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What effect do play creation and performance experiences have on the motivation of low-intermediate secondary ELL learners toward speaking the target language? The basis of this study includes theories and previous research in the areas of the communicative approach, language learning motivation, and drama in education. Participating students created a self-written play and performed for a larger community. General results included data indicating dramatic intervention with secondary ELLs can lead to meaningful increases in motivation to learn the target language. This was based on Attitude and Motivation Test Battery questionnaire results. The experimental class reported meaningful growth in the areas of motivational effort, language anxiety, and attitude towards the learning situation. The control class reported meaningful growth in the areas of integrativeness and instrumental orientations. Secondary language instructors are therefore encouraged to think about using the play creation process in their classroom.

AFFECTING L2 ATTITUDE AND MOTIVATION THROUGH DRAMA

By

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To my students: You are the reason I teach.
To my family: You are the reason I try.
To God: You are the reason for it all.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

“Teacher, I scared,” said Shoua quietly, as she stood up to give her first introduction speech. “I don’t know how to say.”

Over the years, I have heard this phrase echoed by hundreds of English language learners (ELL) in my class. For several years I have been teaching Interpersonal-Communications classes at an all English language learner (ELL) high school. When I started teaching these classes, I noticed right away that students in my Interpersonal-Communications class were far more nervous than they had been earlier that day in classes involving more focus on English reading and writing. Learning to listen and speak in English was a difficult task for most of my learners, many of whom already knew more than one language. One should remember that stage fright is not necessarily limited to the stage. Students who were usually loud or boisterous in their first language spoke little or mumbled when speaking in class. Oral listening was painful and slow as were speeches and interactive group work. Students conversed freely in their native language and let the few bravest students do the talking in English. These same students remained silent and inhibited for years; their attitude toward speaking English in public seemed to be that it was better to be silent than risk being misunderstood or made fun of. Students were reluctant to participate in group presentations or give individual

presentations. Other teachers would talk about the lack of oral English skills in most of our graduating students. However, I noticed that those students who did speak seemed to gradually get more comfortable, and their language acquisition appeared to accelerate in relation to the risks they took. I started looking for ways that all students could become more orally proficient in English.

I discovered that using drama and performance is a potential way to increase students' oral skills in their second language. In this study, I wish to examine how using drama with ESL students to create a student-written play can affect their willingness to communicate in English. Drama may be a tool that can be used to increase student motivation, eventually leading them to be more orally proficient and have a less inhibited attitude towards communicating in English.

Context

I teach at an English as a Second Language (ESL) high school in Minnesota. It is an Alternative Learning Center (ALC) program; students attending this program must demonstrate needs that cannot be met in the context of a regular high school program. The school works specifically with students who speak English as a second language or have limited English proficiency. This ESL high school is an immersion-style program, where all classes and content areas are taught in English, and students are surrounded by fellow language learners. Teachers are trained to address the needs of English Language Learners (ELLs) and to scaffold content area instruction based on student language and cognitive abilities, while still progressively covering content standards. The question of rate of academic progress in this school context is often linked to the background

knowledge, attitude, and motivation of the individual student along with other equally complex factors.

Second language acquisition (SLA) is a complex process governed by numerous variables (Gardner, 1995). One such variable is the influence of attitude and motivation on the language acquired by a particular learner. These variables are the focus of this paper. A positive attitude toward the target language culture, the context the language learning occurs in, along with high motivation to learn the target language, can increase language acquisition. It is also important to note that language acquisition factors such as motivation and attitude may vary over time according to current theorists including Dornyei (2001a), Gardner (1985), MacIntyre, et. al. (2003) and others. Communicative language teaching methodologies traditionally focus on increasing the positive attitude and high motivation in the language classroom while at the same time encouraging meaning-based communicative activities (Savignon, 1983). One interesting communicative method that has gained momentum since the 1970s is the use of theater and drama in the ESL classroom. A number of articles and books have left a detailed account of how to integrate this method into the typical language classroom. The primary reason cited in teacher anecdotal articles for combining drama with language learning is the increase in student motivation toward learning the second language (Stern, 1980). The role of this project is to contribute validated data about the effect that drama and theater techniques have on students' attitude and motivation towards learning the L2.

