of Culture Teaching within Foreign Language Classrooms upon Student Attitudes and Perceptions

Among research that has been completed upon student attitudes and motivation within foreign language classrooms, little attention has been given to the impact of culture learning within such environments upon student attitudes and perceptions of the target language community. This gap in the literature does not suggest however that researches are not interested in the impact of culture teaching upon student attitudes as a result of language learning. It is perhaps more indicative of the fact that the teaching of culture in relation to other language skills is more unsystematic, represents more hidden strands within FL curriculums, varies in intensity and duration from classroom to classroom, and, therefore, is more difficult to measure from a quantitative perspective. Among those studies that do touch upon the cultural aspects of FL learning, however, findings suggest that FL teaching through the mechanism of its cultural components (i.e., the teachers themselves or the texts and lessons that they use) is significantly related to
pupils' insights or perceptions and tolerance or attitudes with respect to foreign cultures and peoples (see, for example, Riestra and Johnson, 1964; Mantle-Bromley & Miller, 1991; Mantle-Bromley, 1995). Therefore, the topic of culture within the FL classroom needs to be studied, and the most current research seems to be headed in that direction.

One study whose focus was to isolate the impact of cultural learning within FL classrooms upon students' attitudes and perceptions of foreign peoples is the research carried out Byram, Esarte-Sarries, and Taylor (1991) with 401 English primary and secondary students studying French as a foreign language in England. The major goal of the study was to investigate the impact of language teaching upon students' views of other cultures, and how this impact relates to the effects of other factors in students' environment. To achieve this goal, Byram et al. isolated four variables indicative of culture learning. These four variables were teaching methods used to instruct culture (personal teaching styles as well as the teaching materials themselves) student attitudes (defined according to three levels of ethnocentricity), student perceptions of foreign language peoples (i.e., student cultural knowledge), and extra-school experiences involving foreign people that may contribute to the formation of these attitudes and perceptions. Of the studies summarized in this literature review, this study most closely resembles the subject of this dissertation and helped formulate the research questions posed in Chapter 1.

To conduct this cultural investigation, Byram, Esarte-Sarries, and Taylor assumed that the teaching of culture within FL classrooms and its subsequent impact upon student attitudes and perceptions is a process that is multidirectional and not
unidirectional or causal per se. They write: "The number, and degree of truth, of perceptions may cause attitudes to be amicable. Amicable attitudes may affect teaching or the acquisition of insights or both. . . . These potential complexities in the relationships are also part of our investigation even though they are not usually mentioned in the claims for language teaching" (1991, p. 8).

To capture the multidirectional and interrelational nature of their perception of culture teaching within FL classrooms, Byram et al. selected both quantitative and qualitative research methods to describe these interactions. Students’ perceptions of foreign peoples were elicited by means of informal interviews to access student cultural information. Student attitudes were initially defined and differentiated by use of affective measures (i.e., semantic differential and social distance scale) to delineate levels of student ethnocentricity in relation to foreign peoples. From these measures, a sub-sample of students representative of three levels of ethnocentricity (high, medium, and low) were interviewed to describe these students attitudes. To investigate the ways students were exposed to cultural elements inside the classroom, long-term observation methods conducted over a nine-month period were used to delineate ways teachers present cultural information to students. These classroom observations focused upon analysis of personal teaching styles and analysis of the ways teachers use texts inside the classroom. Four models of culture teaching were developed from these observations to capture the complexity and density of culture teaching across a certain language level. In this case, British primary and secondary students who had studied French for three years represented this level. Finally, students were asked to define their extra-school
experiences involving exposure to and interaction with foreign peoples by means of questionnaires that elicited this type of information.

The results of this extensive project revealed that not all factors that were thought to be significant (both from a quantitative and qualitative or descriptive perspective) were so. For example, the quantitative data indicated that age is not significantly associated with attitudes, whereas ‘membership in a school class’ and ‘gender’ are. When analyzing student attitudes toward French people, German people, and Americans, the younger students demonstrated more negative attitudes toward Germans and the French, while having more positive attitudes toward Americans. However, it was only for attitudes towards the Germans that the results reached a level of significance in relation to age. Gender, moreover, is clearly more significantly related to attitudes: Girls in general demonstrated more positive attitudes toward the French, Germans, and Americans than boys, and the variances of the girl’s scores were smaller than those of the boys. Boys did, however, express positive attitudes toward Americans. When analyzing the rank ordering for Americans, Germans, and the French according to school class, only the rankings of the German and the French reached levels of significance. Differences amongst the classes regarding the Americans were not found significant. “Thus the three years of maturation—which includes the experience of learning French—are not in themselves a significant factor. Yet the ‘school class’ variable suggests that a combination of age, of gender, or shared experience of French lessons, and of many other variables is significantly related to attitudes” (Byram et al., 1991, p. 379).
Moreover, the quantitative data did not reveal any significant change in attitudes as a result of FL study. The qualitative data did suggest, however, that external factors, such as a visit to a French-speaking community, does affect student attitudes. Yet these results must be qualified by the fact that while it may seem logical that the interaction between maximum experience of France, French people, and having relations of other linguistic backgrounds may ameliorate or raise scores, this nevertheless did not happen. The group with the highest group mean are those who had personal contact with French people, who had relations of other linguistic backgrounds, but who had no direct experience of France. Thus, the quality of the experience is what is most important, as confirmed by results from the interview data describing these differentiating types of experiences expressed by the students.

In analyzing student perceptions via measures of cultural knowledge, interviews with students revealed that students at the secondary school level have increasingly more differentiated images of French ways of life than do those in primary school. Topics chosen for investigation were Food, Dress and Appearance, representative of topics frequently mentioned in class, and the sub-topics of Geography of France and Religion in France/Growing up in France, representative of areas little discussed in class, but with which some students might be familiar from outside sources. Geography of France was chosen in particular because it was dealt with indirectly in lessons but seldom given any specific attention.

In analyzing the content and depth of knowledge related to these topics from the perspective of each of the four individual classrooms selected for observation, each
classroom differed primarily in relation to the amount of information students could give about these topics. Larger or smaller amounts of information from class to class or from grade level to grade level was not synonymous with accuracy of information, only with amount of information given on a certain topic. Among these topics, students in all four classrooms demonstrated knowledge to various degrees about French food, reputation concerning French food, jobs, and people/buildings. No students across all four classrooms, however, were able to articulate information concerning the nature of special French meals, housing, language, or growing up in France or religion in France. Only two classrooms had students who could articulate information about either the politics or history of France.

When analyzing ways in which students are introduced to cultural information inside each of the four classrooms, teaching methods were similar in that most cultural information was gleamed directly from texts or from the teachers themselves. Each teacher differed, however, in teaching style, and demonstrated a different philosophy in the articulation of cultural information taken from either their own personal experiences or from the French texts. For example, in classroom four, this teacher, a female, presented cultural knowledge from a ‘survivalist approach’--i.e., she presented a relatively large amount of cultural information, including language, to enable her students to survive a visit to French and thereby encouraged pupils to go. In classroom two, this teacher, a female, presented cultural information from a ‘language skills approach’--i.e., she emphasized above all the learning of basic skills through the use of exercises, names, and tests. The textbook was the dominant source of information in this class, and most
cultural information was extracted directly from the textbook in a comprehensive manner. In classroom number three, this teacher, a male, presented linguistic and cultural information from an ‘academic approach’. Emphasis was placed in this classroom upon getting high marks and maintaining a high standard in one’s study of French. Cultural information was presented via both the text and the teacher’s own personal experience. Much of the cultural information was presented verbally whose content included information that is less obviously directed at a visitor to France. Finally, in classroom one, this teacher, a female, presented linguistic and cultural information from a ‘language enjoyment approach’—i.e., she emphasized in her lessons an appreciation of language and enjoyment in conducting the lessons whose scope and method of presentations were wide-ranging. Cultural information was secondary in importance. This approach contrasted most with the academic approach demonstrated in classroom three, where selection of activities and materials were more narrow in scope.

When calculating the effect of these divergent teaching styles upon students attitudes and perceptions, Byram et al. concluded that different kinds of French lessons affect perceptions and attitudes in different ways and that the kind of lesson is a function of the type of class and teacher involved. Analysis of classroom data alone suggested that attitudes and perceptions are formed not only by experiences inside the classroom; for external factors (such as TV and films, books, family language learning, visits to France, parents and other adults, siblings, and experiences of other countries etc.) also account for the nature of these attitudes and perceptions. Inside the classroom, however, three factors sum up the effect of culture teaching and learning. They are style,
perceptions, and attitudes. Moreover, it is the interaction of these three variables that define differences or similarities across the classroom sets. Of these three, it became clear that while attitudes may be much influenced by external variables outside the classroom, perceptions are more influenced by events inside the classroom. Style, too, is understood differentially as the combination of both the ways texts are used and the ways teachers present culture within a certain classroom climate. Style is also determined by teachers' perceptions of the ability of the class and student classroom behaviour—whether that be in relation to discipline or motivation problems. Style thus defines a teacher's interaction with a particular class in a specific situation. As noted above, four distinct styles (the survival approach, the language enjoyment approach, the language skills approach, and the academic approach) defined the classroom climates under investigation.

In conclusion, Byram et al. state that amount of cultural information and cultural teaching style appear to have no effect on students' attitudes. They write by way of example that

in model C [the survival model], a group of pupils taught by an enthusiastic francophile teacher, students may well remember much of the information the teacher gives them but are none the less a group less positive in attitudes than other classes, whose fund of information may be less and whose teacher is less enthusiastic. The weight of evidence seems to be that external factors affect pupils' attitudes more than does learning French in school. Again the power of the experience of visiting the other country seems to be significant, yet cannot be considered a fundamental aspect of teaching (1991, p. 380).

The general outcome of the effect of FL teaching upon students' attitudes and perceptions seems to indicate that the acquisition of separate and largely de-
contextualized cultural information which students acquire seems to lack an understanding of or insight into another people’s ways of living and thinking. The power of extra-school experiences in relation to attitudes and perceptions, from visits to France whose quality may or may not ameliorate attitudes, and the effects of exposure to foreign peoples and cultures by way of the media, of parents, of peers and siblings etc. mitigate against successful attitude change. They recommend, therefore, that only highly-structured, culturally-oriented classroom environments may impact attitudes. By way of example, visits to France to produce positive effects must include stages of student preparation and follow-up visits in a structured and integrated way. Such efforts appear to be the only way that the classroom environment can counter-balance the over-powering effect of the extra-school environment that interferes with attitude change.

Non-Linguistic Results of L2 Learning in Immersion Classroom Settings

When analyzing the effects of immersion programs upon student attitudes toward themselves, their own L1 community, bilingual speakers proficient in both the L1 and L2, and native language speakers representative of the target language group, research suggests that immersion programs may have an impact upon ethnic identity and attitude formation. The majority of research investigating these effects comes from areas of Canada (Québec initially), where immersion programs were first started, as a means to increase French proficiency levels on the part of English Canadian students by parents, educators, and researchers interested in developing alternative educational programs. According to Genesee (1983), “Immersion can be defined as a type of bilingual education
in which a second language . . . is used along with the children’s native language for curriculum instruction during some part of the students’ elementary and/or secondary education” (p. 3). The goal of these early immersion programs was to not only raise English-students proficiency levels in French, but also to bridge the gulf between English-speaking and French-speaking Canadians in Quebec who had an increasing need to communicate more frequently in French with each other in the work place. Similar immersion programs promoting Hispanic minority children’s acquisition of English have sprung up in the US; however, these programs have not been as well-received as their Canadian counterparts. Several American cities currently offer immersion programs as alternative, effective ways to acquire a L2.

To define the effects of immersion programs upon students’ cognitive, academic, and linguistic development, several studies were completed comparing English-speaking French immersion students’ academic and language abilities with their English-speaking non-immersion counterparts (see, for example, research conducted by Lambert & Tucker, 1972 and Tucker, Hamayan & Genesee, 1976, whose methods for immersion and longitudinal program evaluation influence research subsequently conducted by Genesee, 1978; Harley, 1976; Swain & Lapkin, 1982 ). From this initial research, it became clear that immersion students developed a different pattern of attitudes toward bilinguals and native French speakers as a result of their intensive language learning experience.

Two studies that demonstrate the effect of immersion programs upon students’ attitudes and perceptions of themselves, bilinguals, and native language speakers is research conducted by Lambert, Tucker, and d’Anglejan, (1973) and Cziko, Lambert, and
Gutter (1979). In the first study, Lambert et al. defined English-speaking French immersion students' progress at the end of grade five with regard to linguistic development in both English and French, cognitive development, and changes in inter-group attitudes. The results from this study prompted further investigation of these changes in inter-group attitudes by Cziko et al. (1979) to differentiate more effectively the pattern of attitude change suggested by Lambert et al. (1973).

In Lambert et al.'s (1973) study, previous research with primary students enrolled in St. Lambert's immersion program suggested that immersion students by the end of grade two showed a regular improvement in French and English achievement and in mathematics skills comparable to and at times exceeding their English and French non-immersion counterparts; and that by the end of grade three such students appeared to develop a relatively non-ethnocentric outlook toward French people and French culture. By the end of grade four, immersion students were able to read, write, speak, and understand English as well as the English-Canadian controls, demonstrated higher abilities in the use of French than their English-Canadian controls who studied French in traditional school settings; but who nevertheless no longer reflected the favorable tone toward French Canadians and French culture noted previously. Their attitudes toward French Canadians appeared to resemble by the end of grade four attitudes toward French Canadians expressed by their English-Canadian counterparts (see for details, Lambert & Tucker, 1972).

As a result of these previous findings, Lambert et al. sought to investigate the effects of immersion at the St. Lambert elementary school upon students enrolled in grade
five. For comparative purposes, two follow-up groups from grade four were also selected for study. In total, 75 students at the grade four follow-up level (broken down into an experimental group, English-Canadian controls and French Canadian controls) and 65 students at the grade five level (similarly broken down into experimental and control groups) participated in the study. Grade five was thought to be significant from a research perspective because at this level students start a new phase of immersion training during which academic instruction takes place in French and English. Previously, from grades one through four, academic instruction had occurred only in French. Therefore, for this new immersion level, new tests measuring children's achievements in French, English, Mathematics, Science, and attitudes toward French people and French culture were developed, and students were asked for the first time to give their own impressions of the program and the influence it had upon their lives in a supplemental survey.

The results of this study indicated that for the grade four follow-up class, the bilingual-instructed pupils' knowledge of basic English skills was equivalent to that of the English-Canadian controls. Their knowledge of French language skills, however, was lower than those of the French-Canadian controls. This finding contrasted the test results of pilot students previously tested at the grade four level and follow-up grade three level whose French language skills had previously matched those of their French-Canadian controls. Such changes in scores may reflect the decrease in time allotted toward instruction in French at the grade five level. This follow-up group did, however, score better on tests of creativity and intelligence than their control groups, suggesting
that immersion has a salutary effect on their intellectual development, particularly on measures of cognitive flexibility.

To measure immersion students’ attitudes toward relevant social groups at the grade four follow-up level, pupils were asked to rate concepts related to self, English Canadians, French Canadians, and French people from France. Both the experimental and controls rated themselves similarly on 10 out of 13 scales, but the experimentalists rated themselves lower than the controls on self-confidence. The control students and the experimental students also expressed similar attitudes toward English Canadians. “The only discrepancy is in the attitudes of the French-Canadian controls who see English Canadians as less pleasant and much less good looking than do the experimental or the English-Canadian controls” (Lambert et al., 1973, p. 150). The point of interest on these ratings is that the experimental group maintained attitudes that are balanced, being neither too hostile nor chauvinistic when compared with their English-speaking controls.

The childrens’ attitudes toward French Canadians and European French, however, reflected discrepancies between the groups. French-Canadian controls rated other French Canadians higher (i.e., more favorably) in relation to the other groups on 9 of 13 traits; whereas the English-controls and the experimentalists were more alike in their attitudes toward French Canadians on traits associated with intelligence, strength, happiness, calmness, etc. Overall, the experimentalists rated French Canadians as being more pleasant than their English-speaking counterparts. Clearly here more positive attitudes toward French Canadians are emerging in contrast to decreases in positive attitudes experienced at grade three. Experimentalists did, however, retain a stubborn attitude of perceiving
French Canadians as not particularly intelligent, which is interpreted by Lambert et al. as reflecting experimental students' contacts with French Canadians in their school who are of a lower socio-economic status than they.

When comparing the groups' attitudes toward European French, the French-Canadian controls maintained the least favorable attitudes. The English-Canadian controls are more favorable toward French speakers from France than from Canada, whereas the experimentals hold similar attitudes toward both the European French and the Canadian French.

In relation to language skills in French and English by experimentals in grade five, similar results at this level emerged as in the follow-up grade four class. The one exception to this fact was that when measuring this class's decline in French skills in relation to French Canadians, this drop was significantly greater than the decrease in skills exhibited by the follow-up four class. When testing French comprehension, however, both groups scored similarly, reflecting the fact that this immersion class is not lagging behind their French counterparts in this skill. On tests of creativity and intelligence, the experimentals match their English-speaking controls on measures of IQ and performed even slightly better on creativity, especially in relation to their development of flexible or creative strategies for problem solving.

On measures of social attitudes and attitudes toward oneself, all three groups of children have similar self-images. When measuring attitudes toward English-Canadians, once again the French-Canadian controls have distinctive and unfavorable views of English-Canadians. On measures related to French-Canadians, the immersion students
were closer to the French-Canadians in expressing positive views toward this group than were the English-Canadian controls. The immersion students also demonstrated more positive attitudes toward the European French than either of the two controls.

Finally, on final measures accessing both classes attitudes toward the experience of learning French in either an immersion setting or a traditional setting and their functional ability in French, both immersion classes (grade four follow-up group and grade five) have become sufficiently skilled in French to be able to communicate comfortably with French-speaking peoples and to establish satisfying relationships with them. Compared to their controls, they are able to participate in diverse social settings, value French people and French culture, and consider themselves to be both English and French Canadian in makeup. They are satisfied with the immersion program and do not want to leave it. They also expressed desires to continue to gain higher proficiency levels in French. Their English-speaking controls, however, feel that they have had too much French and are much more in favor of transferring to a totally English-speaking school.

In Cziko, Lambert, and Gutter's (1979) study focusing upon emerging patterns of social attitudes among four groups of fifth and sixth grade elementary students (two immersion or experimental and two non-immersion French and English control groups), variations in patterns of attitudes toward out-groups were examined using refined techniques of multidimensionaal scaling analyses and analyses of variance. The main purpose of the study was to investigate other possibly more stable features of attitudes among early and late immersion students at the fifth and sixth grade levels to explain variations in patterns expressed by students at lower and higher levels.
As Cziko et al. summarized, previous research on immersion students' attitudes toward self, toward their own ethno-linguistic group, and toward other relevant ethno-linguistic groups suggest that patterns in attitude development of immersion students are not homogeneous across all grade levels. For example, Lambert and Tucker (1972) found that French immersion students at grade two had developed favorable attitudes toward French Canadians, but that these favorable attitudes were not retained at the third grade level. Lambert et al. (1973, see above) found the opposite to be true at level five. Results by Cziko, Holobow, and Lambert (1977) and Cziko, Holobow, Lambert, and Tucker (1977) confirmed results suggested by Lambert (1973); however, research conducted by Cziko, Holobow, and Lambert (1977) and Genesee, Morin and Allister (1974) with immersion students at grade seven suggested that no differences in attitudes between immersion and control pupils exist at this grade level. Even though there is conflicting evidence concerning the development of favorable attitudes among immersion students toward relevant ethno-linguistic groups across grade levels, in no case were children in immersion programs less favorable in their attitudes to out groups than the control children.

Based upon the results of previous research, Cziko et al. tested the hypothesis that immersion students in contrast to their control groups have a good chance at developing favorable attitudes toward the target language community. They write:

The underlying theory here is that English Canadian children who participate in French immersion programs have a particularly good chance to develop favorable and realistic attitudes toward French-speaking people because of their daily interaction with a teacher who is a representative of the French community and who provides them with the opportunities to develop high levels of proficiency in French. As the language proficiency progresses, it is presumed that much of the
foreignness of the other group will be dispelled, permitting students to know and appreciate the distinctive and the shared characteristics of the other ethnolinguistic group (p. 15).

To conduct this study, Cziko et al. selected a group of 254 students from the Montreal area involved in early and late immersion and non-immersion programs at the fifth and sixth grade levels to express their attitudes towards monolingual English Canadians, bilingual English Canadians, monolingual French Canadians, bilingual French Canadians, Italian Canadians, English people from England, French people from France, Americans, your teacher, and yourself. For purposes of analysis, these students were divided into eight groups (four at Grade 5 and four at Grade 6, broken into two groups of English-speaking controls, two groups of French-speaking controls, two groups of early immersion students, and two groups of late immersion students). By using multidimensional scaling procedures in contrast to methods that ask students to rate themselves or other relevant ethno-linguistic groups, students were asked to use whatever traits or dimension they feel are appropriate in their attempts to distinguish the members of any pair (i.e., Americans vs. French people from France). By asking students to state perceived dissimilarities between such pairs, configurations of the various concepts could be displayed graphically according to the dimensions defined by the students.

After students completed attitude questionnaires designed to access their perceived dissimilarities between the ten categories described above, separate multidimensional scaling analysis was performed on each of the eight groups. Dimensions that fell across all groups were sifted out from the data for final analysis, and preliminary observations concerning any disparate differences among the groups were
highlighted at this time. From this initial stage of analysis, no significant differences were found between responses of students in grade five versus grade six. Therefore, the eight groups were collapsed into four groups for the purpose of final analysis. In final analysis, the configurations obtained for the late immersion group, the early immersion group, and the French-speaking control group were transformed to match as closely as possible that for the English-speaking control group, which was considered to be the major reference configuration. Analyses of variances were also performed to test the statistical significance of group differences and dissimilarity rating for 12 selected pairs of concepts.

The results of this study when displaced graphically revealed that the horizontal dimension for all four groups is an English-French dimension, with Americans and English people from England at one end, progressing through monolingual English Canadians, bilingual English Canadians, bilingual French Canadians with monolingual French Canadians, to French people from France at the extreme French ethnicity end of the dimension. The three English-speaking groups of students were similar in the way they placed themselves along this dimension, whose concepts of self fell somewhere between monolingual English Canadians and bilingual English Canadians. The early immersion students placed themselves closer to the bilingual English Canadians than did the other two groups. The French Canadians similarly placed themselves closer to the French ethnicity end of the dimension, between bilingual French Canadians and monolingual French Canadians.
On the vertical axis, all four groups placed Italian Canadians at the extreme end. The English Canadians and the early immersion group, however, placed English people from England on the top, while the French Canadians and the late immersion group placed the Americans on the top. This dimension suggests that all four groups possibly perceive Italian Canadians (the only immigrants included) as being qualitatively different from all other ethnolinguistic groups. Analysis of variance confirmed, moreover, that the English-speaking groups see themselves as more dissimilar from the French-speaking groups and vice versa, i.e., the French-speaking groups see themselves as more dissimilar from the English-speaking groups.

In answering the two major purposes of the study--is multidimensional modeling procedures a reliable and valid method for discerning students’ perceptions of ethnolinguistic group differences and are the reliable and socially relevant differences in these perceptions attributable to students’ ethnolinguistic background and school language program?--Cziko et al. conclude yes. Not only were the multidimensional scaling configurations and analyses of variance of judgments extremely coherent and meaningful, but the final configuration seemed to reflect an accurate description of the force of early socialization in Canada “where children of both major ethnic groups are taught, likely through contrasts that parents draw between in-groups and out-groups, they belong to one group or another, and that there are deep and real differences between groups like English Canadians and French Canadians” (Cziko et al., 1979, p. 26). Moreover, becoming bilingual in the other group’s language appears to narrow the gulf between perceived group differences. As demonstrated in this study, this narrowing in perception occurred
specifically among the early immersion group at both the grade five and grade six levels. These early immersion students placed bilingual English Canadians closer to bilingual French Canadians than did any of the other groups and they likewise place themselves closer to bilingual French and English Canadians than did any of the other groups. Thus, "the early immersion experience seems to have reduced the social distance between self and French Canadians, especially French Canadians who are bilingual" (Cziko et al., 1979, p. 26).

The results from studies investigating the impact of immersion upon students' attitudes toward self and relevant out-groups suggests, albeit with a few exceptions, that immersion programs do impact student attitudes toward native language speakers in a positive way. As summarized by Genesee (1983),

It may also be that the Immersion students' familiarization with French Canadians through interaction with French-speaking teachers and through exposure to curricular material in French has made them realize fundamental similarities between the two ethno-linguistic groups that might otherwise be masked by superficial language differences. The development of such perceptions could be an important precursor for establishing social contact and relationships with members of the other group, leading ultimately perhaps to more positive intergroup attitudes (p. 37).