Role of the Researcher

To study the attitudinal and motivational effect of drama creation and performance experiences on the secondary ELL, I implemented a six-week-long classroom research study in two sections of low-intermediate level English Interpersonal-Communications classes. I integrated a different approach into my classroom activities as well as reflected on the practice and result of that new integration. I taught one class using more common communicative methods of oral language instruction including small group work, role play, individual and partner speeches, taped listening sessions, vocabulary activities, in-class discussion, pronunciation exercises, and listening comprehension tests. Content for the regular Interpersonal Communications curriculum was based on the textbook series, *Northstar Speaking and Listening* (Mills & Frazier, 2004). I have noticed students experiencing gains in confidence when using the regular instructional methods.

The second class was taught using both drama methods and ESL communicative methods. A trained artist-in-residence collaboratively taught the second class with me using a combination of common methods for the first week of the semester and then helped to introduce a play-creation and performance process for a six-week period. This drama method included the following six components: (1) daily theater warm-up activities for focus and community-building purposes, (2) topics based on students' personal experiences, (3) small group work, (4) discussion, (5) rehearsal, (6) and performance. I examined the effect these dramatic communicative activities had on student attitude and motivation and compared it to the effect using existing classroom

communicative methods had on these variables in this quasi-experimental classroom research study.

There are several assumptions that need to be clarified. I assumed that each group would exhibit a change in attitude and motivation towards speaking and listening in English. This could have been expected as current curriculum in both classes is designed to increase English communication. The need for this study arises as it is possible that the class exposed to dramatic techniques and performance may exhibit superior growth as the result of this intervention. Some existing research suggests that dramatic activity in the language classroom lowers anxiety (Coleman, 2005; Stern, 1985; Song, 2000). I further assumed that the dramatic approach and possibly the community-building inherent in the play- creation and performance process would not only lower anxiety but would also have a positive impact on student attitude and motivation toward speaking and listening in English. This final assumption was based on recent teacher reflective essays on the subject of drama in the ESL classroom (Bernal, 2007; Butt, 1998; Davies, 1990; Dodson, 2000; Ernst-Slavit & Wenger, 1998; Kelin, 2006; Starr, 2001; Vardell, Hadaway, & Young, 2003).

Though there are many anecdotal qualitative articles in the area of drama and ESL students, there is very little quantifiable data on the result of using drama with secondary ESL students. This echoes the need for more research in so many areas of secondary and adult ESL acquisition such as this current study on specific techniques to affect motivation. Adult as well as secondary ESL education is mentioned here because of the interval nature of the students used in this study. Several of the students assume full

adult responsibility in their culture. They are married with children and considered adults in their culture and yet are minors in age who attend high school. Lazarton, Condelli, and Wrigley (2004) have called for further research in the arena of adult and secondary ESL education, research which allows for a balance of qualitative and quantitative study. Studies such as this one fill the need for documenting an area of secondary and adult education beyond teacher classroom anecdotes.

Background of the Researcher

Via, an early proponent of drama in the English as a Second Language classroom has said that drama requires no special teacher talent or training. Instead, he states that it “requires exactly those same talents which are to be found in any good teacher- nothing more... [and] I would hope that you would include at least three things: patience, imagination, and sensitivity” (Via, 1981, 208). I hoped that if I could incorporate a few of these dramatic techniques into my communications classroom, any similarly-motivated educator could achieve the same results. I have never studied public speaking or theater arts formally. I have, however, participated in several community and secondary theater programs, though never as the principal educator. The experience of creating, rehearsing, and performing one theater show gave me the confidence to perform in the next one. The pressure of impending performance was enough to stimulate rehearsal at that time while the successful experience and skills I gained allowed me more confidence and willingness to perform at future events. I have spoken to a hundred or more people on occasion, and each time it seems to get easier. The poise from these experiences is practiced everyday while presenting lessons in my classroom. There is always the

immediate pressure of the individual performance along with my long-term goal of improving my public speaking and dramatic skills. I have used theater arts in addition to the English curriculum with other classes and have experience with students using theater arts activities. I have also worked with another theater teaching artist to create two student-written plays. The benefits from these two specific experiences have been noted only anecdotally. As the above activities took place in a similar classroom situation to the one presented in this paper, this time I hoped to measure any gains made by ELLs through theater experiences as well as ensure that they were in fact making noticeable gains in L2 speaking confidence through an alternative communicative teaching method.