The remaining research issue at large, however, is whether this fostering of positive attitudes toward the target language group by immersion students sustains itself over time. Although immersion students at lower levels appear to develop positive attitudes toward relevant ethno-linguistic out-groups, similar students by the senior year express attitudes that fall more in line with their fellow non-immersion counterparts. According to Genesee (1983), one possible explanation for this developmental shift is the
reality that in immersion programs, there is an absence of real social contact with French Canadians and therefore a lack of behavioral or social evidence on which to sustain positive attitudes over an extended period of time. He cites the potential need for such contact via reference to a study conducted by Genesee, Morin, and Allister (1974) in which the attitudes of grade seven late immersion students in a predominantly English-speaking school were compared to student attitudes in a similar late immersion program in a predominantly French-speaking school. He writes that

The results indicated that while the attitudes of the Late Immersion students in the English schools tended to be positive relative to those of non-Immersion students, they were not as positive as those of the Immersion students in the program located in an otherwise all-French school. Thus, there may be limits to the extent of attitude change that can be achieved in second-language programs which do not provide real meaningful contact between the learner and members of the target-language group. Students may need evidence that members of the other language group are likable before they will demonstrate stable positive attitudes toward them (p. 37).

The results from these immersion studies suggest, therefore, that arenas where students actively participate socially with members of the target language group are effective forums to produce attitude change. Positive attitudes toward relevant ethno-linguistic out-groups then may increase motivation and subsequently affect acquisition of the target language. Other logical arenas where such interaction takes place are foreign language programs involving active participation of students within the target language community. Thus, analysis of bicultural or study abroad settings where study of the L2 within the target culture itself concludes this last section of the literature review.

When addressing the issue of inter-ethnic contact and attitude change, several studies have investigated the impact of either brief excursions or more extended sojourns
involving study of the L2 within the host community upon L2 proficiency levels and perceptions of the target language culture and peoples. In socio-psychological theories of SLA, while it is acknowledged that students’ aptitude for language study is the arena least amenable to change, motivation, however, and the constructs that undergrid motivation (i.e., student attitudes and perceptions of the L2 community) are avenues more receptive to change. Study of a L2 within the target language community, however, does not automatically produce changes in attitudes, nor significantly increase motivation levels. Research suggests that while attitude change is a potential possibility, it is not unusual for attitudes to decrease (see for example, Leonard, 1964; Tucker & Lambert, 1970), or for motivation to drop (MacKay, 1973) upon the conclusion of FL study within a host community.

The complexities involved in understanding the impact of L2 and culture study within a host community upon attitudes, stereotypes, and motivation is best demonstrated by two studies carried out by Gardner, Kirby, Smythe, Dumas, Zelman, and Branwell (1974) and by Clément, Gardner, and Smythe (1975). In both studies, attitudes, stereotypes, and motivation of grade eight anglophone students were assessed both at the beginning and at the end of a four or five day excursion to Quebec City. The purpose of the first study was to evaluate the merits of brief excursion programs under the direction of the French Language program of the London Board of Education and to determine from a research perspective whether changes in various aspects of the integrative motive would occur as a result of a brief excursion by students into the other-language community. The purpose of the second study was to clarify the effects of contact in a
casual contact excursion program where use of a control group would not only permit an assessment of the simple effects of the passage of time, but also allow for analysis of the type of contact (or frequency of contact) in excursion programs in contrast to a general distinction between students who simply report whether they have visited the target language community or not.

In the first study, eighth-grade students enrolled in French courses through the London, Ontario Public School System participated in a four-day excursion to Quebec City. Prior to the trip, students and their parents met on three occasions with organizers of the trip for a general orientation, to view slides, and gather information concerning the excursion. During their stay in Quebec, the students lived together in a large hotel and took part in a number of guided tours. Prior to their departure and upon its conclusion, the students were distributed two similar sets of questionnaires designed to assess their expectations, their previous travel experience to Quebec, their stereotypes in relation to 53 concepts associated with English Canadians, French Canadians, Quebec City, My English Course, and My French Course, and their attitudes and motivation toward learning French and French-speaking peoples (the attitudinal and motivational scales were adopted from Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Lambert, 1972; Srole, 1951). Upon the conclusion of the trip, students were asked to define how much they used French in Quebec City, if they would visit the city again, if they benefited from the trip and how, and if they would recommend a similar trip to other eighth-grade students. 434 students completed the pre-trip questionnaire and among these students 211 completed the post-test questionnaire.
The results of this study comparing scores from both questionnaires revealed that students had significantly increased their attitudes toward French Canadians as well as their motivation to learn French for integrative purposes. The change in attitudes associated with appreciation for Canadian French culture and its people did not, however, include increase in positive attitudes toward the French instructional program. On five of these measures, there were no significant effects as a result of the program. Moreover, although the stereotype measures were initially favorable on the five measures associated with English Canadians, French Canadians, Quebec City, My English Course, and My French Course, students’ stereotypes on these measures did not change after the trip.

In relation to the pre-test questionnaire, 39% of the students reported expected language experiences, 16% highlighted geographic experiences, and 39% emphasized potential cultural experiences. 18% of the students reported visiting Quebec previously (although 7.6% of the students did not answer this question). On the post-test questionnaire, 73% of the students reported using their French skills in Quebec (25% did not), which is encouraging due to the fact that initially only 39% of the students did anticipate using their French skills. 97% of the students said they would like to return to Quebec, 94% said that they had benefited from the trip, and 89% said that a similar trip should be organized for next year. Initially, pre-test scores indicated that students associated language benefits with cultural benefits; however, the post-test scores revealed that the cultural benefits outweighed the expected linguistic benefits.

In summary, although the excursion to Quebec City was brief in duration, modest and relatively enduring changes on the part of the participants were noted. The greatest
impact of the trip was increased student appreciation of the cultural characteristics of the French Canadian community. “Although an increase in cultural awareness did not, in and of itself, herald an increase in second language acquisition, it did indicate that the excursion was partially successful in terms of the objectives adopted by the London Public School Systems and many other systems” (Gardner et al., 1974, p. 276).

In Clément et al.’s (1975) second study, it was hypothesized that individuals participating in excursion programs of short duration and who seek frequent contact with members of the other group would be those who (1) a priori have both more positive attitudes toward the group and toward the acquisition of the language than those seeking less frequent contact or who choose not to go and (2) that those students who voluntarily choose to interact frequently with members of the L2 community do so in part because of positive experiences. Thus, one may predict that these students’ attitudes toward the L2 community in relation to the aspects they associate with that community after the experience will be more positive than for students who have either less frequent or no contact, even after controlling for initial attitudinal characteristics.

To test these hypotheses, Clément et al. distributed a pre- and post-test attitudinal/motivational questionnaire during regular class time to 379 grade eight students taken from 10 public schools in London, Ontario. 181 students formed the experimental group who were to participate in a five-day excursion program to Quebec City on a voluntary basis, while 198 students formed the control group that stayed at home. Upon conclusion of the excursion and completion of the post-test, the participants were split into high and low frequency groups by means of a median split on responses to
questions asking the experimental group to indicate the extent to which they interacted in French with French Canadians during the excursions. The subsequent analysis thus compared the attitude and motivation scores of control (no contact), low frequency, and high frequency contact groups before and after the excursion.

The results of the study revealed that significant effects were obtained on all but three variables; and of these 17 significant variables, 14 variables demonstrated that the High Contact group variables differed significantly from those of the Control group. These significant variables included ones associated with attitudes toward French Canadians and European French, Interest in Foreign languages, Instrumentality, Integrativeness, Attitudes toward Learning French, Desire to learn French, French Teacher Inspiration, Evaluations of the Course, and Parental Encouragement etc. Moreover, for seven of these 14 variables (need achievement, attitudes toward French Canadians, interest in foreign languages, integrativeness, parental encouragement, attitudes toward learning French, and motivational intensity) the mean of the High Contact group was significantly greater than the mean of the Low Contact group. For two variables, Attitudes toward Learning French and Desire to Learn French, the mean for the Low Contact group was significantly greater than that for the Control group.

These results indicate that after adjusting for differences in initial attitude scores, the High Contact group differed the most from the other two groups on those variables related primarily to attitudes toward the language and people who speak the language. Moreover, in relation to measures involving the educational aspects of the French course and its utility, the excursion influenced perceptions of the value of the course, but not of
the teacher. The Low Contact group differed from the Control group on measures of Attitudes toward French Canadians, Attitudes toward Learning French and Desire to learn French (the Control group scored higher on these last two measures than did the Low Contact group), lending support to the conclusion that the excursion had the effect of improving attitudes of the Low Contact group toward French Canadians relative to the Control group. The excursion did not, however, significantly affect attitudes toward Learning French on the part of the Low Contact group. This difference between the High Contact group and the Low Contact group in relation to attitudes toward FL study parallels, therefore, findings suggested by Gardner et al. (1974) that short-term excursion programs may impact attitudes toward the target language community, but not necessarily toward L2 study or subsequent proficiency levels.

In conclusion, these two studies taken together suggest that “frequency of contact was more important in term of its effect on attitudes than merely participating in the excursion. Passively visiting the other culture as an observer seems to have only minimal effects. In fact, although attitudes toward the community might improve, attitudes toward learning the language and the desire to learn it may become less favourable” (Gardner, Smythe, Clément, & Gliksman, 1975, p. 211). The results from this type of excursion program involving travel to the target language community and frequency of contact as the mediating variable for differences in changing attitudes may be compared to another form of student direct exposure to the L2 community--i.e., those involving school exchange programs and their effect upon attitudes and motivation.
Two last studies pertaining to the effects of immersion within a host country upon student attitudes and motivation and L2 development demonstrate the impact of study abroad programs upon L2 proficiency levels and changes in cultural perspectives. The first study, conducted by Hoeh and Spuck (1975) with 15 high-school students participating in a three-phase short term study abroad program in France, demonstrate positive effects of immersion upon student skills in listening and reading, and similar positive effects upon American student attitudes toward French people and France. The second study by Opper, Ulrich, and Carson (1990) is one of the largest comprehensive analyses of study abroad programs in Europe and the US. The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of study abroad upon college-students’ academic, linguistic, cultural, and professional development. Both studies investigated student proficiency levels and attitudes prior to and upon the conclusion of their respective study abroad programs and found significant effects of study abroad upon students’ personal and professional lives.

In the first study by Hoeh and Spuck, student attitudes and proficiency levels prior to study abroad in France were documented by means of MLA-cooperative foreign language tests, semantic differentials of attitudes toward Self and French People, and Life in France in relation to schooling, family life, and living conditions in France. The pre-test was administered one day after departure to France and the post-test was administered one day after the group returned home. While in France, the group participated in a two and one half-week homestay with a French family followed by a
two-week attendance at a French high school. The program concluded with a tour of France for one week.

The results of this study revealed that significant gains were achieved in French listening and reading achievement. Listening comprehension increased by 6.3 points (comparable to three-fifths-of-a-year increase if students were attending class at home) and reading comprehension by 4.9 points (comparable to one-half a year gain if attending class at home). Significant gains were demonstrated from pre- to post-test on measures of self in relation to ideal self. While measures of self increased following the program, measures of ideal self decreased, indicating that students described themselves more as they would like to be upon the conclusion of the program. Gains on six of ten measures involving descriptions of French schools, gains on four measures of nine describing French Family life, and gains on six of fifteen measures on French people and Life in France were also significant. Upon the conclusion of the program, the students perceived French schools as being more teacher-centered and more strict than American schools, perceived French family bonds to be less cohesive than they did on the pre-test, and perceived French people as less religious, less rude toward American tourists, and more positive in their attitudes toward America than during pre-testing. Most significant were changes in attitudes toward the French high-school experience in relation to the home-stay experience. The high-school part of the program was perceived as much less valuable upon the conclusion of the program than prior to the program.

Although this study lacked a control group, the significant changes in attitudes on certain measures confirmed desired gains in French proficiency and supported the notion
that study abroad promotes development of more realistic and favorable attitudes toward the target language community. Study abroad appears also to contribute toward development of positive self-concept as demonstrated by the increase in measures involving self and decrease in measures involving ideal self from the pre- to post-test. Due to the limitations of this study, however, Hoeh and Spuck recommend additional measures of student speaking and writing skills in study-abroad research as well as the inclusion of control groups to discriminate more carefully the impact of study abroad upon students' cognitive, linguistic, social and emotional development.

The last study in this literature review by Oppen et al. (1990) is significant for two reasons. First, it investigated not only study abroad programs of long duration (at least one academic year), but also included in its analysis the longitudinal effects of study abroad in relation to college students' academic, linguistic, cultural, and professional development. Second, by nature of its comprehensive scope, it also included in its target group students from the US, from Germany, from the UK, from France, and from Sweden, who represent a broad range of academic interests and motivations for undertaking study abroad. Two thirds of the European students, for example, identified academic majors in their home institutions in Business Studies (25.3 %), Law (11.4 %), the Natural Sciences (10.3 %), Engineering (6.4 %), and Foreign Languages (5.2 %). No statistics were available for US students in relation to academic background.

Across the total target group, however, the four major motivating factors for study abroad included motives that relate to an overwhelming interest in study abroad for the experience of living/studying or working in a foreign setting. This cross-cultural interest
also included high expectations concerning what was to be gained as a result of study abroad. Academic motives were more restricted (for example, to improve marks or examination results) and were secondary to the primary cross-cultural interest. Least important were motives that were casual in nature, such as to join fellow friends who were going abroad.

To conduct this study, Opper et al. selected 82 study abroad programs sponsored by the European Community, the German Academic Exchange Service, and the Swedish National Board of Universities and Colleges. American exchange programs whose affiliating institutions participated in the establishment of the study were also selected. In total, 890 students replied to the initial Pre-study Abroad Questionnaire and were interviewed. Upon the conclusion of study abroad, a series of post-study abroad questionnaires and interviews were conducted with 439 students. These post-study abroad questionnaires and interviews were followed up by a retrospective study abroad questionnaire (n = 416), a study abroad and career questionnaire for graduates from the years 1980-1984 (n = 458), and a final series of telephone interviews conducted with former participants in study abroad programs in the US from the years 1966-1981 (n = 77). From these pre- and post-questionnaires, Opper et al. addressed the following research questions: (1) Pursuing indicators of program success in the realm of student experiences, do study abroad participants consider the period(s) abroad stimulating and worth the investment of time and other resources?; (2) Did students run into problems because of any aspects of program organization—or lack thereof?; (3) Did they feel the sojourn delivered or led to any academic gains; and if so, how would these be
characterized?; (4) What impact did the experience abroad have in areas which are most commonly expected to be affected by a foreign sojourn: foreign language proficiency and knowledge of life in other countries?; (5) How, and with what strength of conviction, did program participants alter formerly held beliefs and values as a result of their exposure to other cultures?; and finally (6) Did students feel that study abroad would somehow be instrumental in what eventually happens to them as they enter the workforce? (Opper et al., 1990, pp. 9-10).

Due to the extensive nature of this study, the findings reviewed here will only be those that relate to the linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes of study abroad--i.e., those results that answer research questions nos. 4-6. Areas of major difference in the results according to country and/or nationality will be touched upon briefly. In answering research question no. 4, the major impact of study abroad upon students' linguistic development was assessed by asking participants to state their perceived level of proficiency in the host languages prior to study abroad. Students were asked to initially rate proficiency levels in speaking, listening comprehension, and reading proficiency by checking all categories within each sub skill that they could do well. The range of categories were primarily descriptive and directive in nature, and in some cases alluded to situations which called for elaborate structures of messages, arguments or interpretations. In each category, proficiencies were listed in a progression from simpler (i.e., mere passive decoding of messages) to more complicated proficiencies which involved major structural comprehension of messages which had as their primary function to communicate topics and points of view to the listener or the reader. These initial
proficiency scores were validated for their reliability by comparing these self-ratings to scores taken from ACTFL proficiency interviews performed with a sub-sample of students. On the post-test questionnaires and interviews, students were asked to indicate the extent to which they felt hampered in using the language of the host country at the beginning and at the end of the sojourn on a five-point scale in relation to entering into conversation with host country nationals, entering into academic conversations with instructors, and meeting the language requirements of daily life.

The results of the linguistic components of the study revealed that prior to study abroad, a greater proportion of Swedish and British students felt they could master the more difficult linguistic items in relation to general speaking ability. This was least true of the Americans. Upon completion of study abroad, the Americans had reached proficiency levels similar to other European students, except for the Swedes who were clearly more proficient than the others in speaking ability. Moreover, weaker groups initially (i.e., the Germans, for example) surpassed the initial stronger groups (i.e., the British), specifically in relation to be able to state and support a position on a controversial topic. When comparing speaking ability in relation to field of study, surprisingly those whose major academic interest was Foreign Languages were comparatively weaker at the outset, and remained so at the end of the study abroad period. In contrast, Engineering students who reported lower proficiency levels at the outset experienced the most gains in speaking ability at the conclusion of study abroad. Opper et al. (1990) write: “Could the Foreign Language students have been more objective in their assessments; or possibly, while realistic in their assessments at the outset, more
ambitious about the level of accomplishment they expected by the end of their sojourn?” (p. 100).

In general listening comprehension, greater proportions of Swedes and French students rated themselves higher on more complicated tasks. Since English is taught in Swedish schools from primary levels, higher proficiency levels are not surprising. The French and American scores are more meaningful. The lower American scores at the outset were surprising; but by the end of the sojourn, their listening skills were comparable to other Europeans. At the end of the program, the Swedes, the Germans, and the French assessed their foreign language competencies higher than the other two groups.

In relation to general reading ability, the Swedes, French, and British students felt they were capable of mastering more difficult topics. The Americans perceived themselves less proficient both at the beginning and at the end of study abroad. This lack of proficiency on the Americans’ part was specifically related to abilities to handle academic and technical material in relation to one’s professional field with infrequent, or no use of a dictionary. For the other four countries, language acquisition in terms of reading was at comparable levels to those levels in listening comprehension. Strikingly once again, American Foreign Language students were less proficient in general reading comprehension both pre- and post-study abroad. Business Studies and Engineering students’ scores were higher across the board post-study abroad, while students in Engineering and the Natural Sciences reported the highest reading abilities in reading technical materials in their areas of specialization without having to consult a dictionary.
In summary, the Swedes, French, and British stood out across all measures of proficiencies, followed by the Germans and the Americans. Post-study abroad, Swedes and French out-ranked the others, but in some instances those lower on proficiency levels initially caught up to higher-level groups. Overall, all students reported increases in language abilities that were synergistic in effect. Proficiency levels that were intermediate reached advanced levels. Factors which influenced these proficiency ratings appeared not to be the result of the individual designs of the study abroad programs themselves. For example, Opper et al. cite sources predicting language success that include such factors as familiarity with the foreign language within the native language society, the extent to which the target language is studied as a FL during earlier years of schooling (i.e., the Swedes), or the extent to which the target language is perceived from an international perspective by study-abroad participants.

In relation to assessing the impact of study abroad from a cultural perspective, arenas of change specifically addressed by the researchers include (1) reflection by study-abroad participants about one’s own culture, and even a reconsideration of values in general not specific to any one country; (2) the ability to acquire knowledge about the culture and other aspects of the host country that extends beyond the cognitive domain into the areas of motivation, views, and opinions; (3) the inability to predict the direction of expected change; (4) and how cultural knowledge and understanding play a different role for students from one country to the next, as well as from one field of study to the next.
Across the board, most students obviously augmented their knowledge about the culture, politics, and society of their respective countries to a large extent during study abroad. In relation to perceptions concerning one's own country, pre-departure differences in opinions about the host country appeared to fade away at the end of study abroad. After study abroad, assessments of host countries became slightly more positive; however, this change was not statistically significant. Germans, for example, whose perceptions of their host country prior to departure were the most mixed, assessed the host more negatively in comparison with the home country after the study abroad. Post study abroad, British students had a surprisingly negative opinion about the media in their country; French students viewed cultural life, foreign policy, and media in their home country more positively after the sojourn than before it; German students exhibited the least amount of change, except in their opinions of German institutions of higher education abroad which were rated more favorable; Swedish students displayed the sharpest contrast in their opinions about the home country in comparison with the host; and American students viewed cultural life, customs, traditions, and foreign policies of their host countries more favorably than those at home both pre and post study abroad.

Changes in values associated with international issues proved to be the arena of least change, as did perceptions of personal and social self-confidence as a result of study abroad. In relation to these two factors, Opper et al., write that

Most of the participants were already internationally oriented before they went abroad and they had hardly moved further in this direction after the study experience abroad. Nor did students change significantly on average, in their personal and social self-confidence. Whatever changes in values and self-confidence were observed to be significant at all were noted for students who had lagged slightly behind others before the study abroad period. Speaking about
averages, however, obscures the fact that changes of values and attitudes did take place, for individual students, in both directions to about the same extent (many of the changes therefore canceled each other out), (1990, p. 144).

Moreover, any ability to predict changes in attitudes in relation to perception of selves and host peoples was not demonstrated by this study. Even though individual ups and downs reflecting changing values and perceptions may be attributable to reflection and re-orientation during study abroad, this process of reflection and re-orientation could only be established if links between certain experiences or problems abroad and changes in values and self-perception proved to be systematic. Upon examination of these potential arenas for change, however, no systematic relationships between study abroad experiences and changes in values, attitudes etc. were found.

In examining the long-term effects of study abroad in relation to personal growth and students' careers, the European students' sampled by means of written questionnaires reported that the most positive benefit of study abroad was the experience of learning the culture and the language of a foreign country firsthand. This firsthand experience appeared to promote capacities to adjust to unknown situations, to interact well with various kinds of people, to be prepared to undertake new tasks, and to learn from comparison. On a general level, the development of these skills naturally spilled over into other aspects of graduates lives—both personal and professional. On a more practical level, graduates who reported using their foreign language and cross-cultural skills to a high degree on the job (i.e., traveling to the host country or using the language and knowledge acquired abroad about their field of study) were those graduates who had
on average spent a twenty percent longer period studying abroad than students who reported less use of these study abroad experiences.

For the American students sampled in relation to the impact of study abroad in both their personal and professional lives, 59 percent reported that study abroad had influenced their subsequent career choices and employment outcomes. This sample of graduates, however, were older and more farther along in their careers that those European study-abroad participants queered above. Many American interviewees were notably active in educational institutions and in cultural, economic or political organizations with international tasks. Among this American sample, no significant differences in relation to choice of career were observed according to gender or age. Overall, American and European graduates sampled did not differ significantly in relation to the impact of study abroad. International experience appeared to be an essential qualification for a substantial proportion of them. Moreover, it was not uncommon for each group to look for career changes in order to put their cross-cultural and FL abilities to better use. “Finally, both the European and American graduates pointed out that cross-cultural experiences were important for them in reflecting upon their tasks and living conditions and in handling new situations, even if international experience and knowledge were not required as an immediate skill on the job” (Opper et al., 1990, p. 187).

In conclusion, like the other immersion or study abroad programs reviewed above, studying a FL within its native environment significantly relates to attained proficiency levels and the gaining of potential cross-cultural skills to be used later in life. The effects
of immersion on student attitudes, however, is more nebulous and harder to define. Clearly, some students gained effectively and cognitively from immersion experiences more so than others. However, these effects are difficult to predict. The results of the study by Opper et. al. (1990) and the results of studies conducted by Gardner et al. (1974) and Gardner et al. (1975) suggest that students who volunteer for immersion experiences and who demonstrate positive attitude gains do so because they initially appear to be integratively motivated from the outset. Students who participate in immersion experiences as part of curriculum requirements, however, appear to be less receptive to attitude modification and actually experience negative changes in attitudes toward the host community and in attitudes toward FL study.

Like the other sections reviewed in this chapter, this concluding section of the literature review demonstrates that attitudes in relation to motivation are clearly interrelated. While motivation (particularly integrative motivation) may be predictably related to achievement and the attaining of positive attitudes toward study of the language and perceptions of target language peoples, student initial perceptions and stereotypes in relation to the target language culture possibly confound the overall effects of FL teaching and learning goals. The research summarized in this literature review does suggest, however, that focus upon the socio-cultural milieu and student background variables may offer fruitful areas of focused investigation to predict the effect of attitudes in relation to FL learning in general and motivation in particular. From a linguistic perspective, Gardner’s socio-educational model may be most instrumental here, although aspects from each of the other four socio-psychological models summarized in chapter 1 are beneficial
to understand L2 learning in both formal and informal L2 environments. From a cultural perspective, findings suggested by Byram et al. (1991) and Opper et al. (1990) confirm what socio-psychological theories of SLA suggest—that arenas outside the classroom affect to a higher degree the type of attitude change that does occur when students undertake study of an FL or SL either inside the classroom or outside of it.
CHAPTER 3

DESIGN AND PROCEDURES

Population and Sample Selection

The population from which the sample was drawn consisted of beginning through advanced-level Arabic foreign language students (Arabic 101-603), Arabic literature in translation students (Arabic 372), and Arabic culture students (Arabic 241 and Honors Arabic 241) enrolled at The Ohio State University (OSU). The university requires that students pursuing a Bachelor of Arts and Sciences degree to complete four quarters of a foreign language and students pursuing a Bachelor of Arts and Humanities degree to complete fifteen credits in non-US, non-European courses. Generally, approximately 60 students enroll in Arabic language courses and 80-90 students enroll in Arabic literature in translation and Arabic culture courses collectively each academic quarter. Their ages range from 18-43 years. Almost 90% of these students are native speakers of English. Due to the nature of the subject matter, however, these courses also attract international students and native Arabic speakers who have a command of colloquial Arabic, but not Modern Standard or Classical Arabic, the language used for reading and writing and for understanding the Qur’an. About 10% of the students, being non-native speakers of
English, thus enroll in these classes to learn Modern Standard Arabic and/or because they are Muslim.

The sample consisted of 140 Arabic language, Arabic literature in translation, and Arabic culture students enrolled in Arabic 101-Arabic 603, Arabic 372, and Arabic 241 during the Autumn and Winter quarters of the 1994-1995 academic year. Arabic 101-103 have been labeled beginning; Arabic 104-402 intermediate; and Arabic 403-603 advanced. The single-quarter Arabic 372 and Arabic 241 courses fulfill the Arts and Humanities’ non-US, non-European course requirements. In the language courses, instruction in each of the four language skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking is emphasized, with some cultural instruction built in as a result of the texts used or at the teachers’ discretion and students’ requests. Frequently, some Arabic language teachers also include music, songs, examples of Arabic calligraphy, and children’s short stories or Arabic newspapers as mediums for cultural and linguistic instruction. The Arabic culture and Arabic literature in translation classes contain greater systematic introduction of Arabic culture primarily through the use of Arabic short stories, poems, novels in translation, films, videos, music, and lectures by the teachers.

All participants in the study were volunteers who filled out questionnaires during class time both at the beginning and the conclusion of the study. The subjects were recruited at the beginning of the academic quarter and at its conclusion. Arabic language, literature, and culture teachers were informed orally as to the nature of the study, the amount of class time the study would take, and solicited for their cooperation and permission to complete the study. These instructors graciously donated class time for the
completion of the study and volunteered to complete interviews with the researcher to define the nature, methodology, and amount of cultural knowledge or information they used to teach their respective language, literature, and culture classes.

Research Design

The overall design for the present study was hybrid in nature, involving a quantitative analysis of the pre- and post-test questionnaire scores that measured students initial attitudes, perceptions, amount of cultural knowledge, and motivational orientations or reasons for undertaking Arabic language, literature in translation or culture classes, and a qualitative analysis of teacher interviews to determine the methods, amount, and substance of cultural knowledge introduced in each respective classroom. In addition, the researcher, a former teacher of Arabic culture, attended sessions of each language, literature in translation, and culture classes to observe the methods of cultural teaching in each classroom as described by the teachers in their interviews and to gain a classroom perspective to aid in data analysis. Data collected from classroom observations and teacher interviews were thus employed to supplement and/or explain the questionnaire data used to describe student initial attitudes and motivational orientations, investigate the effect of culture teaching upon students’ attitudes and perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world and of themselves as a result of Arabic language, literature in translation, or culture study, and determine the extent to which students’ initial attitudes and motivational orientations are related to any changes in attitudes or success in foreign language and culture learning as a result of their participation in an Arabic language, Arabic culture, or Arabic literature in translation class.
Phases of the Study and Statistical Analysis

To conduct this study, three phases of analysis were employed using descriptive and inferential statistics to investigate (1) the possible overall differences between each classroom to arrive at a picture of which attitudes and perceptions differed the most by classroom, both independently and also in conjunction with other socio-cultural factors; and (2) to determine the effect of culture teaching upon students attitudes, perceptions, and changes in attitudes, perceptions, and cultural knowledge as a result of Arabic language, Arabic literature in translation, and Arabic culture study. Phase One of the study was essentially exploratory to determine how dramatically the three classrooms differed in relation to the pre-test variables and the change-in-attitudes and perception variables across the three levels of classroom. Phase One also determined which socio-cultural variables were most important in predicting student initial attitudes, knowledge of the Arab World, and perceptions.

Phase Two of the study determined the effect of culture teaching on student attitudes and perceptions of themselves and Arabs and the Arab world both in relation to class, nationality, and any other significant socio-cultural factors taken from the pre- and post-test scores and difference between scores from post-test to pre-test. Phase two also addressed the effect of student motivational orientations in relation to pre-test scores measuring student attitudes and perceptions, knowledge about the Arab world, and changes in attitudes and perceptions or success in foreign language, literature in translation, and culture study as taken from the post-test scores or difference between the scores from post-test to pre-test.
Phase Three of the study compared the results of the descriptive, exploratory, and inferential statistics with the information gained from the teacher interviews and researcher's observations of cultural teaching methods employed in each of the three classrooms. Teacher perceptions of the amount, methods, and content of cultural instruction were analyzed according to qualitative methods of data analysis found in Patton (1996). The interview data was categorized according to type of classroom, background of the teacher, style, amount, content, and methods (i.e. texts or music or lecture material) used to teach culture, and teacher perceptions of the impact of culture teaching upon students' attitudes and perceptions upon the conclusion of the course. Teacher perceptions of student motivational orientations and differentiation between more successful students and those students who either do poorly or drop out were compared with the results of the quantitative analysis of the data. Classroom observations of cultural teaching methods in relation to type, amount, and style were also analyzed to confirm that teachers actually used those cultural teaching methods they described in their interviews.

Variables and Statistical Methods

In the first two phases of analysis, two sets of variables, classified as either independent or predictor variables and dependent or response variables, were analyzed separately and also in relation to each other to answer the research questions. Both sets of variables are categorical or continuous. There are three subsets of independent variables: class, which has three levels (Arabic language, Arabic literature in translation, and Arabic culture); student socio-cultural variables (age, sex, ethnicity, nationality, previous foreign
language experience, previous travel to the Middle East, and previous, current or anticipated formal classroom exposure to Arabic or the Middle East or the Arab World; and Motivational orientation. Motivational orientation is divided into two subsets of variables. Subset one includes integrative, instrumental, and religio-cultural measures, while subset two has four levels that divided students’ primary reason for language, literature, and culture study across four categories. (See Appendix A that lists all variables and their measures).

There are four sets of dependent or response variables: student cultural knowledge, perceptions, attitudes, and success or final grade. Each set includes a pre-test score, a post-test score, and a difference between post-test to pre-test score. Each set and its subsets are described in more detail in the Student Questionnaire section below. (See also Appendix B and C).

The statistical methods employed for data analysis included regression trees on the continuous variables and classification trees on the categorical responses. Many of the response variable are continuous, with grade and class being categorical. Box plots were used to describe the population in relation to class and nationality and in relation to the interaction between class and nationality, while parametric (one-way and two-way ANOVAs) and nonparametric (Kruskal-Wallis) tests were used to identify any statistically significant areas of difference between the three class levels in relation to class and in relation to the dependent and independent measures.

Since regression and classification trees are exploratory in nature, they were adopted for this study because they are easier to interpret than more conventional linear
models and because they are more adept at capturing nonadditive behavior and allow for a more general interaction structure than that assumed in a linear model. Even though statistical inference for tree-based models is in its infancy, this method is gaining widespread popularity as a means of devising prediction rules for rapid evaluation, as a screening method for variables, as a diagnostic technique to assess the adequacy of linear models, and for summarizing large multivariate datasets, like the datasets used in this study. The treatment of missing values (NAs) is more satisfactory for tree-based models than for linear models, which was a concern in this study because some students (approximately 20) did not fill out completely all subsections in the questionnaire. (See Chambers & Hastie, Chapter 9, 1997).

The trees also identify a subset of the most important variables in predicting a mean response (i.e., attitudes and perceptions and changes in attitudes and perceptions). In phase one of the study, the mean attitudes and perceptions were analyzed marginally with class alone as the predictor, to see if mean attitudes and perceptions depended on class, and also in the presence of other covariates. If class shows up after including other covariates thought to effect attitudes and perceptions, then teaching method or the cultural variable K is important even after accounting for other covariates.

Trees also have a simple structure whose result is a stratification of the students into strata which are more heterogeneous with respect to mean attitude and perception, or with respect to change in attitudes or post-test cultural knowledge performance. So whereas classification and regression trees are limited in making statistical inferences, they are ideal for exploring the data (phase one), identifying the most important factors
influencing attitudes, perceptions, gains in cultural knowledge and performance, and identifying strata of students who are performing especially well or poorly in relation to the dependent variables (phase two). The simplicity of the regression trees also allow for comparison of their stratification with what teachers’ perceive to be the effects of cultural teaching inside each of their respective classroom, how the differences in amount, content, methods, and style of culture teaching across the sets of classrooms may account for the structure of the trees, and if student motivational orientations do impact upon success in foreign language, literature, and culture study (phase three).

To summarize, the use of regression trees in this study allows one to investigate the general hypotheses concerning the effect of cultural teaching on attitudes and perceptions or Arabs and the Arab world and changes in attitudes and perceptions. First, the trees with class alone show one if there is a marginal effect of the culture, literature, or language class on attitudes etc.; and second, if class or nationality or other socio-cultural variables do show up in a tree with other covariates, then whether culture training has an effect above an beyond the influence of other variables.

Data Collection and Instrumentation

Student Questionnaires

Two sets of questionnaires (pre- and post-) were used to measure student attitudes, perceptions, cultural knowledge, and motivational orientations for enrollment in each respective language, literature, or culture course. The pre-test questionnaire contained seven parts labeled A-G (Appendix B), and the post-test questionnaire
contained three parts labeled A-C (Appendix C). Those parts of the pre-test questionnaire that measured cultural knowledge, perceptions, and attitudes were repeated again in the post-test questionnaire. Parts A and B of the pre-test questionnaire included a personal data and educational background section to collect relevant information on students’ age, gender, nationality, previous foreign language experience, etc. and their prior, current, or anticipated formal classroom education on Arabs and the Arab world or the Middle East. This section also included any previous travel experience to the Arab world. This section of the questionnaire was scored either categorically to reflect the age, gender, ethnicity or nationality of the student population, or quantitatively to reflect student previous exposure to the Arab world or the Middle East.

Part C of the questionnaire, designed for non-native speakers of English only, measured the language background of those international students who enroll in Arabic language, literature in translation, and culture classes. This section queried the frequency of English usage by non-native speakers outside the classroom, whether they think primarily in English or their native tongue, and general attitudes toward English-speakers and Arabic-speakers. Likert-like scales were used to quantify each measure, based a scale of one to seven.

Part D of the questionnaire, measuring student motivational orientations or primary reasons for language, literature in translation, or culture study, was modeled after Gardner and Lambert’s (1972) and Gardner’s (1982) research on the impact of attitudinal and motivational variables in relation to foreign language learning. Its wording and composition, as adapted from Gardner and Lambert (1972), reflects both integrative and
instrumental reasons for undertaking foreign language and culture study, and also reflects a religio-ethnic orientation for those Muslim, Arab, or Arab-American students who take classes to remain in contact with their religio-ethnic or cultural heritage. A specific travel orientation was included in the instrumental measure, based upon suggestions made by Dornyei (1990). Finally, students were asked directly for their primary reason for language, literature in translation or culture study, which, after reading all the questionnaires, was subdivided or coded into four separate motivational orientations that reflect either a socio-cultural orientation, a GEC (General Education Curriculum) or required-course orientation, a desire to gain knowledge for functional use orientation, or a travel-related or work orientation. This section of the questionnaire was scored both quantitatively and categorically to give a composite measure for each motivational orientation, and also to divide the population into four separate categories reflective of students’ strongest or primary motivation for language, literature, or culture study.

Part E of the questionnaire measured students’ cultural knowledge and perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world in relation to its people, geography, religion, lifestyles, literary and performing arts, and political leaders or events. In the sub-section measuring perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world, students were asked to write down what association first came to their minds upon reading a list of ten terms. These terms were chosen as those which frequently call to mind stereotypical perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world or the Middle East by those students who are unfamiliar with Arab culture or society or have very limited previous education on the region. As a former teacher of Arabic language and Arabic culture, this researcher, in conjunction with knowledge
gained from teaching beginning Arabic language and culture students, comprised this list of terms based upon personal experience and feedback from students who attended her classes as beginning Arabic language or culture students. This section of the questionnaire was scored quantitatively on a scale from one to three, with one indicating negative associations, two more neutral associations, and three indicating more positive associations.

To measure cultural knowledge, 21 questions were composed taken from pre-tests given in Arabic culture classes to determine initial student background knowledge in relation to Arab cultural life, religion, lifestyles, education, geography, politics, literary and expressive arts, and sources for Arab identity. This section of the questionnaire was scored quantitatively based upon a scale of zero to thirty-eight reflecting the number of correct responses to each question and its sub-questions.

In parts F and G of the questionnaire, two popular and well-known measures of attitudes within social psychology and foreign language education--the Bogardus Social Distance Scale and the semantic differential--were adapted from Lett (1977), Cooke (1969), Gardner and Lambert (1972), and Spolsky (1969). The Social Distance scale measured student attitudes toward 15 countries in the Middle East (including Pakistan and Somalia) and the US in relation to seven categories of social contact to which a student would admit members of the target country. These categories range from a very broad acceptance of persons from the Middle East and US as, for example, ‘a visitor to my country’ or ‘a citizen to my country’ to more intimate associations as ‘a roommate in my house or apartment’, or as ‘a friend’ or ‘spouse’. The categories, as adopted from
Cooke (1969), were modified to reflect social arenas where college students would expect to encounter members of the various countries, such as in college classrooms or as roommates in houses or apartments. Although caution has been given in using Social Distance scales by Cronbach (1946, 1950) because of its potential vulnerability to extraneous and nonrandom sources of variance known as ‘response sets’ (a tendency to respond in a set pattern over a large number of responses and a tendency to respond in ways that appear socially desirable to the respondent), Campbell (1953) suggests that the response set problems do not affect the more sociological use of the test. It is particularly good for ranking social groups in popular favor or when attitudes toward specific groups are of interest, whether singly or in terms of the relative ranks of several groups, and to look to other techniques when measures of general ethnocentrism are desired. Keeping Campbell’s suggestions in mind, the Social Distance scale in this study was designed to give a composite score of acceptance of individuals from 15 countries in the Middle East in comparison with acceptance of individuals from the US. Scores from the fifteen countries were summed based upon a scale of zero to twenty-eight, with zero representing no acceptance and twenty-eight representing the highest level of acceptance. The scores from each Middle Eastern country were averaged to give a composite score that was then compared to the composite score for the US based upon the same measure of zero to twenty-eight.

The second attitude measure used in this study, found in part G of the questionnaire, is the semantic differential that was designed to elicit student attitudes toward Arabs, Americans, oneself, and one's ideal self. Based on the research of
Gardner and Lambert (1972) and Spolsky (1969), this method has been particularly effective in measuring attitudes toward one's own social group and members of the target language group. The semantic differential itself is composed of a series of bi-polar scales (e.g. "unsociable-sociable", "strict-permissive", "cruel-kind" etc.) separated by seven steps in a likert-like format. The seven steps in this measure were quantified from one to seven with each students' score for a given social group calculated as the sum of scores obtained from each of the twenty sets of bi-polar adjectives. The lowest possible score of twenty reflects the most negative attitude, while the highest possible score of 140 reflects the most positive attitude.

To guard against response sets, the use of either a positive-negative or negative-positive presentation of each of the twenty bi-polar adjectives was randomly chosen for each set to prevent students from checking the same step between each pair. As suggested by Lett (1977), while semantic differentials in general employ three categories of bi-polar scales--identified as evaluative, potency, and activity--to define the characteristics of a certain object, attitude research in particular has used the evaluative category, since attitudes are primarily concerned with the degree of one's positive or negative affect toward some social object. Thus, in constructing the semantic differential for this study, those social objects germane to the research topic were selected first (Arabs, Americans, etc.) followed by a random selection of twenty among fifty-commonly used evaluative bi-polar scales reflecting adjectives that have particular relevance to this study.
Teacher Interviews

Six teachers who taught beginning-to-advanced Arabic language classes, Arabic literature in translation classes, and Arabic culture classes selected for this study were interviewed during the Spring Quarter of the 1994-1995 academic year to collect data on (1) the methods, amount, and substance of culture teaching that took place within each language, literature in translation, and culture classroom and (2) to gain a teachers’ perspective on the effect of culture teaching within each respective classroom upon students’ attitudes and perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world. Each teacher was also queried on their perceptions of students’ primary motivations for enrolling in their classes, their own educational backgrounds and number of years of teaching experience, and their own initial perceptions of Americans and life in America before coming to the United States. Each interview was then coded according to classroom, background of the teacher, style, method, and amount of cultural teaching as described by each instructor to form a composite picture of the way cultural teaching takes place in each of the three classrooms. These composite pictures were then compared to classroom observations of cultural teaching to achieve triangulation of data, to confirm that teachers actually used the cultural teaching methods they described (and any other ways they didn’t describe), and to gain a classroom perspective to aid in data analysis.

Pilot Study

A piloting of this questionnaire took place during the Summer 1994 quarter. Students enrolled in beginning-level Arabic language classes offered through the Arabic individualized foreign language center and students enrolled in an intensive Arabic culture class completed the questionnaire. They represent a population similar in age, background, and previous experience as that population of college students who were solicited for participation in the study during the academic year of 1994-1995.
The students' performance and oral impressions of the tasks involved in filling out the questionnaire led to changes in the background section, social-distance-scale section, semantic-differential section, and knowledge of the Arab world section. In the background sections, questions specific to those students whose native language is not English were added in the light of previous research carried out by Gardner and Lambert (1972). A section on motivational orientations for foreign language, literature and culture study was added to be able to analyze the relationships between such orientations, student attitudes, student backgrounds, and final grades (e.g., Samimy & Tabuse, 1992). Questions that were difficult to score from a quantitative perspective on the knowledge-of-the Arab-world-section were eliminated or rewritten. To facilitate speed without sacrificing reliability, the semantic differential paired adjectives were decreased, and a simplified scoring system expressing either positive or non-positive attitudes were devised for this section. Moreover, the directions for the Social Distance Scale had to be reworded to facilitate more serious completion of this section by students. Students also gave feedback as to whether the oral instructions given by the researcher in administering the questionnaire were clear and concise, and students suggested ways the researcher could improve the quality of its administration (e.g., should students use Xs or check marks to fill in the likert-like scales). Most students had no difficulty in understanding the directions, nor in completing the questionnaire.

Timing of student completion of the various sections of the questionnaire indicated a time estimate of twenty minutes to half-an-hour to fill out the questionnaire. The researcher then confirmed that teachers would be able to donate this amount of class time for the administration of the questionnaire, and determined with each instructor the same time at the beginning and conclusion of each course when the questionnaire would be administered in each classroom. The pre-test questionnaire was administered during the first day of class, and the post-test questionnaire was administered during the last day.
of class. The researcher also practiced scoring the sections of the questionnaire by hand to determine the amount of time it would take to prepare the questionnaires for data entry.
CHAPTER 4
ANAYYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

The research questions that guided this study were designed to (1) investigate the effect of culture teaching upon students’ attitudes and perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world and of themselves as a result of Arabic language, literature in translation, or culture study; and (2) determine the extent to which students’ initial attitudes and motivational orientations are related to any changes in attitudes or success in foreign language and culture learning as a result of their participation in an Arabic language, Arabic culture, or Arabic literature class in translation. Questions one through six focused upon the effect of culture teaching according to class, nationality, and any other significant socio-cultural variables, while question seven focused upon the relationship between student motivational orientations and their success or change in attitudes according to class, nationality, and any other significant socio-cultural variables. All seven research questions are listed below:

1. What effect does the teaching of Arabic culture within Arabic foreign language classrooms have upon American college students’ perceptions and attitudes of Arabs and the Arab world, and how does this effect relate to other factors within students’ socio-cultural environments?

2. What effect does the teaching of Arabic culture within Arabic culture classrooms have upon American college students’ perceptions and attitudes of Arabs and the Arab world, and how does this effect relate to other factors within students’ socio-cultural environments?
3. What effect does the teaching of Arabic culture within Arabic literature classrooms have upon American college students’ perceptions and attitudes of Arabs and the Arab world, and how does this effect relate to other factors within students’ socio-cultural environments?

4. What effect does the teaching of Arabic language, Arabic culture, and Arabic literature have upon native Arabic-speakers’ perceptions of themselves and of the Arab world, and how does this effect relate to other factors in native Arabic-speakers’ socio-cultural environments?

5. What effect does the teaching of Arabic language, Arabic culture, and Arabic literature have upon native Arabic-speakers’ perceptions of Americans and the United States, and how does this effect relate to other factors in native Arabic-speakers’ socio-cultural environments?

6. What effect does the teaching of Arabic language, Arabic culture, and Arabic literature have upon American and Arab college students’ perceptions of themselves in relation to other foreign peoples and cultures?

7. What effect do student motivational orientations and attitudes towards Arabs have upon their changes in attitudes or success in FL or culture learning as a result of their participation in an Arabic language, Arabic culture, or Arabic literature class?

The seven research questions were analyzed according to three phases. In phase one, the use of classification trees identified the possible overall differences between each classroom to determine how dramatically the three classrooms differed in relation to certain pre-test and post-test variables and the change-in-attitudes and perception variables across the three levels of classrooms. Use of regression trees also isolated which socio-cultural variables were most important in predicting student initial attitudes, knowledge of the Arab World, and perceptions.

Phase two looked at the effect of culture teaching on student attitudes and perceptions of themselves and of Arabs and the Arab world both in relation to class membership (phase one), nationality, (specifically for Arabs only in questions four and five), and in relation to any significant socio-cultural variables factors taken from the pre-test to post-test scores and difference in scores from pre- to post-test. Phase two also
investigated student motivational orientations in relation to post-test scores of attitudes and perceptions, knowledge about the Arab world, and changes in attitudes or success measured by either final grades or difference between scores from pre-test to post-test.

Phase three took the results from phases one and two and compared these conclusions with information gathered about culture teaching that was provided by the teachers in their interviews. Phase three was used to confirm, deny, or explain the results of phases one and two. Phase one, for example, showed that students enrolled in the culture class differed the most from the other two classrooms in relation to gains in cultural knowledge and attitudes towards Arabs. Analysis of the larger amount and extent of cultural teaching found in this classroom versus the lesser amount and extent of cultural teaching in the other two classrooms may thus explain why students enrolled in the culture class scored the way they did in relation to these two variables.

Results of the Study

Phase One: (The teaching of Arabic culture in each classroom environment)

The first three research questions focused attention on the three different types of classes—Arabic language, culture, and literature—and the effect of these classes on perceptions and attitudes toward Arabs, and the effect of these classes on cultural knowledge. This effect was examined both in the presence and absence of other factors thought to influence attitudes, perceptions, and knowledge. There were four significant findings that answer research questions one, two, and three. These findings are that
1. Those in the culture class experienced the largest change in knowledge about the Arab world. This change happened even in the presence of other factors thought to influence the learning of culture.

2. Students in the culture class changed their attitudes towards Arabs and the Arab world in the most positive direction. This change also happened regardless of whether other covariates were included in the regression trees.

3. Past knowledge about the Arab world was lower in the literature class where possibly there were more individuals attending the class merely to satisfy a college requirement. They also had the lowest post-test scores measuring knowledge about the Arab world at the conclusion of the class.

4. The language classes were distinct from the other two classroom environments in that their pre-test scores on the social distance scale in relation to the Middle East were highest initially, signifying a high level of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East; yet these scores decreased the most on the post-test measure. Similarly, their change in attitudes toward Arabs was the most negative. This change happened regardless of whether other covariates were included in the regression trees.

The importance of class membership in predicting post-test knowledge scores and change-in-knowledge scores about the Arab world, as well as predicting attitudes towards Arabs, showed up repeatedly in several of the classification trees and also in some of the regression trees. The difference between these classes on these measures was also statistically significant in both the Kruskal-Wallis test and in the one-way ANOVA. To illustrate the effects of class membership, a classification tree found in Appendix D.1 provides a visual display of the breakdown of post-test scores on knowledge about the Arab world (identified as KP) according to class (a = culture, b = language, and c =
literature). In Appendix D.2, a similar classification tree displays the breakdown of change-in-knowledge scores about the Arab world from post-test to pre-test (identified as DK), also according to class.

In each of these classification trees, (as well as in the regression trees), one sees a model that reveals systematic structure within the data. The models are fitted by binary recursive partitioning whereby a dataset is successively split into increasingly homogeneous subsets until it is unfeasible to continue, or until all the data is accounted for. Within the tree itself, the data are successively split along coordinate axes of the predictor variable or variables so that at any node, the split which maximally distinguishes the response variable in the left and the right branches is selected. Splitting continues until nodes are pure or data are too sparse. Terminal nodes are called leaves, while the initial node is called the root. If the response variable is a factor (as in Appendices 4.1 and 4.2), then the tree is called a classification tree, and the model assumes that the response variable follows a multinomial distribution. If the response variable is numeric, the tree is called a regression tree, and the model assumes that numeric response variable has a normal (Gaussian) distribution (Breiman, Friedman, Oshen, & Stone, 1984).

In reading each tree found in Appendices 4.1 and 4.2, the final nodes or leaves define subclasses of students according to scores on the response variables of KP and DK that are broken down in relation to class membership. In Appendix 4.1, the first binary split at the root of the tree breaks down the sets of students according to class. Class c’s (the literature class) mean KP score of 20.51 is displayed down the left branch of the tree; while the other two classes of a and b (the culture and language classes) mean scores of 24.87 and 28.6 are displayed down the right branch of the tree, which has its own two sub-branches. In Appendix 4.2, the classes are similarly split down the left and right
branches of the tree to display the mean scores in relation to class at each leaf or end-node. This tree displays class membership according to mean scores on the DK variable (change-in-knowledge about the Arab world measure). Classes b and c (the language and literature classes) go down the left branch and are sub-split again to display their mean scores of 4.211 and 5.829 respectively, while the culture class is split from the other two classes down the right branch of the tree to display its mean score of 11.230.