I have found that oral communication is important to me as well as to my district and the educational community at large. I am committed to promoting high achievement, making meaningful connections, and building a respectful learning environment for all students. In order to build my pedagogy toward these goals, I have participated in a number of training sessions, one of which included an “Arts Literacy” workshop led by Landay and Mandell. Mandell and Wolf (2003), Landay (2005), and others have documented work with secondary students using the creative process and so some examples of this are available. The principle goal of the Arts Literacy framework is to increase student engagement in all content areas through the use of the arts. The work centers on “The Performance Cycle” which was developed Landay (2005). It is a system of engaging and understanding text by building a classroom community and responding to text with high-quality artistic performance or presentations (Landay, 2005).

The Performance Cycle has been shown to have a positive impact on engagement, confidence, and student comprehension in the elementary and secondary classroom (Landay, 2005). Recent applications I experienced included a student leadership component. The definition of “performance” was also enriched to include multi-media approaches in both formal and informal classroom or community contexts. I believe that this “Performance Cycle” approach could be highly beneficial to ELLs, and indeed Landay alludes to this in her article (2005).

Through my experiences with the Arts Literacy Workshops, I became interested in pursuing a theater immersion experience with my students. Thinking I lacked the background knowledge and training to fully implement this style of dramatic communicative teaching in my classes, I applied for and received two grants to work with an artist-in-residence program through Stepping Stone Children’s Theater Company with funding provided by the Beim Foundation. The teaching artist provided for by the grant, Taous Khazem, and the Stepping Stone Theatre educational coordinator, Kristi Johnson, and I designed a play-creation process to be used with the specific population of ELLs at my high school. We created two student-written plays over two years, the first one titled “Hope to Fly by Our Dreams” and the second titled “Accept: Respect Crazy Culture” (student work, unpublished 2007, 2008). The plays centered on the student chosen theme of immigration and the challenges they as immigrants face in the United States. The students worked for almost three months on each play and performed multiple times for other students and faculty as well as for the surrounding community.

Previous students have offered largely positive feedback for both the Arts Literacy framework and the play-creation process and community performance. Initially, the students had some trepidation about this non-traditional approach to language teaching. The literature review may address some of their preconceived ideas about what an adequate language classroom experience and teacher could be. Furthermore, the students seemed to experience several stages of growth as exhibited by community-building activities. In the post-performance evaluation, all student comments for these two play experience groups were largely positive. Some comments from the student group involved in the last drama project included the following:

“I learned how to work with other people and I will take that with me. I learned how to not be nervous. Well, I’m nervous but less than before and I would like to keep it up and take this with me on the road to my life” – Spanish (Mexico), Male

“I was shy and nervous. But I learned to work with other people and learn that you can do something new without being shy. We learned about what is important in life, like sharing with different people, different countries and cultures. We should enjoy each other” -Spanish (El Salvador), Female.

“Before we started the play, I was very nervous. But now I’m not too shy. It makes me learn from other people who come from different countries” – Hmong (Thailand), Male

“I learned how to talk to other people and work with them even if you don’t know them and you are from different countries” – Somali (Somalia), Male

These and other instances have led me to the larger question of how student language learning is affected by drama and theater experiences. In this paper, I have documented the transformation in attitude or motivation to learn language that students reported as a result of using theater and drama activities in the language learning classroom. I compared this to changes in attitude and motivating in my traditional class in which I used a mixed-methods approach to oral communication teaching. As a communications teacher, my goal is always to increase students' listening and speaking skills. In this case, both the traditional communication section and the theater model section exhibited some student growth in attitude and motivation towards acquiring English. I used the play-creation process in one of my classes with the assistance of a theater-teaching artist. Both sections of Inter-Communications classes included group and performance elements, and so my question as a teacher-researcher was related to which method students said impacted their attitude and motivation towards speaking English the most.