Both classification trees confirm findings number one and three, that the culture class had the highest mean DK score or increase-in-knowledge about the Arab world as a result of attending an Arabic culture class, even though their KP score fell in the middle between the literature class on the one hand and the language class on the other. The literature class had the lowest mean KP score (finding number three) when ranked with the other two classes, and experienced medium change in knowledge as a result of attending an Arabic literature class. The language class is distinct from the other two classes. They as a group experience the least increase in knowledge, as evidenced by their lowest mean DK score, even though their post-test mean score of KP was highest among all three classes. This finding suggests that some language students may already possess a significant amount of knowledge about the Arab world before they enter an Arabic language classroom (as evidenced by their high mean KP score) and that as a result of this level of knowledge, they experience the least amount of increase in knowledge. It may also be the result of other factors found in students’ socio-cultural makeups (to be explored below) or the result of the classroom environment itself (to be explored in phase three).

The Kruskal-Wallis test confirmed that the difference between the classrooms’ means scores on both DK and KP are highly statistically significant at a p-value equal to zero, or at a p-value less than .0001. The one-way ANOVA revealed that differences
among the classes on DK and KP are highly statistically significant at a p-value = to 0; and at a p-value = to .000026 respectively.

In Appendix D.3, the classes are split according to mean scores on changes in attitudes toward Arabs (identified as the variable of DIFFAR). Class b, the language class, is split from the literature and culture classes down the left branch, revealing a negative change in attitudes towards Arabs of -5.438. (Finding number four). Down the right branch of the tree, the literature class evidences a small positive increase in attitudes towards Arabs by its score of 2.781, while the culture class evidences the greatest change in attitudes toward Arabs by its score of 8.429. Students in the culture class changed their attitudes towards Arabs and the Arab world in the most positive direction. (Finding number two). Both the Kruskal-Wallis test and the ANOVA revealed that the differences among the three classrooms on this attitude measure were highly statistically significant at p-values = to .0024 and .0026 respectively.

The classification trees displaying mean scores of the three classrooms in relation to pre-test scores and difference in scores from post-test to pre-test on the social distance scale (Appendices D.4 and D.5) confirm the general trend emerging from analysis of the teaching of culture in each separate classroom. Positive changes are occurring in the culture classroom, negative or moderate levels of change are occurring in the literature classroom, while the greatest negative changes from pre-test to post-test are occurring in the language classroom (Finding number 4). In Appendix D.4 modeling the mean scores of each class in relation to pre-test scores on the social distance scale (SDISTME), the tree splits the three classrooms into two branches. The right branch displays a high social acceptance score of 23.22 for the language class, while the left branch displays pre-test scores of the culture class and the literature class as 17.78 and 19.48 respectively. In Appendix D.5 modeling the change on this measure from post-test to pre-test (DSTME),
the tree reveals that even though the language class had the highest social acceptance
score initially, this score dropped the most, as evidenced by a negative change of -0.3889.
The literature class's score also dropped, but at a lesser degree of -0.1724. Only the
culture class, whose positive score of 2.5700 is revealed at the end of the right branch of
the tree, increased in social acceptance of individuals from the Middle East slightly. The
difference between the three classrooms, especially on the SDISTME measure, was
statistically significant in both the Kruskal-Wallis and ANOVA tests, whose p-values
were .0121 and .0341 respectively.

The effect of class membership on the variables of DK and DIFFAR was equally
present regardless of whether other covariates, hypothesized to influence these variables,
were included in the regression trees. The significance of class membership in
conjunction with other socio-cultural variables is displayed in Appendices D.6, D.7, D.8,
and D.9.

In Appendices D.6 and D.7, two regression trees show that class membership
ranks highest among all other variables hypothesized to predict change in knowledge
about the Arab world and change in attitudes towards Arabs respectively. In modeling
the relationship between class membership and other covariates, each branch of the tree
identifies a binary cut as part of a multivariate combination of variables that define a
stratum of students that is homogeneous with respect to class membership. The higher a
variable is placed in the tree, the more effective is the variable in identifying class
membership. As one proceeds down from the root of the tree through each successive
sub-level or branch, the dataset is split into increasingly smaller number of groups until
all the data are accounted for. At the lower branches or leaves of the tree, strata that are
made up of smaller groups are less reliable. These later binary cuts are apt to represent
noise rather than systematic trends in the data. Thus cuts that result in subgroups of less
than ten in size are excluded from analysis. Of course any cuts that results in subgroups of greater than ten in number are still reliable to report.

In Appendices D.6 and D.7, the regression trees modeling change-in-knowledge about the Arab world and change in attitudes towards Arabs reveal the ranking of variables hypothesized to influence both DK and DIFFAR. In both trees, class membership ranks highest and splits the data into two branches whereby the scores for DK and DIFFAR for the language and literature class are displayed down the left branch of the tree, and the DK and DIFFAR scores for the culture class are displayed down the right branch of the tree. An analysis of the leaves at the end of the left branches reveals a clustering of scores, which for the DK measure tends to show less change in knowledge or negative change in knowledge for the language and literature classes (with scores ranging from -.04 to 9.375). These scores contrast with higher amounts of change in knowledge for the culture class (with scores ranging from 5.751 to 19.14) at the end of the right branches. The DIFFAR regression tree shows a similar pattern in the data. Scores for the language and literature classes (ranging from -15.290 to 7.444) are either more negative or less positive on this measure in contrast to the culture class that exhibits lower negative scores or higher positive scores (ranging from -6.2 to 28.17).

Each regression tree in Appendices D.6 and D.7 also shows how other socio-cultural variables rank in comparison with class membership to predict DK and DIFFAR. In Appendix D.6, the variable of FEDU (future anticipatory selection of Arabic language, literature or culture classes at the college level) ranked second in predicting scores for language and literature students on the DK variable, while the variables of ETH (ethnicity) and YRL2 (number of years of L2 study) ranked third. For the culture class, sex (a = female or b = male) ranked second to predict the DK variable, and ETH and
PREDCOL (number of previous courses related to study of Arabic or the Arab world) ranked third.

For the language and literature students, it is significant to note that those students who do anticipate taking more courses because of a minor or major in Arabic studies or because of an interest in a related field of study, such as Islamic history or International Studies (categories c, d, and e of the FEDU variable) had negative or small DK scores. Those who do not want to take any more courses or maybe one course only (categories a and b of the FEDU variable) had larger DK scores among this sub-group. This trend parallels the trend in the Arabic language class as a whole, that because such students may have more knowledge about the Arab world to begin with (and thus previous exposure confirms their desire to continue in this field of study), their knowledge scores change the least. They contrast other students who have little previous exposure to the Arab world (those in categories a and b), and thus such students experience a great deal of increase in knowledge.

In Appendix D.7 measuring the variable of DIFFAR in relation to other socio-cultural variables, ethnicity for the language and literature students and for the culture students ranked second behind class membership. For the language and literature students, class membership in either the language class or the literature class in combination with ages < or > 21.5 ranked third in predicting either significantly negative changes in attitudes toward Arabs (the language class) or some positive changes in attitudes towards Arabs (those students younger than 21). Ethnicity appears to be a better predictor of change in attitudes at both the second and third levels, because the number of students in the language and literature classes where ethnicity is a factor is higher than in the other sub-groups (n = 23 for the third level).
For the culture students, ethnicity is also a strong predictor of significant positive change in attitudes toward Arabs, as evidenced by its presence at the second level and at the fifth level. At the fourth and fifth levels, sex followed by ethnicity predicts change in attitudes toward Arabs that range from negative to moderately positive. American males of various European ethnic backgrounds exhibit either negative change in attitudes or small amounts of positive change in attitudes. American females of European, Arab, and Asian ethnic backgrounds reflect moderate positive change in attitudes. At the third level, the variable of L2, which measures the number of previous foreign languages studied as either $< 1.5$ or $> 1.5$ in number, defines the split between high and low positive change in attitude scores. To summarize, the regression tree at this level predicts that American culture students of African or Spanish ethnic backgrounds manifest the highest positive change in attitude score of 28.17 when compared with American culture students of various ethnic backgrounds who have studied more than one foreign language (22.5). Since the number of persons in these two subclasses are moderately small, however ($n = 5$ and $n = 6$), the reliability of L2 in combination with ethnicity to predict high DK scores in future studies is somewhat tenuous.

In Appendices D.8 and D.9, two regression trees model the interaction of class membership in conjunction with a series of socio-cultural and academic background variables that function to predict both levels of attained knowledge about the Arab world (KP) and change in level of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East (DSTME). In Appendix D.8, the regression tree models how PREDLOC (number of collegiate courses taken about the Middle East), class membership, FEDU, ethnicity, and YRL2 (number of years of L2 study) function to predict KP scores at various levels. The regression tree in Appendix D.9 confirms the weight of these same variables of ethnicity,
age, YRL2, FEDU, class membership, and sex at various levels to predict DSTME scores.

Briefly, in the regression tree found in Appendix D.8, PREDCOL splits the dataset into two main branches of class and FEDU to predict KP scores. Down the left branch of the tree, the lower KP scores reflect membership in the literature class, further subdivided according to sex (n = 14 for females and n = 10 for males), ethnicity, and age. Down the right side of the left branch of the tree, mid-range KP scores reflect membership in the language and culture classes, further sub-divided according to ethnicity (at level three and at level five), and YRL2 (at level four and at level 6). Down the right branch of the tree, students with the highest KP scores are those who have had some college-level courses on the Middle East (PREDCOL > .5 at the first level and PREDCOL either < or > 4 at the fourth level). They contrast with students whose KP scores are lower and who have had no college-level courses on the Middle East. The weight of the variable of FEDU at level two also suggests that the majority of these students anticipate taking more course work on the Middle East to either satisfy a minor or a major in Arabic studies, or because of their interest in a related field of study, such as Islamic history or International Studies. Some of these students anticipate taking no more courses or possibly only one more course on the Middle East. Ethnicity further sub-divides the students into their respective scores at the third level.

Looking at the tree as a whole, the model suggests that the combination of class membership in conjunction with one’s age, sex, ethnicity, and possibly number of years of previous L2 study predicts how much knowledge students will gain as a result of attending an Arabic language, culture, or literature class. Those in the literature class score lowest, while those in the culture and language class score in the middle. Those students who have the highest KP score appear to do so because the study of Arabic
language, literature or culture is probably not a new subject matter for them. They know more about the Arab world from previous studies at the collegiate level, and reflect this higher level of attained knowledge when compared to those students, especially the literature students, who most likely are being exposed to knowledge about the Arab world for the first time. The majority of the Arabic language and culture students are similar to the literature students in this regard, but the Arabic language and culture students' scores appear to be higher not because of the effect of class membership in conjunction with sex and ethnicity, as was found with the literature students, but because of class membership in combination with ethnicity and number of years of previous foreign language study.

To conclude this section of the results of the study, the regression tree found in Appendix D.10 summarizes the overall effects of the teaching of Arabic culture across the three levels of classroom. The tree models not only which variables are the strongest predictors of class membership, but also how each classroom differs in relation to these variables. Scores on the DK variable and the KP variable are the strongest predictors of class membership for all three classrooms. For the majority of the literature and language students, scores on the SDISTME and DSTME variables also function to predict class membership, albeit in secondary importance to the variables of DK and KP.

The tree as a whole shows that the classes can be ranked according to gains in culture knowledge, as evidenced by the presence of the DK variable at the first and second levels for the culture class, at the first and fifth levels for the language class, and at the first and third levels for the literature class. The variable KP further subdivides the language and the literature students into their respective classes, and the culture students into their respective class. It is clear from the first binary cut of the tree that students who have gains in cultural knowledge > 9.5 generally fall into the culture class, while students who have gains < 9.5 in cultural knowledge fall into the literature and language class.
Students with KP scores < 20.5 fall into the literature class generally, and students with KP scores > 20.5 fall into the language class generally. Literature students can be further sub-divided according to scores on SDISTME of < or > 14, while language students can be further sub-divided according to scores on DSTME of < or > 0.5. A few culture students have KP scores > 9.5, but < 25, as evidenced by the binary cuts in the left branch of the tree; but the majority of culture students have DK scores > 9.5 or KP scores > 20, as evidenced by the right branch of the tree.

This tree confirms that those students who enroll in the culture class probably will have medium to high gains in cultural knowledge (KP), but change the most in what they know at the end of the class about the Arab world in light of what they knew at the beginning of the class (DK). Language and literature students as a whole increased in their knowledge about the Arab world too (KP), but to a lesser degree, since their change-in-knowledge scores were lower than the culture students (DK). Initial levels of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East (SDISTME) further predict class membership for some literature students, while change in acceptance of individuals from the Middle East (DSTME) further predict class membership for language students.

To summarize phase one of the study, both the classification and regression trees confirm the effect of the teaching of culture across the three sets of classroom. The variables of DK and KP, both independently and in conjunction with background and academic variables, specifically define the effect of each classroom on attitudes toward Arabs and levels of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East. From the classification trees, one sees that class membership via DK and KP is particularly important in predicting changes in attitudes toward Arabs that are predominantly negative for Arabic language students and predominantly positive for Arabic literature and culture students. The regression trees also confirm the primary effect of class membership in
relation to changes in attitudes, and additionally confirm the importance of other background and academic variables--such as age, sex, ethnicity, previous number of foreign languages studied, number of years of L2 study, previous collegiate courses on the Middle East, and future anticipated course work related to the Arab world--to predict change in attitudes toward Arabs.

Class membership plays less of a major role, however, in predicting change in level of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East. The regression trees show that two combinations of background variables equally predict change in level of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East. These two combinations are the effect of ethnicity in conjunction with age, class membership, sex, YRL2 and the effect of ethnicity in conjunction with FEDU, sex, YRL2 and class membership. The classification trees reveal nevertheless that students enrolled in the language class had the highest initial level of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East and that students enrolled in the literature class had the lowest level of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East. Students in the language class, however, dropped the most from pre-test to post-test on this measure that resulted in a negative change in their level of acceptance.

**Phase two of the study:**

Part A (The effect of culture teaching in relation to nationality, class membership, and any other socio-cultural variables hypothesized to influence student attitudes and perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world and of Americans and the United States)

While phase one of the study investigated the effect of the teaching of culture across the three levels of classroom, phase two looked at effect of class membership in relation to students’ nationality and any other socio-cultural or background variables
hypothesized to influence student attitudes and perceptions. The three research questions that guided this portion of the study were designed to test the hypothesis that Arabic culture study through the medium of its language, literature, and culture may not only impact upon students attitudes and perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world, but also impact upon student attitudes and perceptions of themselves as a consequence of foreign language, literature, or culture study. Thus research questions four, five, and, six focused upon the effect of culture study upon attitudes toward Arabs and the Arab world and attitudes toward Americans and the United States in relation to ones own nationality. Research questions four and five specifically looked at how native Arabic speakers’ study of their own language, literature, and culture affects their attitudes and perceptions of themselves and of Americans and the United States. Research question six looked at how the impact of culture teaching in Arabic language, literature, and culture classrooms affects attitudes and perceptions of oneself in relation to foreign peoples and cultures.

In answering these three research questions, it was found that the number of native Arabic speakers who actually grew up in the Arab world and whose first language was Arabic tended to be quite low (n = 8). Any results about this sub-sample, although valid for this study, are not generalizable to future investigations concerning the impact of Arabic culture teaching upon native Arabic students’ attitudes and perceptions of themselves and the Arab world. Due to this limitation, it was decided to include students of all nationalities in the analysis of questions four and five, and to look at the interaction of both nationality and class membership simultaneously. This approach, essentially the focus of research question six, seemed to be the most parsimonious given the circumstances, especially in light of the fact that phase one revealed that class membership does impact directly upon student gains in cultural knowledge (DK) and
changes in attitudes toward Arabs (DIFFAR), whose differences were found to be statistically significant.

The goal of part A of phase two, therefore, was to discover whether the variable of nationality alone predicts student attitudes and perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world (taking into account the smaller sample size of native-Arabic speakers, which, after analysis, was found to be the same size as that of Arab-American students \([n = 8]\)), or whether class membership is a stronger predictor of attitudes and perceptions, despite ones nationality. By the same type of analysis, one can evaluate whether study of a foreign language, literature, or culture impacts upon attitudes and perceptions of ones self or ones own indigenous community, either as a result of nationality or class, or as a result of the interaction between class membership and nationality, which may or may not prove to be statistically significant. Thus in answering part A of phase two, the crux of the analysis centered upon the hypothesis presented in question six, that the effect of nationality in conjunction with class membership may or may not impact upon attitudes and perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world both in relation to self perception and in relation to perception of foreign peoples and cultures, which can only be determined after accounting for the effects of class membership in conjunction with nationality.

The variables used in this section of the study included class membership, nationality, initial student perceptions of self (SDIFFS), change in perception of self (DIFFPS), initial student attitudes toward Arabs (SDIFFA), change in attitudes towards Arabs (DIFFAR), initial student attitudes toward Americans (DIFFAM), change in attitudes toward Americans (DIFFAM), initial level of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East (SDISTME), difference in level of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East (DISTME), initial level of acceptance of individuals from the US (SDISTUS), and change in level of acceptance of individuals from the US (DSTUS).
Nationality was divided into four levels of Arabs, Arab-Americans, International, and American students. Class had three levels of language, literature, and culture.

There were five significant findings that answer research questions four, five, and six. These are that

1. Nationality is a stronger predictor than class of perceptions of self and change in perceptions of self, especially for Arabs and Arab-Americans, even when other covariates are included in the regression trees.

2. Nationality followed by class are strong predictors of initial attitudes toward Arabs, especially for Arabs and Arab-Americans; but class remains the strongest predictor of change in attitudes toward Arabs, regardless of nationality, except possibly for Arabs and Arab-Americans, who experienced negative change in attitudes, regardless of class membership.

3. Class is a stronger predictor than nationality of initial attitudes toward Americans for Arab-American, International, and American students, even when other covariates are included in the regression trees. Nationality is a stronger predictor of initial attitudes toward Americans for Arabs than class. Class, however, remains a stronger predictor than nationality of change in attitudes toward Americans, even when other covariates are included in the regression trees.

4. The interaction of nationality and class is statistically significant for Arab literature students on both the initial measure of level of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East and on its difference measure. Arab literature students had the most positive change on this measure in relation to other classes and other nationalities.
5. Both nationality and the interaction between nationality and class are statistically significant for Arab literature students on both the initial measure of level of acceptance of individuals from the US and on its difference measure. Arab literature students again had the most positive change on this measure in relation to other classes and other nationalities.

Finding number one

In Appendices E.1 and E.2, two regression trees display how nationality out ranks class membership to predict student initial perceptions of self (SDIFFS) and changes in perception of self (DIFFPS). The Kruskall-Wallis test also revealed that the difference between the nationalities in relation to SDIFFS was statistically significant at p-value = .047, with Arabs being the highest on the variable of SDIFFS. In Appendix E.1, the tree models how nationality and class function to predict mean scores on SDIFFS. At the root of the tree, Arabs and Arab-Americans are split off from the other two nationalities. Their mean scores are displayed down the right branch of the tree, further sub-divided according to class. Arab and Arab-American students had the highest scores on SDIFFS across all levels of class. Arab and Arab-American literature students had a mean score of 109.10, Arab and Arab-American language students had a mean score of 121, and Arab and Arab-American culture students had a mean score of 124.20.

SDIFFS scores for American and International students are displayed down the left branch of the tree, whose composite scores are further sub-divided according to class and nationality. The tree shows that International culture and American culture students had the lowest mean scores of 94.57 and 107.80 respectively; while American language, American literature, and International language and literature students had medium range scores of 109.10, 110.80, and 114.80 respectively.
In modeling change in perceptions of self found in Appendix E.2, the tree reveals that nationality again outranks class membership to predict DIFFPS. In this second tree, the left branch displays means scores of American students further subdivided according to class. American language students have the most negative change in perceptions of self (-2.688), followed by American culture and American literature students, who have only slightly negative change in perceptions of self (-.591 and -.411). Down the right branch of the tree, International, Arab, and Arab-American students are also sub-divided according to class and nationality. Language and literature students fall into the left side of the right branch, while culture students fall into the right side of the left branch. Overall, International language and literature students had the most negative change in perception of self (-8.000), while their Arab and Arab-American language and literature counter-parts had slightly positive change in perception of self (.0857 and 3.167 respectively). Arab-American culture and International culture students had the highest positive change in perception of self, with scores of 3.000 and 12.710 respectively.

The composite of scores on both the SDIFFS and the DIFFPS measures show systematic structure within the data best predicted by nationality followed by class membership. For Arabs and Arab-Americans, for example, their nationality predicts high initial SDIFFS scores and positive change on DIFFPS, regardless of class. For Americans, their scores on the SDIFFS measure cluster within the mid-range, regardless of class. As a group, they also experienced negative change in perception of self (although only slightly negative), regardless of class. For International students, however, there does seem to be a disparity of scores clustered according to class. On the SDIFFS measure, for example, International culture students scored lowest (94.57), but International language and literature students scored very high (114.80), only to be out-
scored by Arab and Arab-American language and Arab and American literature students, who had mean scores of 121 and 124. International students’ mean scores on the DIFFPS measure showed the most disparity of scores clustered according to class. The language and literature students experienced the most negative change in perception of self among all nationalities (-8.00), but their culture counter-parts experienced the most positive change in perceptions of self among all nationalities (12.71). Thus, attendance in an Arabic language, Arabic literature, or Arabic culture class may possibly affect International students’ perception of self and change in perception of self.

In Appendices E.3 and E.4, the regression trees confirm that nationality out ranks class membership on SDIFFS and DIFFPS, even when other covariates are included in the analysis. In the regression tree found in Appendix E.3, nationality predicts mean scores on SDIFFS at level three, while class membership predicts mean scores at levels five and six. Overall, mean scores on SDIFFS are best predicted by the variable of FEDU. Those students who anticipate taking no more courses on the Arab world and those students who anticipate completing a minor or major in Arabic studies have high composite mean scores ranging from 106.60 to 122.30, further sub-divided according to ethnicity and age. They contrast with those students who anticipate taking only one more class or other courses within Arabic studies because of interests in related fields of study. Among this second category of students, mean scores range from a low of 94 to a high of 124. FEDU in combination with ethnicity, nationality, YRL2, PREDCOL, sex, class, and possibly age and ethnicity at the lower levels, predict the range of these scores.

In Appendix E.4, the regression tree modeling the breakdown of mean scores on DIFFPS reveals a similar ranking of variables as that which was found in the regression tree modeling SDIFFS (Appendix E.3). Once again, FEDU is the best predictor of mean scores, followed by age, nationality, class and sex, and possibly L2, PREDCOL, sex, and
YRL2 at the lower levels. Students who anticipate taking no more courses related to the Arab world or who anticipate completing a minor in Arabic studies contrast with all other students who either anticipate taking one more course, anticipate completing a major in Arabic studies or anticipate taking more courses because of interests in related fields of study. Age of either < 21.5 or > 21.5 functions to predict overall negative or positive change in perception of self. The younger a student is, the more negative is their change in perceptions of self. American and Arab language students < 21.5 years of age also exhibit negative changes in perception of self; but they contrast with International and Arab-American students similar in age who have high positive change in perceptions of self. International and Arab-American males have the highest positive change in perception of self (24.6), while females < 22.5 years of age have the most negative change in perception of self (-15.20). Nationality, however, out ranks class in predicting either positive or negative changes in perception of self.

Finding number two

In analyzing the ranking of nationality in relation to class to predict initial attitudes toward Arabs, it is not surprising to find that Arabs and Arab-Americans have the highest initial scores on attitudes toward Arabs as a result of their nationality and ethnic affiliation with the Arab world. What is surprising, however, is that Arabs and Arab-Americans as a whole experienced the most negative change in attitudes toward Arabs, regardless if they were in enrolled in an Arabic language, Arabic literature, or Arabic culture class. This finding suggests that their nationality or ethnicity in conjunction with other socio-cultural variables may best predict their negative change in attitudes. Class membership for American and International students, however, is a stronger predictor of change in attitudes toward Arabs, which clearly shows up in the
regression trees. As was discovered in phase one, students enrolled in the language class had high positive initial attitudes toward Arabs, but experienced the most negative change in attitudes toward Arabs as a result of class membership. Similarly, students enrolled in the culture class had low to medium initial attitudes toward Arabs, but experienced the highest positive change in attitudes toward Arabs.

In Appendices E.5 and E.6, the ranking of nationality and class in predicting SDIFFA and DIFFAR is displayed in two regression trees that show how class membership influences attitudes toward Arabs. The Kruskall-Wallis and ANOVA tests revealed that the differences among the scores on the SDIFFA variable were highly statistically significant in relation to both nationality and class, but not on their interaction. The Kruskall-Wallis p-value for nationality equaled zero, while the Kruskall-Wallis p-value for class was < .015. The ANOVA p-value for class was < .016. On the DIFFAR variable, p-values for class were also highly statistically significant on the Kruskall-Wallis and ANOVA tests, with p-values < .0024 and < .0026 respectively.