Guiding Questions

While there are many potential candidates for factors influencing language learning which involve both the environment and the learner, language learner attitude towards English can have a monumental affect on how much students practice and improve their conversation and communication skills. Within the theory of the affective filter in language learning, motivation and attitude are perhaps the most important factors in determining second language acquisition (Dornyei, 2001a, 2001b; Kline, 2007;

Krashen, 1982; Laine, 1988; MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Donovan, 2003; Matsuda & Globel, 2004).

What can teachers do to help students who, like Shoua, “don’t know how to say” and feel uncomfortable speaking English in class and in other social contexts? Research suggests that drama activities, such as drama creation and performances, can be used as tools to assist the classroom teacher in encouraging communication (Beyda, 2005; Coleman, 2005; Hardison & Sonchaeng, 2005; Song, 2000; Stern, 1985). Song (2000) wrote in her study that the drama method is suggested to promote an active attitude and motivation. How does drama have this effect on language learning? It is perhaps through the communicative approach that we learn the true usefulness of drama in impacting the attitude of second language learners (Bernal, 2007; Bird, 1979; Butt, 1998; Cecil & Lauritzen, 1994; Davies, 1990; Dodson, 2000; Elgar, 2002; Ernst-Slavit & Wengner, 1998; Fox, 1987; Gasparro & Falletta, 1994; Gassin, 1986; Maley & Duff, 1978; Miccoli, 2003; Nimmon, 2007; Smith, 1984; Starr, 2001; Via, 1976, 1981; Wessels, 1991). Furthermore, Dodson (2000) has asserted that in the communicative approach to language teaching, students use language for a purpose- to convey real meaning and to solve real problems. Drama is a communicative language-learning technique because it is student centered and meaning based. Dodson states that “with theatre activities, students use language in a genuine way in a context that engages them” (200, 129). It is with this goal of genuine language in mind that I chose to incorporate theater activities, including both a play-creation and a performance experience into my low-intermediate English level Interpersonal-Communications class to help students like Shoua feel more

motivated and confident in speaking up in English. I investigated the possible correlational between a drama-based instructional approach and its effects on learner motivation and attitude towards learning the target language.

The goal of this project was to measure the impact theater activities had on language attitude and motivation. Or perhaps more clearly, I tried to determine in what ways drama-creation and performance experiences affected the attitude and motivation of low-intermediate secondary ELL learners toward speaking the target language. There are many challenges in working with a group of low-intermediate language learners, many of whom have entered the academic system for the first time at the secondary level (Ernst-Slavit, et. al., 2002). How do these students perceive their progress through attitude and motivation in typical communicative activities versus dramatic-based approaches? Are these secondary ELL students aware of the state of their affective filter, including attitude and motivation, and can they comment in English or in their native language on techniques and experiences that have changed their view of speaking the target language?

Summary

In this chapter, I have focused on the drama-creation and performance experience and the ways it may impact or affect the language learning attitude of secondary English language learners. The use of theater or dramatic activities in the classroom has been documented over three decades, and yet there is little research on how it impacts the language learner in the communicative classroom context. This research is important as it will hopefully provide evidence of a means by which oral communications can be improved for our secondary ELL students. Successfully participating in dramatic

activities as part of their Inter-Communications class might impact the confidence, motivation, fluency, and attitude of ELL students in future higher level classes and may increase their skill in oral communications. With time, a change in language attitude may impact their reading and writing of English as well. Dodson supports this when she states, “Overall, these [drama] techniques require that students communicate in English to succeed. At the same time, they are internalizing the language, improving intonation and pronunciation, and having fun. What’s more, these activities can serve as a springboard to writing and to other skills” (2000, 138).

Chapter Overviews

In Chapter One I introduced my research project by establishing the purpose, significance, and need for the study. The context of the study was briefly introduced as was the role, assumptions, and biases of the teacher-researcher. The background of the researcher was provided. In Chapter Two I provide a review of the literature relevant to the issues surrounding secondary language learner attitude towards speaking the target language, briefly relate the history of using drama for educational purposes, and discuss common techniques for using drama in the language classroom. Chapter Two also seeks to provide an overview of related topics such as the communicative approach to language teaching, language factors such as attitude and motivation, common communicative strategies for secondary students, drama as it relates to the play creation and performance experience, and the history of drama in education and language learning. Finally, I examine the idea of using play creation and performance experience to affect change in secondary learner attitude towards speaking in the target language. Chapter Three

includes a description of the classroom research design and methodology that guided this study as well as the instrumentation and collection procedures used. In Chapter Four, I present the results of this study. In Chapter Five, I analyze and reflect on the data collected and I discuss the limitations of the study, implications for further research, and recommendations in the area of drama and language learning.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