In the regression tree found in Appendix E.5, this tree models how Arab and Arab-Americans differ from American and International students on the variable of SDIFFA in relation to nationality and class. Arab and Arab-American mean scores are displayed down the right branch of the tree, while American and International student mean scores are displayed down the left branch of the tree. Arab and Arab-American language, literature, and culture students had more homogeneous scores of 113 and 116. American and International student scores, however, clearly cluster according to class. International culture students had the lowest score of 79.86; American culture students had the next higher score of 86.33; American and International literature students had the next higher score of 90.72; and American and International language students had the next higher score of 96.26.
In the regression tree found in Appendix E.7, this tree models student mean scores on DIFFAR most often predicted by class followed by nationality. Culture students’ mean scores are displayed down the right branch of the tree, while language and literature students’ mean scores are displayed down the left branch of the tree. Arab culture students exhibit negative change in attitudes (-2.6); American culture students exhibit positive change in attitudes (8.42); and International culture students exhibit the most positive change in attitudes (15.00). In the left side of the regression tree, class membership divides the rest of the students into their respective language and literature classes, further sub-divided according to nationality. American, International and Arab language students manifest the most negative change in attitudes (-5.30), while their Arab-American counter-parts exhibit barely positive change in attitudes (.60). Among the literature students, International, Arab, and Arab-American students manifest slight negative change in attitudes (-1.70), while their American counter-parts exhibit slightly positive change in attitudes (2.78).

Analysis of the composite measures as a whole on the variables of SDIFFA and DIFFAR suggests that Arabs and some Arab-Americans experience negative change in attitudes toward Arabs despite class membership and high initial scores on attitudes toward Arabs. Although the interaction between class and nationality was not statistically significant on these measures, the influence of class on these nationalities may still be present nevertheless, albeit independent of nationality, as confirmed by the Kruskall-Wallis and ANOVA tests. It may be that for Arab and Arab-American language students, attendance in an Arabic language class serves to intensify the downward trend of negativity that is also experienced across all levels of class. This observation is supported by the fact that among all three classrooms, the most negative change in attitudes toward Arabs occurred in the language classroom. Some Arabs and Arab-
Americans then, may be experiencing the similar effect of class membership upon their attitudes, making them analogous to their American and International counter-parts in the study of a foreign language. Possibly this effect is language anxiety associated with FL learning that causes a negative change in attitudes, as suggested by previous studies in SLA. For some Arabs and Arab-Americans then, although they may be fluent in a colloquial version of Arabic, study of Modern Standard Arabic may present them with certain linguistic challenges because of the grammatical and socio-linguistic differences between Modern Standard Arabic and colloquial Arabic. The challenges faced by Arabs and Arab-Americans in studying Modern Standard Arabic, therefore, may be a fruitful area for future research.

Finding number three

The general pattern of results summarized in finding number two suggested that class out ranks nationality in predicting attitudes toward Arabs, except possibly for Arabs and Arab-Americans, who may be affected by both nationality and class membership separately. In defining the effect of class and nationality in relation to attitudes toward Americans, class again was the better predictor than nationality of initial attitudes toward Americans and change in attitudes toward Americans, even when other covariates were included in the analysis. Arabs, however, remained consistent in that their nationality out ranked class in predicting initial attitudes. But this effect of nationality did not hold true for Arabs on their change in attitudes toward Americans. Class membership, therefore, remained the stronger predictor overall for change in attitudes toward Americans.

In the regression trees found in Appendices E.7 and E.8, these two trees model the ranking of nationality and class in predicting student mean scores on SDIFFAM and DIFFAM. On the SDIFFAM variable, nationality out ranks class to predict Arab mean
scores, but class out ranks nationality to predict all the other scores. In the regression tree found in Appendix E.8, however, class clearly out ranks nationality to predict student mean scores on DIFFAM.

In Appendix E.7, the primary effect of Arab nationality on the variable of SDIFFAM is demonstrated by the first binary cut of the regression tree that splits Arabs off from all other nationalities. Their mean score of 103.90 is displayed down the right branch of the tree, while the mean scores for American, International, and Arab-American students (ranging from 84.75 to 100.70) are displayed down the left branch of the tree. American, International, and Arab-Americans students are then primarily sub-divided according to class. Scores for culture and language students are displayed down the left side of the left branch (ranging from 84.75 to 91.58), while scores for literature students are displayed down the right side of the left branch. Literature students are further sub-divided into American literature students and International and Arab-American literature students. Their scores on the SDIFFAM variable are 92.38 and 100.70 respectively.

In contrast to the scores for literature students, scores for culture and language students cluster according to both nationality and class. International culture and International language scores combine to produce a composite score of 84.75. Language students cluster to produce two sets of scores consisting of 87.82 for American language students and 90.20 for Arab-American students. American and Arab-American culture students cluster to produce a composite score of 91.58. Although the difference between these scores for all nationalities and each class was not found to be statistically significant, the regression tree clearly shows that Arabs out rank all other nationalities in their initial composite score of attitudes toward Americans. The structure found in the tree suggests that nationality outweighs class in predicting the SDIFFAM variable for
Arabs, whereas class outweighs nationality in predicting the SDIFFAM variable for all other students.

In the regression tree found in Appendix E.8, this tree demonstrates that class is a better predictor than nationality of student mean scores on DIFFAM. Class was also a strong predictor of DIFFAM when other covariates are included in the analysis. The tree shows that among the three classes, language students had either negative (-3.44) or slightly positive (1.71) change in attitudes toward Americans. They contrast with culture and literature students who have positive change in attitudes toward Americans, whose scores range from 2.55 to 8.33. What is interesting in this regression tree is that both American and Arab language students experience negative change in attitudes toward Americans (-3.44), while their International and Arab-American counter-parts have low positive change resulting in almost no change in attitudes toward Americans (1.74). Among the culture and literature students, however, American, Arab and, Arab-American students cluster together in contrast to International students who cluster separately. Moreover, International culture and International literature students have the most positive change in attitudes toward Americans (8.33), while their American, Arab, and Arab-American culture and literature counter-parts have basically the same positive change in attitudes toward Americans (2.55 and 2.89).

Although the differences between the classes and nationalities were not statistically significant on this measure, the pattern in the regression tree suggests that membership in an Arabic language class negatively affects attitudes, regardless if one is a member of the target culture group (Arab) or not (American). For international students whose nationality or ethnicity is neither Arab nor American, however, Arabic language study has little effect upon change in attitudes toward Americans; but Arabic culture and Arabic literature study for International students has a significantly positive effect on
their change in attitudes toward Americans. This effect may be the result of their status as International students, or the impact of culture teaching within the culture and literature classroom in combination with other socio-cultural variables that also predict change in attitudes toward Americans (see below, Appendix E.9).

The affect of class membership on the DIFFAM variable appears to hold strong even when other covariates are included in the analysis. In the regression tree found in Appendix E.9, for example, even though the variables of FEDU and age are the strongest predictors of change in attitudes toward Americans, class still plays a viable role in the regression equation, as evidenced by its presence at the third and fifth levels. At level three, for example, the variable of class functions to divide students who are < 23.5 years of age into language students on the one hand and culture and literature students on the other hand. Language students in particular who have had hardly any course work on the Arab world either in college (PREDCOL < 2.5) or in high school (PREDHS < .5) experience either the most negative change in attitudes (-18) or not much change in attitudes toward Americans either way (-1.6 and 2.0). They contrast with culture and literature students whose scores on DIFFAM range from -9.0 to 8.8.

Overall, the tree suggests that older students (age > 23.5) have the most positive change in attitudes toward Americans (16.2), while Arabic language students < 23.5 years of age with little previous academic exposure to the Arab world have the most negative change in attitudes toward Americans (-18). Both sets of students are alike in that they anticipate taking no more courses in Arabic studies or some courses because of an Arabic studies minor or interest in a related field of study (FEDU a, b, c, and e). The reason why students who fall into the category of FEDU d (those who anticipate completing a major in Arabic studies) have a higher negative change in attitudes toward Americans (-16) in relation to all other students is difficult to explain.
Findings number four and five

As summarized in findings one, two, and three, class appears overall to be a stronger predictor of attitudes and perception of self for American students, whereas nationality is a stronger predictor than class on some measures for Arab, Arab-American, and International students. On measures taken from the social distance scale, however, the interaction between class and nationality defines best the effect of culture teaching, especially for Arab literature students, whose scores on both the SDISTME and SDISTUS variables were the lowest initially, but highest in relation to all other students on the difference measures. For other students, differences on scores measuring the variables of SDISTUS and SDISTME in relation to class and nationality were also statistically significant.

In Appendices E.10 and E.11, two sets of four box plots exhibit student initial mean scores on the variables of SDISTUS and SDISTME broken down according to class and nationality. Class has three levels (Lan., Lit., and Cul.), while nationality has four levels (1 = American, 2 = International, 3 = Arab, and 4 = Arab-American). In each set of the four box plots, the box labeled Lit.3 reflects statistically significant lower scores on SDISTME and SDISTUS for Arab literature students in relation to all other combinations. For the variable of SDISTME in particular, the two-way ANOVA confirmed that the interaction between class and nationality was statistically significant at a p-value = to .027. The Kruskall-Wallis test similarly showed that the difference between the SDISTME scores in relation to nationality approaches significance at a p-value = to .071. The Kruskall-Wallis and ANOVA tests confirmed that the difference between the SDISTME scores in relation to class is statistically significant at p-values = to .012 and .034 respectively.
When looking at the interaction between nationality and class in relation to scores on the variable of SDISTUS, the two-way ANOVA confirmed that this interaction was highly statistically significant at a p-value = to .0000. The fourth box plot found in Appendix E.10 shows that Arab literature students (Lit.3) scored the lowest. The Kruskall-Wallis and ANOVA tests similarly revealed that the difference between scores on SDISTUS in relation to nationality was statistically significant at p-values = to .021 and .008 respectively. A brief look at the regression tree modeling the ranking of nationality in relation to class on this measure (Appendix E.14) shows that International literature students are like their Arab literature counter-parts. Both display a low level of acceptance of individuals from the United States (15.33).

When looking at the change in level of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East and the United States, Arab literature students again differ from other nationalities and classes. They experienced the highest positive change in level of acceptance, as displayed in Appendices E.12 and E.13 that exhibit box plots for all combinations of nationality and class in relation to scores on the DSTME and DSTUS variables. The interactions between nationality and class on the two-way ANOVA for these measures were statistically significant at a p-value = to .022 for the variable of DSTME, and at a p-value = to .0000 for the DSTUS variable. There were no statistically significant differences on the measures of DSTME and DSTUS in relation to nationality or class membership. This finding suggests that for all other students, other academic or sociocultural variables are stronger predictors for change in level of acceptance than nationality or class membership, or the interaction of nationality and class membership.

In designing this study, a third measure was used to elicit student perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world that was separate from the attitude measures and social-distance-scale measures. The results of this measure is particularly important to report
here, because it demonstrates how sex as a background variable may also function to predict change in student perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world.

In this third measure, students were asked to write down those associations that came to their minds when reading a list of ten terms representative of Arab peoples, Islam, and certain lifestyles and events affiliated with the Middle East. This measure was used to analyze whether the associations students selected were either predominantly positive or negative, or whether their perceptions changed in either direction when asked to write down their associations again for each term on the post-test.

Among the ten terms and their elicited responses, Pearson chi-square tests of independence revealed that the change in these responses was statistically significant for the terms of “Middle East”, “Arab children”, and “Arab women,” specifically in relation to the variables of sex and nationality. On the first term, “Middle East,” (whose p-value = .0124), Arab-Americans are more positively shifted in their change of perception than any other nationality. Change in female responses on the “Middle East” was also more positively shifted than the distribution of male scores. On the second term, “Arab children,” (whose p-value = .0000), change in female responses was more positively shifted than the distribution of male scores. And on the third term, “Arab women,” (whose p-value = .025), change in female responses was more positively shifted again than the distribution of male scores. The results from this measure, then, parallel results found in phase one of the study, that females tend to have more positive change in attitudes toward Arabs than males. Nationality, moreover, may also contribute to change in perceptions of the Middle East, especially for Arab-Americans.

To summarize this section of the study, both class and nationality were found to be significant predictors of change in attitudes toward oneself, toward Arabs, and toward Americans. On the social-distance scale measures, the interaction of class and nationality
best predicts change in level of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East and from the United States. Arab literature students changed the most in their level of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East and the United States. In addition, several regression trees showed that student background and academic variables also predict change in attitudes and perception of self. Age and selection of course work on the Arab world in relation to student academic orientations (FEDU) were the strongest predictors. Sex and nationality should also be added to this list of background variables, whose importance was discovered in the third measure used to identify change in perceptions of the Arab world in relation to its lifestyles, events, and peoples.

To conclude this section of the study, the findings suggest that Arab and Arab-Americans differ from all other nationalities in relation to self-perception. For Arabs and Arab-Americans, self-perception is highest initially and changes significantly in a positive direction, regardless of whether these students attended an Arabic language, literature or culture class. For American and International students, however, study of a foreign culture serves to make them more critical of themselves, except for International culture students who have a positive change in perception of self. Americans in particular experience negative change in self-perception across all levels of class. For both International and American students, this trend in negativity is intensified by Arabic language study, because self-perception drops the most in this classroom.

The reason why Arabs and Arab-Americans differ on this measure of self-perception is probably due to the fact that study of their own culture or ethnic heritage causes them to view themselves in a more positive light. For Americans and International students, however, it is difficult to conclude why their self-perception drops. It may be related to study of a foreign language, which causes self-perception to drop the most. It may also be related to the effects of foreign culture study and the resultant
change in attitudes. As one learns more about a foreign people and their culture, one may reassess what one perceives about oneself as a result of increased knowledge about another culture.

The findings also suggest that class membership predicts best whether changes in attitudes toward Arabs and Americans become positive or negative. In the language classroom, for example, attitudes toward Arabs become negative for all students, and significantly so for Arab and Arab-American students, whose initial attitudes toward Arabs was the highest. Attitudes toward Americans become negative in the language classroom as well, especially for Arab students, whose initial attitudes toward Americans was the highest. In contrast, international and Arab-American language students experience a slight positive change in attitudes toward Americans; but this slight positive change in attitudes is much lower than the higher positive change in attitudes toward Americans they experience in the culture and literature classrooms.

In contrast to the language classroom, attitudes toward Arabs and Americans increase the most in the culture classroom. Thus, membership in the culture classroom has the opposite effect upon attitudes toward Arabs and Americans than does membership in the language class, except for Arab culture students. Arab students as a whole experienced negative change in attitudes toward themselves (Arabs), regardless of which class they were enrolled in. Moreover, their initial attitudes toward themselves, toward Arabs, and toward Americans were highest overall. Although their change in attitudes appears to be controlled by nationality, they experienced the most negative change in attitudes toward themselves (Arabs) in the language classroom. This fact supports the notion that their downward trend in negativity is intensified by membership in a language class. Arabs’ attitudes toward Americans, however, changed positively in the culture classroom, similar to what was experienced by all other nationalities.
In the literature classroom, the effect of class membership on change in attitudes is less predictable. Attitudes toward Arabs appear to be dropping for Arab, Arab-American, and International students, but attitudes toward Arabs become more positive for American students. In contrast, attitudes toward Americans become more positive regardless of nationality, and especially so for International students, who have the highest positive change in attitudes overall.

The effect of class membership and nationality upon change in level of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East and United States is also less predictable, except for Arab literature students, who had significantly low initial level of acceptance, but changed the most to outrank all nationalities and classes in their high level of acceptance. For all other nationalities, membership in the language class has a more positive effect upon change in level of acceptance of individuals from the United States. (This effect contrasts most sharply with change in Attitudes toward Americans that become predominantly negative in the language classroom.) For change in level of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East, however, neither nationality nor class membership predicts change at a level of statistical significance. The results from phase one of the study, however, suggests that change in level of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East may be a predictor of membership in the language or literature class, albeit at a lower level than the variables of DK and KP.

Phase two of the study:
Part B (The effect of motivational orientation upon students’ change in attitudes or success in foreign language and culture learning as a result of participation in an Arabic language, Arabic literature, or Arabic culture class)
In SLA research, the strength of one’s integrative motive or instrumental motive has been shown to influence FL and culture learning independent of other variables that also influence acquisition of a target language and culture. The goal of research question number seven was to discover which type of motivational orientation (integrative, instrumental or otherwise) most strongly predicts student attitudes toward Arabs and success in FL language or culture study across all levels of class and also within each class individually. In answering research question number seven, motivational orientations were looked at in relation to the DIFFAR variable, the KP variable, and student final grades to determine the effects of motivation upon attitudes toward Arabs and success in FL or culture study. Class membership and nationality were also added to the regression equations to supplement the findings made in Part A.

To select and measure the forms of motivation used in this study, students were asked to list their primary reasons for enrolling in an Arabic language, literature, or culture class. These reasons were next collated and divided into four categories that best reflected students’ primary reasons for enrolling in each of the three classes. The four categories selected to operationalize students’ primary reasons were: enrollment for socio-cultural reasons (MOT 1), to fulfill a GEC requirement (MOT 2), to gain functional use of the subject matter (MOT 3), and to facilitate work or travel (MOT 4). Scores were also collected from students measuring the strength of their integrative, instrumental, and religious or ethnic orientations for study of Arabic language, literature, or culture.

The results of phase one and part A of phase two suggested however that an additional form of motivation may also be operating to predict student gains in cultural knowledge and attitudes toward Arabs. This type of motivation, labeled an academic orientation (the FEDU variable), was discovered to be a strong or the strongest predictor of the variables of KP and DK, SDISTME and DSTME, SDIFFAM and DIFFAM, and
SDIFFA, SDISTUS, and DIFFPS when all background variables were included in the regression trees. As a result of the presence of FEDU within these trees, an exploratory regression tree was run looking at the weight of all motivational and background variables in relation to class membership.

The results of this regression tree found in Appendix F.1 revealed that the variable of FEDU was the strongest predictor of class membership in relation to all motivational and background variables hypothesized to influence selection of an Arabic language, literature, or culture class. At level two, either the variables of FEDU or ethnicity function to predict class membership. At levels three and four, ethnicity, nationality, and instrumental and integrative orientations function to predict class membership. At lower levels, integrative and instrumental orientations and MOT 3 function to predict class membership.

The presence of FEDU as the strongest predictor of class membership is not surprising since it categorizes students into reasons why they select Arabic language, literature or culture courses in relation to their overall areas of concentration at the collegiate level. A study of student motivational orientations in relation to attitudes toward Arabs and levels of success in foreign language and culture study would not be complete, then, without including this academic orientation. A second goal of part B of phase two therefore was to discover how students’ academic orientations in conjunction with MOT 1-4 and integrative and instrumental orientations function to predict attitudes toward Arabs and success in FL or culture study. Student religious or ethnic orientation for language, literature, or culture study did not predict any of the response variables.

There were four significant findings that answer research question number seven. These are that
1. Integrative motivational orientation and academic motivational orientation are the strongest predictors of attitudes toward Arabs and success in FL and culture study overall.

2. MOT 1-4 also function to predict attitudes toward Arabs and success in FL and culture study, but their weight is secondary in importance to the strengths of integrative and instrumental motivational orientations.

3. Class membership and nationality frequently replace the variable of FEDU when added to the motivation regression trees, suggesting that there may be some confounding between FEDU and these two variables, especially in relation to motivation and change in attitudes toward Arabs.

4. Instrumental orientation is the strongest predictor of attitudes toward Arabs, gains in cultural knowledge, and success in FL and culture study for students enrolled in an Arabic language class. For students enrolled in an Arabic literature or culture class, integrative orientation outranks instrumental orientation to predict change in attitudes toward Arabs and success in FL and culture study.

Motivation in relation to change in attitudes toward Arabs

In the regression tree found in Appendix F.2, the variables of FEDU, INTE (integrative orientation), INST (instrumental orientation), and nationality are used to predict change in attitudes toward Arabs. INTE is the best predictor of change in attitudes toward Arabs, followed by either the variables of FEDU or INST at level two. Different combinations of INST and INTE function to predict the DIFFAR variable at all other levels of the tree. The model suggests overall that students who strength of integrative orientation is quite low experience higher change in attitudes toward Arabs,
further sub-divided by medium levels of intensity in instrumental orientation. They contrast with all other students whose strength of integrative orientation is higher. This finding may suggest that those students who have low integrative orientation scores do so because their initial attitudes toward Arabs may be higher to begin with. At level two, the model suggests that students who enroll in Arabic courses because of a minor or major in Arabic studies have either negative or slightly positive change in attitudes toward Arabs, further sub-divided according to the intensity of their instrumental and integrative orientations. Students who have the most negative change in attitudes (-12.570) are those who appear to have some previous exposure to Arabic foreign language, literature, or culture study (because they anticipate completing either a major or minor in Arabic studies), and their instrumental orientation is lower in intensity. These students’ change in attitude scores may also be lower due to the fact that their initial attitudes toward Arabs were higher.

Students who have declared Arabic studies as their major or minor contrast with all others who anticipate taking no more courses in Arabic studies, or only one more course due to an interest in a related field of study. These students’ scores on the variable of DIFFAR range from a negative of -11.0 to a high of 20.4. Students who have the most negative change in attitudes in this category (-11.0) are those with an instrumental score of < 24.5, but with an INTE score of > 28.5 and < 30.5, suggesting a high level of integrative orientation. They contrast with students who have the highest positive change in attitudes (20.4), whose intensity of integrative orientation is > 18.5, but < 22.5. Their instrumental orientation is also > 20.5. Once again, students with lower integrative scores perceive Arabs more positively, while those with higher integrative scores perceive Arabs more negatively. Their instrumental scores of either > 20.5 or < 24.5 may also predict positive or negative change in attitudes.
When the variable of class membership is added to the motivation regression tree (Appendix F.3), class is the strongest predictor of DIFFAR (as was found in phase one), followed by integrative orientation. Moreover, the variable of FEDU is replaced by the variables of nationality and class at levels three and four of the regression tree, suggesting that there may be some confounding between this academic orientation and class and nationality. The reason why class would replace FEDU is not difficult to understand, since FEDU was found to be the strongest predictor of class membership, and class membership was also found to be the strongest predictor of DIFFAR in part A. The reason why nationality replaces FEDU, however, is harder to understand, especially since the variable of FEDU was a stronger predictor than nationality and other motivational variables (see Appendix F.1). Integrative orientation, however, remains strong at level two, followed by instrumental orientation, even when class and nationality replaces FEDU.

When the variables of MOT 1-4 are included in the regression tree of motivation in relation to the variable of DIFFAR, their presence predicts certain negative and positive change in attitudes toward Arabs at levels five and six. In the regression tree found in Appendix F.3, for example, those students who are taking an Arabic language, literature, or culture class to fulfill a GEC requirement (MOT 2) and whose strength of instrumental orientation is lower (<23.5) experience the most negative change in attitudes toward Arabs (-9.429). They contrast with students who have not enrolled in these classes to fulfill a GEC requirement, whose scores range from −5.875 to 11.40. Students who are high on the variables of INST (>23.5) and enroll in classes to facilitate travel or work (MOT 4), but not for cultural reasons (MOT 1), have a significantly positive change in attitudes toward Arabs (18). They contrast with students who are taking the class to fulfill a GEC and students who anticipate no functional use of Arabic
language, literature, or culture (MOT 3). Their change in attitudes toward Arabs is negative (-9.429 and -7.125). In conclusion, the presence of MOT 1-4 at these levels suggests that those students who are functionally motivated and anticipate using their knowledge of Arabic language, literature, or culture outside the classroom will have positive change in attitudes toward Arabs in contrast to those students who enroll in these classes to merely satisfy a GEC requirement.

When looking at how integrative motivation functions to predict change in attitudes toward Arabs within each separate classroom, integrative orientation was the strongest predictor of DIFFAR at levels one and two for literature and culture students, whereas instrumental orientation was the strongest predictor of DIFFAR at level one for language students. Integrative orientation was the strongest predictor at level two, and either integrative or MOT 2 was the strongest predictor at level three for language students.

A look at the regression trees for each classroom shows the strength of a low integrative orientation to predict DIFFAR, especially for literature and culture students. In the regression tree found in Appendix F.5, integrative orientation predicts DIFFAR scores for literature students. Those students who have a low integrative orientation of < 7 and a high integrative score of > 30.5 have the highest positive change in attitudes toward Arabs. At levels three through five, those students who have an integrative score > 7 and < 30.5 and an instrumental score of < 23.5 have negative change in attitudes. In the second regression tree found in Appendix F.6 in which the variables of MOT 1-4 are added to the regression equation, MOT 1 and MOT 4 replaces integrative orientation at levels three and five. The presence of MOT 1 and MOT 4 here suggests that those students who are taking Arabic literature for either socio-cultural reasons or for travel or work will have more negative change in attitudes. In the regression tree found in
Appendix F.7, the same combination of higher integrative scores (> 9.5 and < 31) and lower instrumental scores (< 14.5 and < 20.5) predicts negative change in attitudes for culture students. Similarly, integrative scores of < 9.5 and either < or > 37.5 predict the more positive change in attitudes toward Arabs. There were no MOT variables that predict change in attitudes toward Arabs for culture students.

For Arabic language students, the combination of instrumental orientation, integrative orientation, and either MOT 1 or integrative orientation at level three predicts change in attitudes toward Arabs. In the two regression trees found in Appendices F.8 and F.9, language students whose instrumental orientation is < 24 and whose integrative orientation is > 34.5 have the most negative change in attitudes toward Arabs. In the regression tree adding the variables of MOT 1-4 to the regression equation, those students who are not taking Arabic for socio-cultural reasons also have negative change in attitudes. They contrast with students who are taking Arabic for socio-cultural reasons, and consequently have positive change in attitudes toward Arabs. Overall, instrumental orientation is the best predictor of change in attitudes toward Arabs for Arabic language students.

**Motivation in relation to gains in cultural knowledge**

In the regression trees found in Appendices F.10 and F.11, the variables of INTE, FEDU, INST, MOT 3, nationality, and class are the best predictors of gains in cultural knowledge (KP). The variable of INTE has the largest impact upon KP, followed by the variables of FEDU and nationality. Students who have integrative scores > 24.5 and who anticipate choosing Arabic studies as their major or minor have the highest gains in cultural knowledge. Arab and Arab-Americans also have high gains in cultural knowledge, even though their integrative score is lower (< 24.5). The general regression
model suggests overall that strength of one’s integrative motivation predicts higher gains in cultural knowledge. The combination of FEDU and nationality at level two also suggests that Arabic majors and Arabic minors and Arab and Arab-Americans students have higher gains in cultural knowledge because they may know more about the Arab world to begin with.

In the two regression trees that add the variables of class membership and MOT 1-4 to the regression equation (Appendices F.11 and F.12), the variables of INTE and FEDU still weigh heaviest to predict higher gains in cultural knowledge. The variables of class and MOT 3 at level two, however, replace nationality in the first regression equation to predict KP. Nationality is still a stronger predictor in these two regression equations, even though it is bumped to level 3. If one uses either class or MOT 3 at level two, nationality still confirms that Arab and Arab-American students have higher gains in KP. The presence of class at level two also suggests that Arabic culture and Arabic language students have higher gains in cultural knowledge than literature students. The presence of MOT 3 at level two similarly suggests that students who elect Arabic language, literature, or culture classes to gain functional use of the subject matter will have higher gains in cultural knowledge. Regardless if one uses nationality, class or MOT 3 at level two, the model suggests that students who score low on instrumentality at levels three, four, and five will have the least gain in KP. Thus the model as a whole suggests that the combination of lower integrative scores and lower instrumental scores predicts lower gains in cultural knowledge.

When looking at the effect of motivation upon KP in relation to each class, the interactions between INTE, FEDU, INST, and nationality to predict KP vary slightly from the overall model. In the regression tree modeling motivation in relation to Arabic literature students’ KP scores (Appendix F.13), integrative orientation best predicts KP.
followed by FEDU or INST < 20.5 at level two, and INST < 20, INTE < 13, and INTE < 7 at levels three and four. Students who anticipate completing a minor or major in Arabic studies and whose INTE measure is > 24 score the highest in relation to KP. For all other students, KP scores decrease in proportion to decreases in levels of instrumental orientation. The model as a whole indicates that higher INTE scores predict higher KP scores, while lower INTE scores in combination with decreasing levels of INST scores predict lower KP scores.

In Appendix F.14, the regression tree models motivation in relation to KP for culture students. In this regression model, FEDU best predicts KP, followed by nationality at level two, INTE < or > 32.5 at level three, INST < or > 20.5 at level four, and various combinations of INST and INTE at levels five and six. The model indicates that students who anticipate completing a major or minor in Arabic studies have the highest KP score (32), followed by Arabs and Arab-Americans (KP = 30.4). For all other students, higher scores on the variables of INTE and INST predict higher KP scores (28, 14, and 28.20), and lower scores on the variables of INST and INTE predict lower KP scores (KP ranging from 19 to 25.50). These combination of scores on INTE and INST follow the general pattern of motivation in relation to KP found in general regression equation, except for the fact that FEDU and nationality out rank INST and INTE.

In Appendix F.15, the regression tree modeling motivation in relation to KP for language students demonstrates that the variable of INST best predicts gains in cultural knowledge, followed exclusively by the variable of FEDU. The variable of INTE does not figure into the regression equation. Students whose INST score is < 20 have the lowest KP score (24.17), while students whose strength of INST is > 20 have higher KP scores. Among these higher-scoring students, students who anticipate majoring in Arabic studies have the highest KP score (33.17), followed by students who enroll in language
class because of an interest in a related field of study (KP = 31.29). Students second to last in rank in terms of KP are those who anticipate either enrolling in one more Arabic studies class, or additional Arabic studies classes because of interest in a related field of study (KP = 29.44). For language students as whole, the variable of INST is the strongest predictor of gains in cultural knowledge, as it was the strongest predictor of change in attitudes toward Arabs.

**Motivation in relation to grade**

In Appendices F.16, F.17, and F.18, three regression trees model motivation in relation to students’ final grades. Across all three models, the variable of INT is the greatest impact upon final grade. Each regression tree demonstrates overall that higher levels of INT predict higher grades, while lower levels of INT predict lower grades, particularly at levels one and two. At level three, different combinations of scores on INT and INST predict higher or lower grades, but no pattern among the various combinations of INT and INST is easily decipherable to predict whether grades will be high or low. Level three is clear, however, in demonstrating that nationality functions to predict final grades of Arab and Arab-American students that are separate from the final grades of American and International students.

When the variables of class membership and MOT 1-4 are added to the regression equation (Appendices F.16 and F.17), the strength of the variables of INT and nationality to predict final grade at levels one, two, and three do not change. The same combinations of INST and INT that predict final grades at level three also does not change. Appendix F.16 reveals, however, that when class membership is added to the regression tree, it replaces INT at level two in the left branch of the tree, and also
replaces INTE at level five in the right branch of the tree. Class membership, therefore, is just as strong as INTE to predict student final grades at level two.

When the variables of MOT 1-4 are further added to the regression equation (Appendix F.17), the strength of INTE, class, INST, and nationality to predict student final grades does not change. In turn, the variables of MOT 1, 4, and 2 are only important to predict final grades at the lower levels, specifically in relation to class membership. (Their effect upon final grades is thus best left to the proceeding discussion of motivation in relation to each individual class.) The addition of the variables of MOT 1, 2, and 4 at level six results in the elimination of the variable of FEDU from the tree altogether. This result supports the conclusion that the variable of FEDU is not a strong predictor of student final grades and should not be factored into the regression equation used to model motivation in relation to student final grades. FEDU is important, however, in predicting motivation in relation to change in attitudes toward Arabs and in relation to gains in cultural knowledge.

When the effect of motivation upon student final grades is analyzed for Arabic culture students, the regression tree found in Appendix F.19 ranks the variable of INTE highest at levels one and two, followed by the variables of INST and MOT 1 at level three. MOT 3 comes into play at level four, followed by the variables of INST and INTE at levels five and six. Larger scores on the variable of INTE predict higher final grades, especially for culture students whose INST score is < 17.5 and who are not interested in the class for socio-cultural reasons. For those culture students who do enroll in the class for socio-cultural reasons, different combinations of INTE and INST predict whether their final grades will be higher or lower. This model parallels overall the primary model used to investigate the effect of motivation upon student final grades in relation to class
membership (Appendix F.18). Nationality, however, carries no predictive weight when motivation is looked at in relation to Arabic culture students' final grades.

When the effect of motivation is looked at in relation to Arabic literature students’ final grades (Appendix F.20), MOT 2, 4, and 1 out weight the INTE variable. Those literature students who enroll in this class to fulfill a GEC requirement have the lowest final grade, while those literature students who have not enrolled in this class to fulfill a GEC requirement have the highest final grade. The presence of the variable of INTE at levels four and five further suggests that the strength of ones INTE score predicts whether one will earn an A- or B, and whether A- or B students have selected this course for either travel or work-related reasons or for socio-cultural reasons. Overall the model is a puzzle because it does not clarify which type of motivation affects students who earn a grade of 90.89. It only suggests that these students have not enrolled in the class to fulfill a GEC requirement, nor have these students enrolled in this class for either work or travel related reasons or for socio-cultural reasons.

In the regression tree modeling motivation in relation to Arabic language students’ final grades (Appendix F.21), the strength of ones instrumental orientation at levels one and three determines whether one will earn a grade of A- or a B. The model suggests overall that language students who are high on the variable of INST and who are not taking the class to fulfill a GEC requirement will earn an A-, while students who do enroll in the class to fulfill a GEC requirement will earn either an 85 or an 83. Once again the variable of INST is the strongest predictor of motivation in relation to Arabic language students’ final grades, confirming that Arabic language students are predominantly studying Arabic for instrumental reasons.

To conclude this section of the results of the study, different types of motivational orientations in various combinations predict student change in attitudes and success in FL
or culture study. For Arabic language students, instrumental orientation is the strongest predictor of change in attitudes, gains in cultural knowledge, and final class grades. The variables of FEDU, MOT 1, MGT 2, and INTE also factor into the effect of motivation upon the measures of DIFFAR, KP, and student final grades. For Arabic culture students, integrative and instrumental orientations are the strongest predictors of change in attitudes toward Arabs and student final grades, whereas the variable of FEDU is the strongest predictor of gains in cultural knowledge. The variables of MOT 1, MOT 3, and nationality also factor into the effect of motivation upon the measures of DIFFAR, KP, and student final grades. For Arabic literature students, integrative orientation is the strongest predictor of gains in cultural knowledge and change in attitudes toward Arabs, whereas MOT 1, 2, and 4 are the strongest predictors of student final grades. The variables of INST, FEDU, MOT 1, and MOT 4 also factor into the effect of motivation upon the measures of DIFFAR, KP, and student final grades.

In the general regression equations that show the effect of motivation across all levels of class, the variables of INTE, FEDU, INST, and nationality out rank the variables of MOT 1-4 to predict motivation in relation to change in attitudes toward Arabs, gains in cultural knowledge, and student final grades. In this study, the greater weight of integrative and instrumental orientations in relation to other motivational variables to predict positive change in attitudes, gains in cultural knowledge, and success in FL study confirms the hypotheses deduced from the majority of previous SLA research (see Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992). These hypotheses propose that integrative and instrumental motivations are the strongest predictors of acculturation in general and SLA in particular, especially in formal classroom settings.
The results of this study also suggest that a student’s academic orientation functions to predict not only why a student enrolls in an Arabic language, literature, or culture class, but also how a student’s academic orientation influences one's motivation to learn. In predicting class membership, for example, the FEDU variable showed that most students who enroll in Arabic language or Arabic literature classes anticipate completing either a minor or major in Arabic studies. Students who enroll in an Arabic culture class, however, do not have this academic orientation. Moreover, these students who are completing a minor or major in Arabic studies have more positive attitudes towards Arabs to begin with and experience higher gains in cultural knowledge. The strength of their integrative orientations may also function ameliorate these academic orientations.

Finally, the results of this study also demonstrate that students who enroll in an Arabic literature, language, or culture class to fulfill a GEC requirement do not perform as well as students who enroll in these classes for other reasons (such as enrollment for socio-cultural reasons, the ability to gain functional use of the subject matter, or for work or travel). The effect of MOT 2 (the GEC requirement) is particularly strong for Arabic language and Arabic literature students. For Arabic literature students, the variable of MOT 2 was the strongest predictor of final grades overall. For Arabic language students, the variable of INST was the strongest predictor of final grades at level one, followed by the variable of MOT 2 at level two, suggesting that strength of their instrumental orientation (except to fulfill a GEC requirement) best predicts achievement in FL study and gains in cultural knowledge overall.
Phase three of the study:

(Teacher perceptions of the effect of culture study upon student attitudes and perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world in relation to changes in attitudes, motivation, and success in FL or cultural study)

The goal of conducting the teacher interviews that were used in this study was to gain additional insight into the effect of culture teaching upon student attitudes and perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world in relation to change in attitudes, student motivational orientations, and success in FL or culture study. The teacher interviews were also completed to define the amount and the effect of culture learning both in relation to the classroom environment itself and in relation to the types of students who enroll in foreign language, literature, or culture study. Teacher interviews were most instructive on identifying the motivations of those students who continued in Arabic studies in contrast to those students who dropped out, and why certain students appeared to have positive change in attitudes and others did not. Teacher descriptions of the amount, methods, and philosophy used to integrate the teaching of culture within each classroom also served to explain the differential effects of culture study in relation to gains in cultural knowledge and change in attitudes toward Arabs that were summarized in phase one of the study.

The teaching of culture in Arabic foreign language, literature, and culture classrooms

In the Arabic language classes, teachers explained that culture instruction is used to supplement the teaching of the four basic skills of any foreign language–reading, writing, speaking, and listening. This approach to culture instruction is by necessity indirect rather than direct and incidental in nature. All teachers were alike in that culture
instruction is primarily achieved through the textbook itself, the use of authentic materials brought to class (whether visual or audio), and the presence of the teacher as a representative of the foreign language culture. All teachers actively looked for opportunities to include cultural instruction in their teaching of Arabic. Students overall expressed an interest in culture learning in addition to foreign language instruction; and cultural topics of most interest to them were frequently the subject matter of culture instruction in addition to what teachers formally presented to them. Culture instruction was also generated by the presence of other Arab or Arab-American students within the class, whose knowledge and experience of the Arab world supplemented what the teachers had to say about their own culture. Students who had traveled to the Arab world were also another source of cultural information. Overall, about 15% of class time was devoted to cultural instruction.

For Arabic beginning-level students (Arabic 101-103), cultural instruction consisted of primarily family life, relationship between family members, geography of the Arab world, styles of greetings, music, and Arabic calligraphy. Illustrations from Arabic magazines and newspapers, selections from children’s short stories, children’s games, and examples of Arabic calligraphy were ways teachers supplemented their instruction. Beginning-level teachers also used Sesame Street in Arabic to teach Arabic and to disseminate cultural information.

For intermediate- and advanced-level students, cultural instruction included the topic of Islam and religion in the Arab world, explanation of political and educational systems in the Arab world, and more in depth knowledge about religious holidays and cultural events. Since these students had gained a high-enough level of proficiency in the language to read authentic texts, Arabic newspapers and short stories frequently
supplemented the main text and were used to teach current events and to introduce students to Arabic literature.

At these higher levels of Arabic study, the main text (Ahlan wa Sahlan) was also a major source for information about the Arab world. Arabic culture was presented from the perspective of both Americans students studying in the Arab world and Arab students studying in America. The lives and the experiences of these students defined the themes of the text. From a cultural perspective, life in America and life in the Arab world was presented through the characters found in the text, both Arab and American. Students were thus given two cultural perspectives. They saw not only how Arab students specifically view American culture in relation to themselves, but also how American students specifically view Arab culture in relation to themselves.

In the Arabic literature class, the teacher explained that Arabic culture is taught primarily to give students the necessary background information to understand the political and social themes found in the literature and to understand the importance of Arabic poetry within Arab society as a whole. It is introduced incidentally to instruction given about the development Arabic literature in general and the development of Arabic poetry in particular. Even though cultural instruction was secondary in importance to instruction in the development of Arabic poetry from the classical to the modern period, it was primary to illustrate how the examples of literature selected for the class reflect only one Arab's view of Arab culture and society. Cultural knowledge was provided overall to aid student analysis of the various themes and allusions found within Arabic literature and to situate each author or poet within his or her own intellectual, social, or political context. About 5% of class time was devoted to cultural instruction.

In the Arabic literature classroom, cultural instruction consisted primarily of information about Arab social and political institutions and the distribution of power
within society and within the family. Information about the diversity of lifestyles, the basic elements of Islam, and the impact of colonization and subsequent Arab independence from foreign rule was also included. Cultural information was provided primarily through lectures, the use of a guest speaker (who was this researcher), and Arabic short stories and novels in translation. Student inquiries also precipitated cultural discussion. Students were also asked to reflect upon the weekly readings in a separate journal. Individual class presentations and student final papers devoted to a single Arab poet were other techniques employed by the teacher. In the journals, students summarized how they viewed Arabic poetry and literature, how they viewed Arabic literature in relation to American literature, and how study of a particular poet or poem affected them personally. The paper gave students a similar opportunity to investigate the life and work of an individual poet in depth and to situate their selected poet’s work within its larger literary, social, cultural, or political context.

In the Arabic culture classes, cultural instruction focused upon the culture of the contemporary Arab world from around 1900 (the breakup of the Ottoman Empire) to the emergence of the independent Arab states at the end of the period of colonization up to the present. Since the primary subject matter of the class was Contemporary Arabic culture, about 90% of class time was devoted to culture study, while about 10% of class time was devoted to understanding the relationship between colloquial Arabic and Modern Standard Arabic and to an introduction to Arabic literature. Although the introductory lectures of the class focused upon understanding the religious, ethnic, and historical background of Arab culture and society, the majority of the lectures focused upon Arab identity, diversity of lifestyles and religions, educational systems, family life, and music and expressive arts representative of modern Arabic culture and society. The primary goal of cultural instruction was not so much to disseminate information about
Arab political or social systems, but to give students a “feel” for the region in relation to what Arabs are experiencing today from an insider’s perspective. A second goal of cultural instruction was to emphasize a non-relativist or non-judgmental approach to culture learning, whereby students gain understanding of Arabic culture and society from a global perspective rather than from a nationalistic or ethnocentric perspective.

Cultural instruction within Arabic culture classes was achieved primarily through the use of class lectures, guest speakers, music, videos, and Arabic novels and short stories in translation. Students also read scholarly articles and chapters from works describing Arabic culture and society written by Arab sociologists, Arab anthropologists, and Arabic linguists. Students also read books and articles written by American anthropologists (like Elizabeth Fernea and Sabra Webber), who had spent a great deal of time living in the Arab world to conduct research there. The goal in the selection of these materials was to provide students with two perspectives on Arab culture and society: an Arab perspective describing Arabic culture from a native’s point of view and an American perspective describing Arabic culture from a non-native’s point of view whose experience of living in both geographical regions intermittently could be meaningfully interpreted by American culture students. The knowledge and experience of these authors who either grew up or lived in the Arab world was supplemented by the teachers’ experiences of travel, work, or study in the Arab world, and the presence of other Arab, Arab-American or American students who had similar contacts with the Arab world.

Students enrolled in Arabic culture classrooms were also asked to reflect upon the cultural instruction given to them by the completion of weekly journals and two scholarly papers that investigated one theme taken from the class at their discretion. In the completion of these journals and papers, students were instructed to comment upon the perspectives they were gaining about life in the Arab world from an academic or personal
perspective, but not from a political or nationalistic perspective. Arabic honors cultural students were also given the opportunity to investigate a theme taken class or from Arabic literary works they read in translation. In the completion of these assignments, students were encouraged to seek out fellow Arab students, Arab friends or Arab acquaintances to supplement their primary or secondary sources taken from class.

**Teacher perceptions of the effect of culture learning and FL study upon student attitudes and perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world in relation to student motivational orientations, change in attitudes, and success in FL or culture study**

Although the teachers themselves were not able to comment on how differential amounts of cultural instruction found in each separate classroom affects acquisition of a foreign language and culture separately, they were able to describe in depth how student academic orientations and attitudes toward Arabs and the Arab world affect FL and cultural study overall. Their observations parallel a significant finding summarized in phase two, part B of the study, that student academic and integrative orientations best predict gains in cultural knowledge and change in attitudes toward Arabs.

In the Arabic language and literature classrooms, teachers observed that students who are younger in age and who enroll in these classes to fulfill a GEC requirement contrast in attitudes and motivation from those students who either anticipate completing a minor or major in Arabic studies or simply drop out. Moreover, students who do especially well in Arabic 101 have specific goals in mind for studying Arabic, whether it is to be able to read the Qur’an, work in the Middle East, or major in Arabic studies. The type of their motivational orientations (whether it is integrative in nature or academic in orientation to fulfill a GEC requirement) in addition to the strength of their motivational
orientations also determines whether they will continue in Arabic foreign language study after completion of Arabic 104 or drop out of the program. Students who have Arabic-speaking friends and students who anticipate completing a major or minor in Arabic studies go on to complete Arabic 205 and to advanced-level classes in Arabic language. Students who attend Arabic culture and Arabic literature classes also for integrative reasons and not instrumental reasons (the fulfilling of a GEC requirement) also appear to be more motivated students and to do better in class.

Teachers also observed that age and nationality affect student attitudes toward Arabs and success in FL or culture study differentially. One Arabic language instructor, for example, commented on how younger learners’ attitudes toward Arabs were the most difficult to change unless such students continue to study Arabic through the intermediate level. The teacher of Arabic literature commented that even though native Arabic speakers have positive attitudes toward Arabs, they may do poorly in the class. In addition, the Arabic culture instructor commented that native Arabic speakers who enroll in the class to find out how we teach a course on Arabic culture don’t realize themselves how diverse the Arab world is, and don’t really have an advantage over other students who are not from the Arab world. They may not particularly do better than the rest of the students. Phase two of the study also revealed that even though Arab and Arab-American students have higher gains in cultural knowledge than other students, their nationality does not appear to be directly linked to student final grades or success in FL or culture study.

When asked to describe the effect of culture teaching upon student change in attitudes and perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world, Arabic language, Arabic literature, and Arabic culture instructors noticed differential effects. Some students’ perceptions of Arabs changed in a positive direction while other students’ negative
perceptions became reinforced, especially in Arabic culture and Arabic literature classrooms. Arabic language instructors did not observe two major findings summarized in phase two of the study, that change in attitudes toward Arabs and Americans becomes negative in Arabic language classrooms in contrast to change in perception of self that becomes positive.

According to teacher comments, change in attitudes appears to be linked not to the amount or percentage of class time devoted to Arabic culture instruction, or to the effect of culture study in general, but to the effect of students’ integrative and academic orientations. One language instructor was quite skeptical in concluding that Arabic cultural instruction in FL classrooms has any affect on change in attitudes at all. Teachers did observe that students who change in attitudes were positive were those students who specifically desired to know more about Arabic culture and who intended to continue on in Arabic studies. For Arabic language teachers, student academic orientations best explained the effects of integrative orientations upon positive or negative change in attitudes, while for Arabic literature and Arabic culture teachers, integrative orientations in contrast to other types of motivational orientations best explained positive or negative change in attitudes toward Arabs. These observations described above may be the teachers way of expressing another significant finding summarized in phase two, that a student’s integrative orientation functions to influence one’s academic orientations which in turn affects change in attitudes toward Arabs.

In conclusion, the effect of the teaching of culture across the three levels of class is best explained by looking at not only the amount and percentage of class time devoted to instruction in Arabic culture, but also at student academic and motivational orientations that influence gains in cultural knowledge, change in attitudes toward Arabs, and success in FL and culture study. Although it is appears from phase one of the study
and teacher descriptions of cultural instruction that amount and percentage of class time devoted to cultural instruction predicts overall gains in cultural knowledge and change in attitudes toward Arabs, student motivational and academic orientations may also function to mediate the effect of class membership, regardless of whether students learn about Arabic language, culture, and society through Arabic foreign language, literature, or culture instruction. Moreover, other background and academic variables—such as age, sex, ethnicity, nationality, number of years of L2 study, and previous education or introduction to Arabs and the Arab world in either academic or social settings—may also influence motivational orientations, gains in cultural knowledge, change in attitudes toward Arabs, and success in FL or culture study.
CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Conclusion

(The effect of cultural teaching within Arabic foreign language, Arabic literature, and Arabic culture classrooms upon student attitudes and perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world in relation to change in attitudes and perceptions, gains in cultural knowledge, motivation, and success in FL or culture study)

The results of this study suggested overall that the teaching of Arabic culture within Arabic language, Arabic literature, and Arabic culture classrooms had different effects upon student gains in cultural knowledge, change in attitudes toward Arabs and Americans, and change in perception of self in relation to both nationality and class membership. As summarized in phases one and two of the study, students in the culture class experienced the largest change in cultural knowledge and experienced the most positive change in attitudes toward Arabs and Americans, except for Arab students, who had negative change in attitudes toward Arabs. Students enrolled in the culture class also experienced positive change in perception of self, except for American students whose change in self-perception was negative regardless of class membership.

For students enrolled in the literature class, gains in cultural knowledge were lowest in comparison to all other classes. Literature students also experienced negative change in attitudes toward Arabs, except for American literature students, whose change in attitudes toward Arabs was slightly positive. Literature students overall experienced
positive change in attitudes toward Americans, but negative change in self-perception, except for Arab and Arab-American literature students, whose change in self-perception was positive.

For students enrolled in Arabic language classes, change in cultural knowledge was the least, even though these students exhibited the highest post-test score on cultural knowledge at the conclusion of the class. These students also experienced the most negative change in attitudes toward both Arabs and Americans, even though their initial attitudes toward Arabs and the Middle East were highest among all three classes. These two findings suggest that even though Arabic language students have higher initial levels of knowledge about the Arab world and positive attitudes toward Arabs, the effect of class membership (possibly through the intervening variable of language anxiety) serves to depress attitudes and perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world. Students in the Arabic language classes, however, experienced both positive and negative change in perception of self. Arab and Arab-American language students had positive change in perception of self, while International and American language students had negative change in perception of self.

The results of this study also showed that different types of academic orientations and strength of either an instrumental motivational orientation (for Arabic language students) or integrative motivational orientation (for Arabic literature and culture students) best predicted gains in cultural knowledge, change in attitudes toward Arabs, and success in FL and culture learning. As summarized in phases one and two of the study, students who enroll in Arabic language, literature and culture classes to complete a minor or a major in Arabic studies had positive gains in cultural knowledge or positive change in attitudes toward Arabs. Moreover, students who enroll in these classes to fulfill a GEC requirement do not perform as well in comparison to other students who enroll in these classes for other reasons. In addition, Arab and Arab-American students
who have positive attitudes toward Arabs and Americans initially and who have higher gains in cultural knowledge may not necessarily perform better than American or International students.

The results of this study summarized in phase three also concluded that type of academic orientation and strength of integrative motivational orientation predicts not only whether change in attitudes toward Arabs will be positive or negative, but also whether students decide to continue on in Arabic studies or drop out. Teachers observed that strength of a student’s integrative orientation appeared to affect a student’s academic orientation that in turn affected change in attitudes toward Arabs. Moreover, student motivational and academic orientations also functioned to mediate the effect of class membership, regardless of the differential amounts and types of cultural teaching conducted in each separate classroom that predicted gains in cultural knowledge and change in attitudes toward Arabs, as summarized in phase one of the study. In Arabic language classes, for example, students whose change in attitudes toward Arabs were positive (despite negative change in attitudes for these students overall) and who specifically desired to know more about Arab culture continued their study of Arabic beyond Arabic 104. In Arabic literature and Arabic culture classes, strength of one’s integrative orientation also predicted whether student change in attitudes toward Arabs would be positive or negative, regardless of class membership. Moreover, students who enrolled in these classes to fulfill a GEC requirement did not perform as well as those students who enrolled in these classes for other reasons.

Finally, the results of this study also revealed that other factors besides class membership and type and strength of academic and motivational orientations affected gains in cultural knowledge, change in attitudes toward Arabs and Americans, and change in perception of self. Age, gender, nationality, ethnicity, number of years of L2 study, and previous education or introduction to Arabs and the Arab world in academic or
social settings also influenced gains in cultural knowledge, attitudes, and change in perception of self. Younger students versus older students appeared to have more negative change in attitudes toward Arabs and negative change in perception of self. Female students in contrast to male students had more positive change in attitudes toward Arabs and more positive change in perceptions of Arabs. Arab-American students also had positive change in perception of the Middle East. Finally, students who have had some previous course work on the Arab world or who had greater number of years of previous L2 study had obviously higher gains in cultural knowledge.

Implications of the study and suggested areas for future research
(The results of the study in relation to SLA and suggestions for an integrated approach to the teaching of Arabic language, Arabic literature, and Arabic culture)

The results of this study parallel two major findings deduced by previous research on acculturation in general and SLA in particular. First, as highlighted in chapter 1 of this study, the effect of FL or culture study does not necessarily produce positive change in attitudes toward FL study nor toward members of the target language community. In fact, as summarized in chapter 2, the majority of studies have shown that attitudes toward study of a FL and attitudes toward the target language community drop as a result of SLA, unless intercultural communication and sensitivity lessons are consciously introduced into FL classrooms (Mantle-Bromley & Miller, 1991; Mantle-Bromley, 1995). The results of this study confirm that study of Arabic not only produces negative change in attitudes toward Arabs, but also negative change in attitudes toward Americans as well. (This study did not investigate, however, FL learning in relation to attitudes toward the language learning environment.) Moreover, study of Arabic also appears to make American and International students more critical of themselves in relation to foreign
peoples and foreign cultures, whereas, study of Arabic for Arab and Arab-American students has the opposite effect: their change in self-perception became more positive as a result of the study of Arabic.

In previous SLA research, this negative change in attitudes has been specifically linked to the mediating factor of language anxiety (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993a; Mantle-Bromley & Miller, 1992; Oller, Hudson & Liu, 1977; Samimy & Tabuse, 1992). Schumann (1986), in his acculturation model in relation to SLA, predicts that unless language shock and cultural shock are not overcome, L2 learners will not fully acculturate and hence will not acquire proficiency in a second language (see figure 1.4, chapter 1, pp. 30-31). Although this study did not specifically focus upon the effect of language anxiety in relation to negative change in attitudes, future research should be done looking at the effect of language anxiety upon negative change in attitudes toward both Arabs and Americans within Arabic foreign language classrooms.

In addition, language anxiety should also be investigated in relation to Arab and Arab-American students whose study of Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) similarly produced negative change in attitudes. The results of this study suggested that since Arab and Arab-American students experienced the most negative change in attitudes toward Arabs in the Arabic language classroom, they, like their American counter-parts, may be experiencing the negative effects of language anxiety in study of MSA, even though some of these students are fluent in colloquial Arabic. This researcher hypothesizes that the socio-linguistic and grammatical differences between MSA and the Arabic dialects may be the source of this language anxiety for beginning-level Arab and Arab-American language students at the collegiate level.

A second major result of this study that parallels previous findings in SLA research is the strength of a student’s integrative motive in relation to other forms of motivation that predict higher gains in L2 proficiency, positive change in attitudes toward
the target language community, and persistence in FL study. Research conducted by Gardner (1985) and Gardner and Smythe (1975) concluded that integrativeness or the integrative motive provides students with the necessary motivation to persist in language studies in contrast to those students who drop out of FL study. As a construct, it includes a type of orientation to learn an L2 that is based upon positive feelings toward the L2 community. Gardner and Smythe (1975) emphasize that this motivational construct is not the only motivational base which promotes SLA, but it is one which seems to be particularly effective in many culture settings where SLA is neither necessary nor perceived as an accepted fact of life. According to Gardner (1972, 1985), other motivational bases that equally promote SLA are integrative and instrumental motivation, whose overall constructs are determined by the socio-cultural setting in which language learning takes place.

The results of this study confirmed that students who were more integratively-motivated had positive change in attitudes toward Arabs, intended to continue on in Arabic studies to complete a major or a minor in the field, and expressed a desire to learn more about the language and the culture. According to the teacher interviews, such students contrasted with those students who attended Arabic language, literature, or culture classes in order to fulfill a GEC requirement and who did not persist in Arabic studies after their GEC requirement was met.

The results of this study also concluded, however, that within the Arabic language classroom itself, strength of ones instrumental motivational orientation best predicted change in attitudes toward Arabs, gains in cultural knowledge, and success in FL and culture study. The variables of FEDU, MOT 1, MOT 2, and INTE also factored into the regression equations predicting gains in cultural knowledge, change in attitudes toward Arabs, and student final grades. This finding suggests that Arabic language students are both alike and dissimilar to Arabic literature and Arabic culture in relation to attitudes
and motivation. They are alike in that strength of their integrative motive predicts positive change in attitudes toward Arabs and encourages them to continue on in Arabic studies (via the presence of the FEDU variable), but dissimilar because they are more instrumentally oriented that other students of Arabic studies. Other studies in SLA have similarly shown that FL students like the ones in this study exhibit both integrative and instrumental motivations in study of a L2 (see in particular, Munich & Wolfe, 1982, chapter 2, pp. 71-72).

Finally, the results of this study also suggested that two additional sources of motivation, FEDU and MOT 2, equally predicted not only whether Arabic language and Arabic literature students would persist in Arabic studies, but also how well students perform overall. Little previous research in SLA has been conducted investigating the effects of students’ academic orientations or reasons for undertaking FL or culture study in relation to fulfilling a university requirement in conjunction with students’ integrative or instrumental motivational orientations. The lack of research in this area probably reflects the deference given to Gardner’s socio-educational model as the foundation for most attitudinal/motivational research conducted in formal classroom settings. Gardner’s socio-educational model does not include this academic orientation within his attitudinal/motivational test battery that measures attitudes and motivation in relation to SLA.

Two studies testing the validity of Gardner’s integrative/instrumental construct and the strength of his integrative motive to predict persistence in FL learning, however, discovered the salience of student academic orientations in relation to SLA. The first study, conducted by Ely (1986), investigated which reasons for language study, whether instrumental, integrative or otherwise, predict the greatest motivational strength in a particular population. Like this study, Ely asked piloting students to identify their various reasons for undertaking language study. The results of his study, conducted with
seventy-five first-year Spanish students at the collegiate level, revealed three clusters of motivational orientations, identified as instrumental (cluster A), integrative (cluster B), and fulfilling a university FL requirement (cluster C). Among the three clusters, clusters A and B were positive predictors of strength of motivation that accounted for 60% of the total variance. Cluster C was a non-significant negative predictor of strength of motivation.

A second study, conducted by Ramage (1990), investigated the predictive ability of motivational and attitudinal factors for continuing FL French and Spanish high school students beyond the second level. To conduct the study, Ramage constructed two sets of composite profiles of continuing students versus non-continuing students. Ramage found that both sets of students expressed extrinsic goals (i.e., the desire to study a L2 to fulfill a College Entrance or Graduation Requirement) as well as intrinsic goals (i.e., the desire to study an L2 to reach proficiency in speaking, reading, and, writing coupled by an interest in learning the culture of the target language population). When comparing the strength of these goals, however, continuing students attributed more importance to intrinsic reasons for continuing language study in contrast to their non-continuing counter-parts. Discriminate function analysis confirmed the strength of this factor in relation to other contributing factors that account for differences between the two groups. The results of this study suggested to Ramage that realizing the practical value of FL study does not appear to provide students with motivation to continue.

The results of Ramage’s study (1990) in combination with the results of this study suggest that students whose motivations are extrinsic in nature (studying the L2 to fulfill a college entrance requirement, graduation requirement, or GEC requirement) versus students who motivations are intrinsic in nature (gaining proficiency in the language in combination with a desire to learn about another foreign culture) will neither persist in FL or culture study, nor perform as well as other students. Ely’s (1986) study, however,
revealed that undertaking a FL in order to fulfill a foreign language requirement was a non-significant negative predictor of strength of motivation. His finding contrasts with the predictive value associated with MOT 2 found in this study, that those students who enroll in Arabic language and Arabic literature classes specifically for intrinsic reasons (to gain proficiency in the language coupled with desire to learn about a foreign culture) do better overall than those students who enroll in Arabic foreign language or literature classes for extrinsic reasons. Intrinsically motivated students may also develop more positive attitudes toward the target language speakers. This relationship between academic motivational orientations and change in attitudes or persistence in FL or culture study is a potential area for further research.

Lastly, the results of this study predicted overall that amount and percentage of class time devoted to culture teaching predicts gains in cultural knowledge and positive change in attitudes toward Arabs. Phase one of the study revealed that students who enroll in Arabic culture classes where 90% of class time was devoted to cultural instruction experienced the most positive change in attitudes toward Arabs and Americans and positive change in perception of self (except in the case of American students whose study of Arabic culture made them more critical of themselves). Culture students also changed the most in positive gains in cultural knowledge. Culture students contrasted with Arabic language students whose attitudes toward Arabs and Americans dropped the most. In Arabic language classes about 15% of class time was devoted to cultural instruction. Literature students, however, fell some where in between Arabic culture and Arabic language students. Their change in attitudes toward Arabs was both positive (especially for American students) and negative. Moreover, their change in attitudes toward Americans was generally positive. In Arabic literature classrooms, about 5% of class time was devoted to cultural instruction.
Within each separate classroom, however, strength of integrative motive in combination with students' academic orientations predicted whether student change in attitudes toward Arabs was either positive or negative. Age and gender also predicted whether change in attitudes was positive or negative. Although it is to be expected that not all students will experience positive change in attitudes, the results of this study suggested that the combination of amount and percentage of class time devoted to cultural instruction and strength of integrative motive served to promote positive change in attitudes. Moreover, for Arabic language students, strength of integrative orientations appeared to mediate the overall effect of class membership.

Previous studies in FL and culture learning have found similar effects. Within FL language classrooms especially, the teaching of culture does not in and of itself produce positive change in attitudes and perceptions. Bryam, Esarte-Sarries, and Taylor (1991), for example, when looking at the effect of culture teaching upon English FL pupils' attitudes and perceptions of French people concluded that age was not a significant predictor of attitudes, but class membership and gender were. (Girls, for example, demonstrated more positive attitudes toward the French than males.) When looking at the effect of class membership in particular, Bryam et al. found that the combination of age, of gender, or shared experience of French lessons, and of many other variables was significantly related to attitudes.

Bryam et al. also found that three factors summarized the effects of culture teaching and learning both inside and outside FL classrooms. These were style of cultural instruction, attitudes, and perceptions. While attitudes were much influenced by external variables outside the classroom (such as visits to France), perceptions were more influenced by events inside the classroom. Moreover, amount of cultural information and cultural teaching style appeared to have no effect on student attitudes. They concluded
that only highly-structured, culturally-oriented classroom environments may impact upon attitudes.

In two other studies conducted by Mantle-Bromley and Miller (1991) and Mantle-Bromley (1995), the effect of FL study upon student attitudes and achievement was specifically looked at in relation to the introduction of intercultural communication and sensitivity lessons within FL classrooms. These two studies found that while no significant differences were found in relation to achievement between those classes where intercultural communication and sensitivity lessons were introduced and those classes where such lessons were not introduced, achievement was significantly higher for students whose attitude scores increased over the period of one semester than for students whose scores had remained stable or had decreased. In the second study in particular (Mantle-Bromley, 1995), differences in the control and experimental groups’ scores on attitudes toward FL study and the target language people reflected more of a maintenance of the experimental group’s attitudes than a positive attitude gain, because the decrease in the control group’s overall score was greater than the experimental group’s increase. The results of these study suggested to Mantle-Bromley that without active teacher intervention, students attitudes about other languages and cultures become not more, but less positive at initial levels of FL study.

In conclusion, the results of this study and the research conducted by Bryam et al., Mantle-Bromley and Miller, and Mantle-Bromley strongly suggest that FL classroom curriculums need to be restructured to include systematic introduction of culture teaching in combination with intercultural communication and sensitivity lessons to arrest the negative change in student attitudes that results from study of a foreign language. One possible way to produce such a highly-structured, culturally-oriented FL classroom is to integrate the teaching of Arabic language, Arabic literature, and Arabic culture into a single course of study. Such a highly-structured, culturally-oriented FL class may also
increase strength of student’s integrative motivational orientations for language study, which in turn promotes positive change in attitudes and persistence in FL study for beginning-level Arabic language students. Such a classroom would not only fulfill student expectations of learning about a foreign culture through language instruction, but also give students the needed proficiency in a foreign language for whatever reasons students feel are most important. A syllabus representing the structure of this integrated approach to Arabic FL and culture teaching is included in the appendix of this study (Appendix G). Future studies testing the validity of such an integrated approach in contrast to more traditionally-oriented styles of Arabic language and culture instruction is a final potential area for future research.
APPENDIX A

List of all Predictor and Response Variables
PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST QUESTIONNAIRES:
LIST OF ACADEMIC AND SOCIO-CULTURAL BACKGROUND VARIABLES
AND ATTITUDE AND PERCEPTIONS VARIABLES

I. List of academic and socio-cultural background variables

Part A of Pre-Test Questionnaire

1. Sex: female (a) and male (b)
2. Age: 21-43
3. Ethnic background: ETH
   a. Arab-American
   b. African-American
   c. Spanish-surnamed American
   d. Polish-American
   e. Irish-American
   f. Italian-American
   g. German-American
   h. Scandinavian-American
   i. Anglo-American
   j. Asian-American
   k. Russian-American
   l. Other

4. Nationality: NAT
   a. American
   b. International
   c. Arab
   d. Arab-American

Part B: Education

1. Number of previous foreign languages studied: #FL
2. Number of years of previous foreign language study: #YRL2
3. Number of previous high school courses taken that related to study of either the Arabic language, Arabic literature or the Arab world or the Middle East: #PREDHS
4. Number of previous collegiate-level courses taken that related to study of either the Arabic language, Arabic literature or the Arab world or the Middle East: #PREDCOL
5. Anticipated future course work at the collegiate level within Arabic studies: FEDU
   a. no related course work
b. 1 related course only

c. minor in Arabic studies
d. major in Arabic studies
e. other courses in Arabic studies as they relate to an interest in a similar field of study, such as Islamic history, Anthropology, Comparative Literature, or International Studies

6. Number of Arabic-speaking countries visited, lived in, or studied in: PRTR

7. Number of years of residence in an Arabic-speaking country: #YRTR

Part C: (filled out by non-native speakers of English only)

1. Frequency and use of English outside the classroom: FREQ

2. Language use preference: native vs. English; L1VL2

3. Language use preference: Arabic vs. English; ENORAR

4. Impressions of English-speaking peoples: IMPES

5. Impressions of Arabic-speaking peoples: IMPAS

Part D: (Measures of motivational orientations)

1. Strength of integrative motivational orientation: INTE

2. Strength of instrumental motivational orientation: INST

3. Strength of ethnic or religious motivational orientation: RORETHN

4. Student-solicited primary reasons for enrollment in Arabic language, literature, or culture:
   a. enrollment for socio-cultural reasons: MOT1
   b. enrollment to fulfill a GEC requirement: MOT2
   c. enrollment to gain functional use of the subject matter: MOT3
   d. enrollment for travel or work-related reasons: MOT4

Part E (Perceptions of Arabs and the Arab world, both pre-test and post-test variables)

1. “Muhammad:” ITEM1; ITEP1

2. “Qur’an:” ITEM2; ITEP2

3. “Middle East:” ITEM3; ITEP3

4. “Arab children:” ITEM4; ITEP4

5. “Persian Gulf war:” ITEM5; ITEP5

6. “Arab women:” ITEM6; ITEP6

7. “Bedouin:” ITEM7; ITEP7

8. “Islam:” ITEM8; ITEP8

9. “Arab men:” ITEM9; ITEP9

10. “Arab/Israeli conflict:” ITEM10; ITEP10

General measure of Cultural knowledge (both pre-test and post-test variables): K; KP
II. List of attitude variables

Part F (Bogardus Social Distance Scale, both pre-test and post-test variables)

1. Level of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East: SDISTME; SDISPME
2. Level of acceptance of individuals from the United States: SDISTUS; SDISPUS

Part G (Semantic Differential, both pre-test and post-test variables)

1. Impression of Arabs: SDIFFAR; SDIFPAR
2. Impression of oneself: SDIFFS; SDIFPS
3. Impression of Americans: SDIFFAM; SDIFPAM
4. Impression of ideal self: SDIFFIS; SDIFPIS

III. List of other categorical variables and change from pre-test to post-test variables

1. Class membership: CLASS
   a. Culture Class
   b. Language Class
   c. Literature class
2. Student final grades: GRADE
3. Change in Perception of Arabs and the Arab world
   a. ITEP1-10 minus ITEM1-10 = D1-D10
4. Change in cultural knowledge: KP minus K = DK
5. Change in level of acceptance of individuals from the Middle East and the United States
   a. SDISPME minus SDISTME = DISTME
   b. SDISPUS minus SDISTUS = DISTUS
6. Change in attitudes
   a. SDIFPAR minus SDIFFAR = DIFFAR
   b. SDIFPS minus SDIFFS = DIFFS
   c. SDIFPAM minus SDIFFAM = DIFFAM
   d. SDIFPIS minus SDIFFIS = DIFFIS
APPENDIX B

Sample Pre-Test Questionnaire
QUESTIONNAIRE
ON
PERCEPTIONS OF ARABS AND THE ARAB WORLD
(Arabic Language)

Part A
Personal data

1 Name __________________________ Age: ________
2. Sex: Male____ Female____
3. Social Security number: ________________
4. Ethnic background or affiliation (Check those that you feel best describe you.)
   1. Arab-American_____
   2. African-American_____
   3. Spanish-surnamed American_____
   4. Polish-American_____
   5. Irish-American_____
   6. Italian-American_____
   7. German-American_____
   8. Scandinavian-American_____
   9. Anglo-American_____
10. Asian-American_____
11. Russian-American_____
12. Other (please specify) ________________

5. Religious preference:
   (optional)
   1. Christian________
   2. Jewish____________
   3. Muslim____________
   4. Other (please specify) __________

6. Home town and state or Country: ________________________________
7. Address in Columbus ________________________________
8. Phone number (local): ______________ (home)___________________
9. Mother tongue_________________
10. Other languages:  spoken_________________
   read_________________

Part B
Education

1. High School attended__________
2. Location______________
3. What second/foreign languages did you study? ________________________________
4. For how long? ________________________________

5. Did you take any courses in High School that were related to the study of either the Arabic language or Arabic literature, the Arab World, or the Middle East? (If yes, please list them)
   No________
   Yes__________________________________________________________

6. Have you taken any courses on the college level related to the study of either the Arabic language or Arab literature, the Arab World, or the Middle East? (If yes, please list them)
   No________
   Yes__________________________________________________________

7. Are you currently taking here at The Ohio State University or elsewhere any other courses related to the study of either the Arabic language or Arabic literature, the Arab World, or the Middle East? (If yes, please list them)
   No________
   Yes__________________________________________________________

8. Do you anticipate continuing your study of either the Arabic language or literature, the Arab World, or the Middle East in future courses at The Ohio State University or elsewhere? (If yes, please list what courses or subject areas you are interested in)
   No________
   Yes__________________________________________________________

9. I am currently enrolled this quarter at the University as (mark and complete all that apply):
   _____ a student of Arabic language in the following course _______________________
   _____ a student of Arab culture in the following course _______________________
   _____ a student of Arabic literature in the following course _______________________

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10. Current Major__________

11. If you have lived, traveled or studied in an Arabic-speaking country, please list the country(ies) and state how long you resided there__________________________

12. If you had the opportunity to travel to an Arabic-speaking country, which one would you choose and why?__________________________

13. Would you be interested in participating in an informal interview to discuss your study of Arabic language, literature, or culture upon the conclusion of this quarter?
   Yes____
   No____

Part C (Language Background)
This section is for those whose primary language is not English, or for those of you who grew up in a country outside the United States. If you are fluent in English and in another language as well (perhaps you speak a language other than English at home), then please fill out this section as well.

If you were born in the United States, if your primary language of usage is English and if you are not bilingual in another language, please skip this section and go to section D.

1. For those of you whose primary language is not English, please check those boxes that best reflect your use of the English language

   I hear and use English outside the classroom:
   Never______    Seldom______
   Occassionally______ Frequently______

2. For those of you whose primary language is not English, when you are thinking, do you think primarily in your native language or in English?
   (Check one point along the scale where you feel you actually fall.)
   Always in My native language _____:____:____:____:____:____:____
   Always in English

3. For native Arabic-speakers, which language do you prefer to speak? (Check one point along the scale where you feel you actually fall.)
   English
   Definitely _____:____:____:____:____:____:____
   Arabic
   Definitely
4. What is your general impression of the English-speaking people you know as individuals? Please indicate your answer on the line below:

I like most of them very much

I don't particularly like any of them

5. What is your general impression of the Arabic-speaking people you know as individuals? Please indicate your answer on the line below.

I like most of them very much

I don't particularly like any of them

Part D

Below you will find thirteen reasons that have often been expressed by college students similar to yourself. They cover a wide range of topics and it has been found that many people agree with some of these reasons and many disagree with some of these reasons. You are asked to read each reason carefully and indicate the extent to which it is descriptive of your own motivations for studying Arabic. Please indicate your answer on the lines below by marking an X along the segment of the line that best represents your agreement with or disagreement with the following reasons. If your primary reason for studying Arabic is not listed below, please supply your own answer to this question at the end of this section.

1. I am studying Arabic because

1. I want to learn about another culture to understand the world better
Not my reason: __:____:____:____:____:____:____:____
Definitely my reason

2. I feel it may be helpful in my future career
Not my reason: __:____:____:____:____:____:____:____
Definitely my reason

3. I am interested in Arab culture, history, or literature
Not my reason: __:____:____:____:____:____:____:____
Definitely my reason

4. It will make me a more qualified job candidate
Not my reason: __:____:____:____:____:____:____:____
Definitely my reason

5. I feel that Arabic is an important language in the world
Not my reason: __:____:____:____:____:____:____:____
Definitely my reason

6. I want to be able to converse with Arabic speakers in the U.S.
Not my reason: __:____:____:____:____:____:____:____
Definitely my reason
7. I want to be able to speak more languages than just English
Not my reason _______:________:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______
Definitely my reason

8. I need it to fulfill the university foreign language requirement
Not my reason _______:________:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______
Definitely my reason

9. I think foreign language study is part of a well-rounded education
Not my reason _______:________:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______
Definitely my reason

10. I need to study a foreign language as a requirement for my major
Not my reason _______:________:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______
Definitely my reason

11. I want to be able to use it with Arabic-speaking friends
Not my reason _______:________:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______
Definitely my reason

12. I want to remain in contact with my ethnic background or religious heritage
Not my reason _______:________:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______
Definitely my reason

13. I want to use Arabic when I travel to an Arabic-speaking country
Not my reason _______:________:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______:_______
Definitely my reason

2. My primary reason for studying Arabic is because ________________________________
______________________________________________________
______________________________________________________

Part E

PERCEPTIONS OF ARABS AND THE ARAB WORLD

1. What associations first come to your mind when you read the following terms?

1. Muhammad ________________________________
2. Qur'an ________________________________
3. Middle East ________________________________
4. Arab children ________________________________
5. Persian Gulf war ________________________________
6. Arab Women ________________________________
7. Bedouin ________________________________
8. Islam ________________________________
9. Arab men ________________________________
10. Arab/Israeli conflict ________________________________
2. How many countries are there in the Middle East and North Africa?
   0-5
   5-10
   10-15
   16+

3. How many oil-producing countries are there in the Arab World?
   0-5
   5-10
   10-15
   16+

4. What percentage of Middle Eastern peoples are nomadic?
   0-10
   11-25
   25-50
   50+

5. What do Arabs, Turks, and Iranians have in common?
   Religion
   Language
   Ethnic/racial background
   Form of government

6. What are the five "pillars" of Islam? List them or guess.
   1. ________________
   2. ________________
   3. ________________
   4. ________________
   5. ________________

7. List three Arabic-speaking countries
   1. __________
   2. __________
   3. __________

8. Name three capitals in the Arab World
   1. __________
   2. __________
   3. __________
9. Name three Arab political leaders
   1. __________
   2. __________
   3. __________

10. What are the major forms of government in the Arab World ________________

11. Identify either a famous Arab poet, singer, or writer ________________

12. List three examples of authentic Arab foods
   1. __________
   2. __________
   3. __________

13. List three adjectives to describe traditional Arab family life
   1. __________
   2. __________
   3. __________

14. List three examples of traditional Arab dress
   1. __________
   2. __________
   3. __________

15. List three examples of major festivals or celebrations in the Arab World
   1. __________
   2. __________
   3. __________

16. Is the system of education in the Arab World the same as in the United States? ______

17. Are the lifestyles of Arab men and women in the Arab World that same as those of American men and women in the United States? ______

18. Are all Muslims Arab? ______
19. Are all Arabs Muslim? 

20. What defines an Arab? 

21. What defines an American? 

Part F
We are interested in how college students feel about the following statements. Please draw an arrow across all the boxes with which you agree.

Try to make a separate and independent judgment for each country. Work quickly; it is your first impression which is most important. There are no right or wrong answers.

I would be willing to accept a person from the country listed below...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>as a visitor to my country</th>
<th>as a citizen to my country</th>
<th>as a classmate in my school or college</th>
<th>as a neighbor on my street</th>
<th>as a roommate in my house or apartment</th>
<th>as one of my friends</th>
<th>as a spouse</th>
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Syria

Pakistan

Yemen

Algeria

Iraq

United States

Part G

You will see that on each line there are two words, such as:


Between these two words is a straight line marked off into spaces. Somewhere along the line between the two words (or extremes) is your impression about something. If you were asked your impression about television news programs, you might put an X as follows:


In some cases you may not have a feeling one way or the other, in which case you would put your X in the middle of the line:


Work as rapidly as you can. It is your first impression which is the most important. There are no right or wrong answers. Yet please be serious, as we are very interested in how college students feel about these questions.

1. What are your impressions of Arabs in the Arab World?

For each pair of adjectives put an X in the space along the line which best represents your opinion.

2. What is your impression of yourself?

For each pair of adjectives put an X in the space along the line which best represents your opinion.

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<th>Unsociable</th>
<th>Strict</th>
<th>Cruel</th>
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Friendly
Ineffective
Stingy
Intelligent
Good
Polite
Hardworking
Unrefined
Inconsiderate
Unaspiring
Hostile
Poor
Modest
3. What is your impression of Americans in the United States?

For each pair of adjectives put an X in the space along the line which best represents your opinion.

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4. What is your impression of yourself as you'd like to be?

For each pair of adjectives put an X in the space along the line which best represents your opinion.

<p>| 1. Unsociable |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |           |            |     |             |            |      |           |      |        |             |        |          |        |       |         |        |          |        |       |       |
|---------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|-----------|------------|-----|-------------|------------|------|----------|------------|--------|------------|------|-------|----------|--------|----------|----------|--------|--------|-------|--------|
| 2. Strict     |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |           |            |     |             |            |      |           |      |        |             |        |          |        |       |         |        |          |        |       |       |
| 3. Cruel      |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |           |            |     |             |            |      |           |      |        |             |        |          |        |       |         |        |          |        |       |       |
| 4. Backward   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |           |            |     |             |            |      |           |      |        |             |        |          |        |       |         |        |          |        |       |       |
| 5. Considerate|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |           |            |     |             |            |      |           |      |        |             |        |          |        |       |         |        |          |        |       |       |
| 6. Nice       |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |           |            |     |             |            |      |           |      |        |             |        |          |        |       |         |        |          |        |       |       |
| 7. Unfriendly |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |           |            |     |             |            |      |           |      |        |             |        |          |        |       |         |        |          |        |       |       |
| 8. Effective  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |           |            |     |             |            |      |           |      |        |             |        |          |        |       |         |        |          |        |       |       |
| 9. Generous   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |           |            |     |             |            |      |           |      |        |             |        |          |        |       |         |        |          |        |       |       |
| 10. Stupid    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |           |            |     |             |            |      |           |      |        |             |        |          |        |       |         |        |          |        |       |       |
| 11. Bad       |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |           |            |     |             |            |      |           |      |        |             |        |          |        |       |         |        |          |        |       |       |
| 12. Rude      |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |           |            |     |             |            |      |           |      |        |             |        |          |        |       |         |        |          |        |       |       |</p>
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QUESTIONNAIRE
ON
PERCEPTIONS OF ARABS AND THE ARAB WORLD
(Arab Culture)

Name _______________________
Social Security Number (Provide code given on initial questionnaire) ___________

Part A

PERCEPTIONS OF ARABS AND THE ARAB WORLD

1. What associations first come to your mind when you read the following terms?

   1. Muhammad _____________________________
   2. Qur'an _____________________________
   3. Middle East _____________________________
   4. Arab children _____________________________
   5. Persian Gulf war _____________________________
   6. Arab Women _____________________________
   7. Bedouin _____________________________
   8. Islam _____________________________
   9. Arab men _____________________________
  10. Arab/Israeli conflict _____________________________

2. How many countries are there in the Middle East and North Africa?
   0-5
   5-10
   10-15
   16+

3. How many oil-producing countries are there in the Arab World?
   0-5
   5-10
   10-15
   16+
4. What percentage of Middle Eastern peoples are nomadic?
   0-10
   11-25
   25-50
   50+

5. What do Arabs, Turks, and Iranians have in common?
   Religion
   Language
   Ethnic/racial background
   Form of government

6. What are the five "pillars" of Islam? List them or guess.
   1. ________________
   2. ________________
   3. ________________
   4. ________________
   5. ________________

7. List three Arabic-speaking countries
   1. ________________
   2. ________________
   3. ________________

8. Name three capitals in the Arab World
   1. ________________
   2. ________________
   3. ________________

9. Name three Arab political leaders
   1. ________________
   2. ________________
   3. ________________

10. What are the major forms of government in the Arab World __________________________
    __________________________

11. Identify either a famous Arab poet, singer, or writer_______________________________

12. List three examples of authentic Arab foods
    1. ____________
    2. ____________
    3. ____________
13. List three adjectives to describe traditional Arab family life
   1. __________
   2. __________
   3. __________

14. List three examples of traditional Arab dress
   1. __________
   2. __________
   3. __________

15. List three examples of major festivals or celebrations in the Arab World
   1. __________
   2. __________
   3. __________

16. Is the system of education in the Arab World the same as in the United States?

17. Are the lifestyles of Arab men and women in the Arab World that same as those of American men and women in the United States?

18. Are all Muslims Arab?

19. Are all Arabs Muslim?

20. What defines an Arab?

21. What defines an American?
Part B
We are interested in how college students feel about the following statements. Please draw an arrow across all the boxes with which you agree.

Try to make a separate and independent judgment for each country. Work quickly; it is your first impression which is most important. There are no right or wrong answers.

I would be willing to accept a person from the country listed below . . .

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2. What is your impression of yourself?

For each pair of adjectives put an X in the space along the line which best represents your opinion.


3. What is your impression of Americans in the United States?

For each pair of adjectives put an X in the space along the line which best represents your opinion.

4. What is your impression of yourself as you'd like to be?

For each pair of adjectives put an X in the space along the line which best represents your opinion.

APPENDIX D

Regression Trees used to Illustrate Phase One of the Study
Regression Tree D.1 modeling KP in relation to Class.

285
Regession Tree D.2: modeling DK in relation to Class.
Regression Tree D.3 modeling DIFFAR in relation to Class.
Regression Tree D.4 modeling SDISTME in relation to Class.

SDISTME v.s. CLASS

CLASS: ac

CLASS: a

17.78
19.48
23.22
Regression Tree D.5 modeling DSTME in relation to Class.

289
Regression Tree D.6 modeling DK in relation to Class, NAT, SOC. CUL. AND PAST EXP.
Regression Tree D.7 modeling DIFFAR in relation to CLASS, NAT, SOC. CULT. AND PAST EXP.
Regression Tree D.8 modeling KP in relation to CLASS, NAT, SOC. CUL. AND PAST EXP.
Regression Tree D.9 modeling DSTME in relation to CLASS, NAT, SOC. CUL. AND PAST EXP.
Regression Tree D.10 modeling CLASS in relation to DK, KP, DSTME, AND SDISTME.
APPENDIX E

Regression Trees used to Illustrate Phase Two, Part A
Regression Tree E.2 modeling DIFFPS in relation to CLASS and NAT.

297
Regression Tree E.3 modeling SDIFFS in relation to CLASS, NAT, SOC. CUL., AND PAST EXP.
Regression Tree E.4 modeling DIFFPS in relation to CLASS, NAT, SOC. CUL. AND PAST EXP.
Regression Tree E.6 modeling DIFFAR in relation to CLASS and NAT.
Regression Tree E.7 modeling SDIFFAM in relation to CLASS and NAT.
Regression Tree E.8 modeling DIFFAM in relation to CLASS and NAT.
Regression Tree E.9 modeling DIFFAM in relation to CLASS, NAT, SOC. CUL. AND PAST EXP.
Boxplots E.10 displaying SDISTME in relation to CLASS, NAT, and the interaction of CLASS and NAT.
Boxplots E.11 displaying SDISTUS in relation to CLASS, NAT, and the interaction of CLASS and NAT.
Boxplots E.12 displaying DSTME in relation to CLASS, NAT and the interaction of CLASS and NAT.
Boxplots E.13 displaying DSTUS in relation to CLASS, NAT and the interaction of CLASS and NAT.
APPENDIX F

Regression Trees used to Illustrate Phase Two, Part B
Regression Tree F.1 modeling CLASS in relation to motivational orientation, SOC. CUL. AND PAST EXP.
Regression Tree F.2 modeling DIFFAR in relation to FEDU, INTE, INST and NAT; all classes.
Regression Tree F.3 modeling DIFFAR in relation to FEDU, INTE, INST, NAT and CLASS.
DIFFAR v.s. motivational orientation; all classes.
DIFFAR v.s. FEDU + INTE + INST + NAT; LIT.

Regression Tree for modeling DIFFAR in relation to FEDU, INTE, INST, and NAT for Arabic literature students.
DIFFAR v.s. motivational orientation; LIT.
Regression Tree F.7 modeling DIFFAR in relation to FEDU, INTE, INST, NAT for Arabic culture students.
Regression Tree F & modeling DIFFAR in relation to FEDU, INTE, INST and NAT for
Arabic language students.

DIFFAR v.s. FEDU + INTE + INST + NAT; LAN.

-12.620

INST<24

INTE<31

3.000

4.800

INTE<34.5

-5.857
DIFFAR v.s. motivational orientation; LAN.

Regression Tree for modeling DIFFAR in relation to MOT 1.4 for Arabic language students.

- INST<24
  - -12.620
  - INTE<34.5
    - MOT1:a
      - -2.000
      - 9.800
    - -5.857
Regression Tree F.10 modeling KP in relation to FEDU, INTE, INST, and NAT; all classes.
Regression Tree F.11 modeling KP in relation to FEDU, INTE, INST, NAT and CLASS.
Regression Tree F.12 modeling KP in relation to motivational orientation, SOC. CUL. And PAST EXP.
KP vs. FEDU + INTE + INST + NAT, LIT.

Regression Tree F.13 modeling KP in relation to FEDU, INTE, INST and NAT for Arabic literature students.
Regression Tree F.14 modeling KP in relation to FEDU, INTE, INST and NAT for Arabic culture students.
KP v.s. FEDU + INTE + INST + NAT, LAN.

Regression Tree F.15 modeling KP in relation to FEDU, INTE, INST and NAT for Arabic language students.
Regression Tree F.16 modeling GRADE in relation to FEDU, INTE, INST, and NAT; all classes.
Regression Tree F.17 modeling GRADE in relation to FEDU, INTE, INST, NAT, and CLASS.
Regression Tree for modeling GRADE in relation to CLASS, NAT, and MOT 1.4.

GRADE v.s. CLASS & NAT and motivation.
Regression Tree F.19 modeling GRADE in relation to MOT 1-4 for Arabic culture students.
Regression Tree F.20 modeling GRADE in relation to MOT 1-4 for Arabic literature students.
Regression Tree F.21 modeling GRADE in relation to MOT 1-4 for Arabic language students.
APPENDIX G

Model Syllabus for an Integrated Approach to the Teaching of Arabic Language, Literature, and Culture
Arabic 294A:

An Introduction to the Language, Culture, and Literature of the Arab World

This introductory Arabic language course is designed to not only introduce students to the study of the Arabic language, but also to the study of Arabic literature, and Arab culture as well. As such, it will fulfill not only a student's foreign language requirement, but also a student's non-western literature or non-western culture requirement at the same time. In addition to learning how to read, write, and speak Arabic, students will also be introduced to Arab music, the art of calligraphy, and instances of contact and cultural borrowing between the Arab world and the West. Upon the completion of this course, students will be prepared to enter either Arabic 294B, or Arabic 102, both of which are a continuation of the language study they have encountered here.

Completion of this course will give students ten credit hours. Students will be required to meet two hours/day, four days a week. No prior knowledge of the Arabic language, Arabic literature or Arab culture is required.

Syllabus

Part I: Introduction to the Arabic Language

A. The linguistic map of the Middle East and relationship of Arabic to other Semitic languages
   1. Language and ethnic groups
      a. Indo-Iranian (Persian; Kurdish)
      b. Semitic (Arab)
      c. Ural-Altaic (Turkish)

B. Comparative tables for Arabic and 3-4 other languages
   1. personal pronouns in transliterations
   2. numbers in Arabic (1-10) and in transliterations (for other langs.)
   3. Gender, number and person (1st, 2nd, 3rd) distinctions.

C. Rise and development of the Arabic Alphabetic system
   1. Sources for the Arabic Script (Syriac vs. Nabatean)
   2. Arabic Script--Introduction to the Arabic Alphabet
      a. letters of the Arabic alphabet
         1.achrophony
            a. relationship of script to Greek and Roman alphabets
            b. relationship of script to English
      b. Learn the letters (4 letters / week)
c. Learn the vowels, emphasizing aleph with hamza and other short vowels and role of sukun.

D. Semitic characteristics of the Arabic language
   1. Tri-consonantal root system
      b. Example of nouns
      c. Derivation of verbs
         1. Basic infinitive (form I)
         2. Augmented (forms II-IX)
      d. Derivation of participles
         1. passive
         2. active
   2. Ancient Arabian Dialects
      a. Eastern and Western dialects
         1. List of features
      b. Synthetic features (Arabic syntax)
   3. Oral nature of Classical Arabic poetry (Zwetter. The Oral Tradition of Classical Arabic Poetry)
      1. Qasida: Structure (vowel system explained through analysis of meter and rhyme–review of vowels and their functions.)
      2. Grammatical features of Classical Arabic (use Arabic terms?)
         a. Inflectional endings (grammar)
            1. nominative
            2. accusative
            3. genitive
         b. CVCV structure (phonemes)
         c. Arabic script rules (phonetics)

E. Rise of the Modern dialects
   1. Features of spoken Arabic
      a. Influence and relationships of dialects between each other
         1. urban vs. rural speakers
         2. Christian, Jewish, and Muslim Arab speakers
            a. Terms for Christian, Jewish, Muslim
         3. communal terms (Bedu, village and city)
         4. ecological terms
         5. Lifestyles (agricultural vs. industrial)
   2. Geographic distribution (use Arabic terms)
      a. Names of regions, countries, and capitals
      b. Major waterways of the Arabic world
         1. Rivers
         2. Lakes
         3. Oceans and seas
F. Features of spoken Arabic
   1. Ways to introduce one another
   2. Formulaic expressions of greeting
   3. Ways to identify male, female etc. (‘ana, ‘inta, ‘inti, huwwa, hiyya)
   4. Function of possessive pronouns in Arabic corresponding to gender and number.
   5. Introduce basic vocabulary of classroom

Part II: Introduction to Arabic Literature

A. Pre-Islamic Arabic poetry
B. Qur'an as a literary document
   1. Development of Arabic Script as means to write the Qur'an down
   2. Prestige of Classical Arabic based upon structure of the language found in a divine scripture.
   4. Rise of analysis of the Arabic language found in the Qur'an and classical Arabic poetry as result of pedagogical necessity to teach Qur'anic Arabic to non-Arabic speakers (both past and present) who must learn the Arabic language for liturgical purposes.
   5. Role of Abbasid Grammarians, philologists, linguists, scholars of Tafsir and linguistics in this process.
   6. Relationship of Modern Standard Arabic to Classical Arabic (Classical Arabic defines grammatical orientation of MSA--forms "frozen in time."--Review of alphabetical system, inflectional system, and introduction of verb tenses may take place here.
   7. Review of first four letters and introduction of the rest of the alphabet may take place here.

C. Cross-Cultural Influences
   1. Early Abbasid translation activities 800-850 AD
   2. Examples from lexicography--Typology, learn how to identify load words
   3. How definite article functions in Arabic and becomes fused right away
      a. Transmission of science and mathematical concepts to the West
         1. Algebra
         2. Alchemy
         3. Alcohol
   4. Indefiniteness--how it also functions in Arabic (Use of al prefix, hada, hadhahi, thalika, tilka etc. [lesson two of Mahdi's Ahlan wa Sahlan]
Week III

D. The religion of Islam
   1. Five Pillars of Islam (Use Arabic terms here)
   2. Linguistic terms Allah, Muslim, Islam, Muhammad, Mahdi--their derivations and linguistic manifestations as examples of the tri-literal root in Semitic languages. (E.g., Allah = al ilah, roots s lm and m h d +derivations.
   3. Shari'ah--Islamic Law
   4. Great Traditions vs. Little Traditions
      1. Characteristics of Each
      2. Sufism
   5. Role of Shari'ah in everyday lives of Muslims
   6. Introduce phrases that incorporate Allah and when to use them in the proper social setting.
   7. Relationship of Islam to Judaism and Christianity
      a. Status of "Ahl Al-dhimma" under Islam
      b. Relationship of Jews, Christians, and Muslim communities both past and present. (Waldman, Muslims and Christians, Muslims and Jews.
   8. Identification of Religious and National holidays among Jews, Christians, and Muslims in Arabic (see lesson 2, Ahlan wa Sahlan, Arabic 102)
   9. Months and dating system of the Muslim Calendar in Arabic
   10. Review Arabic counting system, numbers 1-12, 10, 20-100 also here.
   11. Introduce seasons of the year according to Ahlan wa Sahlan also?

Weeks IV & V Arab Culture
(Culture)
A. Musical Instruments
   1. Nature of musical system
   2. Cross-cultural borrowing
      a. Renaissance music (Mckinnitt)
      b. Instruments themselves (Fatme's musical tape that introduces students to names of musical instruments and Arabic numbers 1-10)
      c. Examples of poems set to music
         1. Influence of lyrical poetry of Italians and Spanish upon Arabic poetic tradition, which spread to other regions of the Arab World (Islamic Spain)
         2. Umm Kulthum (who is she?) sings poetry of Gibran
         3. Poetry of Nizar Qabbani set to music
      d. Influence of Western Literary forms upon Arabic poetry and prose.

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1. T.S. Eliot
2. Theater?
3. Qabbani and Shakespeare in Syria and Egypt?
4. Early translation efforts (Napoleon’s press)
5. Rise of modern Arabic literature in response to the West
6. Impact of modernizing movement on the Arabic language.

B. Art-Calligraphy

1. Prohibitions in Islam of figural representations in art.
2. Rise to prominence of calligraphy as art form (Qur’anic illustrations)
3. Role of calligraphy in definition of basic Arabic scripts (angular and cursive (Abbot, Rise of Modern Arabic Script)—finish the alphabet and vowel systems here
4. Nature of architecture as expression of abstraction of forms found in flora and fauna of the Arab World
5. Abstraction of forms and concepts leads to rise of algebra and alchemy, as well as the natural sciences, architecture and engineering, use of the astrolabe for astronomy and astrology and long distance trade in the Arab World. (New Knowledge for Old)
6. Role of the Arabs in the transmission, refinement and development of this knowledge based upon Hellenistic learning and scholarship to Medieval Europe.
   a. Al-Andalus as case in point: both Arab sciences and languages give rise to cross-cultural borrowing and florescence in Islamic Spain.
   b. Islamicate culture—Maimonides as literary example.

C. Introduce Multicultural nature of the religion of Islam

1. Introduce linguistic structures to identify one’s nationality, religion, ethnic orientation and profession.
   a. Nisba construction (‘Ana min misr. Ana misrii)
   b. Status of Muslims throughout the World (Arab world, Indonesia, N. Africa, Asia, China, and Americas)
   c. Introduce more Arabic numbers in stating these statistics.

2. How to introduce ones family and ones self and profession.
   a. Linguistic structures
   b. Basic nominal sentence in Arabic,
   c. Adjectives

D. Traditional Arab family life

1. Nature of extended family in Arab World
2. Shari’ah and rules governing marriage, inheritance, divorce, and rights of women in Islam (use Arabic terms).
3. Conditions for change--family in transition (Barakat, Fernea)
4. How to identify in Arabic the number of one's family members and
   number of brothers, sisters, aunts, uncles etc. (kinship terms)
5. How these familial terms are understood and used in Arabic versus how
   they are used in English
6. Formal versus informal ways to address sisters and brothers, friends,
   family relations, and those of different relations or of older generations
   in the Arabic language. (akh, ukht, umm, ab, jidd etc.) When to use
   them--sociolinguists
7. Relationship of the individual to the family versus status of family
   within Arab culture and society (Barakat, Fernea)
   1. Concept of "Ahl" or "Ahlia"
8. Gender roles of males and females and function of gender roles as
   grammatical feature of the Arabic language.
   a. nouns, adjectives--teach adjs here
   b. Ta-marbuta construction as definition of female gender/ status of
      nouns or for collective plurals (teach fruits?)
   c. functions of dual and plural according to gender
   d. Practice these forms when learning terms to identify family
      members ('indi ukhtan, lakin 'indi akh wahid.)

Week VI: Modern Arabic Literature
A. Modern Arabic poetry (use Arabic terms)
   1. Neo classical (al-Barudi)
   2. Immigrant School (Gibran)
   3. Romantic
   4. Free verse (al-Mala'ika)
   5. Modernists (Adonis)
B. Role of the poet in past and present Arab society
   1. Pre-Islamic
   2. Islamic (panegyric and courtly love poetry)
   3. Modern
      a. Social Critic
      b. Custodian of the language (The Power of the Word)
C. Short Stories
   1. Tayeb Salih
   2. Sharouni
   3. Female authors?
D. Novels and Plays
   1. Najib Mahfouz (Miramar, Midaq Alley, Thief and Dogs )
   2. female writers (al-Saadawi)
   3. Tawfiq al-Hakim
   4 T. Saleh (Season of Migration to the North)
E. Themes in Modern Arabic Literary Tradition
   1. Cross-cultural Influence
   2. Arab Nationalism
   3. Arab Identity
   4. Women
   5. Loss of homeland
   6. Love of women and nature
   7. Traditional vs. Modern

Week VII: FOOD! (use Arabic terms)
A. Terms for Arabic foods
B. Meals of the day (Breakfast, lunch, dinner)
C. Times of the day
D. Introduce verbs and their structure
   1. past and present for eat, drink, study, know etc. (Ahlan wa Sahlan pt. 1)
   2. Arabic vocabulary for drinks, foods, eating utensils
   3. Socio-cultural aspects related to eating
      a. Concepts of politeness
      b. Table manners
      c. Eating in a restaurant
E. How to order a meal in a restaurant
   1. Go to an Arab restaurant and practice!

Postscript: HOW TO TEST THESE CONCEPTS?

A. Written--What are the 22 letters of the Arabic alphabet?
   1. Dictation (Arabic vocabulary items)
   2. Essay--role of the script

B. Oral
   1. How do you identify one's self, one's family members in Arabic?; one's nationality, ethnicity and religion?
   2. How do you greet one's grandparents, friends etc.
   3. Simulation or role play (You are in the capital of Cairo, how do you ask directions to the Suuq? to the Hilton? to the airport etc. )
   4. Describe the geography of the Arab World
   5. Describe the geography of the United States
   6. Order a meal in an Arab restaurant?

C. What is Islam?
   1. Cite examples of great tradition and little traditions using as many Arabic terms as you can.

D. What role does the Qasida play in Arab Literary tradition?
E. What are some examples (cultural, literary, and linguistic) of cross-cultural borrowings between East and West?

F. What role does Calligraphy and music play in the Arab World?

G. What are some major concerns of Arab novelists, poets, and dramatists, and how are these concerns reflected in their literary expression or production?
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