This study focuses on the impact that dramatic activities have on language motivation and attitude. In this chapter, I explore both historic underpinnings and previous research. I start by looking at general factors affecting language learning, followed by a thorough examination of language attitude and motivation, focusing on the works of Dörnyei (1998, 2001, 2006), Gardner (1991, 1994, 2003). The current pedagogical concept of motivation and anxiety relating to language learning is explored as well as the connection between motivation, anxiety and individual differences (ID) theories (Dörnyei, 2006). I describe both traditional and non-traditional methods within the communicative teaching context. This is followed by an in- depth analysis of drama, including a brief history of drama in education and techniques most often used in theater as well as techniques which may be used to combine drama and language teaching.

As implied earlier, communicative strategies such as using drama and the theater arts in the language classroom have wide-spread support from language instructors, but there is little research to support that theory (Ernst-Slavit, et. al., 2002). Most teachers rely on informal observation and anecdotal evidence to support the use of theater techniques. There are a number of articles which support using drama in the language classroom, including several texts with “how to” instructions including, but not limited to: Bernal (2007), Bird (1979), Bolton & Heathecote (1994), Butt (1998), Colman

(2005), Davies (1990), Dodson (1990), Ernst-Slavit, & Wenger (1998), Fox (1987), Gassin (1986), Landay (2005), Maley, & Duff (1978), Mandell, & Wolf (2003), Miccoli (2003), Ressler (1990), Song (2000), Spolin (1986), Stern (1985), Taylor (2000), and Via (1976). If one used the drama methods described in these texts with ESL students, any possible changes in motivation could be documented in a variety of ways. Are students able to articulate any reasons why dramatic activities may have impacted their language learning? This begins to demonstrate the need for continued study in this area of how to affect motivation and attitude in regards to the field of second language acquisition research.

Factors Affecting Language Learning

The acquisition of language is a complex task. This section will serve as a general overview of factors affecting language learning. As a teaching method cannot be separated from the context and background of the teacher and student participants, one must first look at the whole learner and the educational and social variables which can lead to different rates of language acquisition and different reactions to various language teaching methodologies. According to Lightbown and Spada (2006), factors influencing second language learning include cognitive influences, motivational influences, social influence, and instruction. Cognitive influences include factors such as knowledge of the first language, linguistic analysis capacity, memory and others. Motivational influences can include interest in the second language, value of the second language to the learner and positive affect toward speakers of the second language. Social influences include opportunities to interact with second language speakers and to be able to access useful

feedback from these second language speakers. Finally, instructional factors can include everything from classroom environment, context, quantity and quality of instruction, the design of the program, lessons, and method delivery (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). There is interplay among all these mentioned variable factors, which then in theory lead to the proficiency level of language acquisition by the learner. The first variable discussed in following section is the theory of multiple intelligences.

Multiple Intelligences

In Gardner's socio-educational model (1985), the major learner variables include the following: intelligence, language aptitude, language learning strategies, language attitudes and motivation, and language anxiety. These affect second language attainment in formal and informal learning contexts (Dörnyei, 2001b). While Gardner himself does not purport that the above model is the final word in language acquisition learner variables, most SLA researchers agree that there is interplay among them. Intelligence here refers to multiple intelligences. Gardner gives this definition and explanation of intelligence: "Intelligence is a learner's innate ability to retain and attain learning, and also any past learning experience which has allowed the language learner to make connections and retain learning" (Gardner, 2001, 7). The identified intelligences in each academic area are in the following areas: linguistic, logical-mathematical, musical, bodily-kinesthetic, naturalistic, interpersonal (ability to interact with the feelings, beliefs, and intentions of others), and intrapersonal (the ability to understand oneself, including emotions, desires, strengths, and vulnerabilities and the ability to use such knowledge to regulate one's own life). Generally, it is agreed that involving more intelligences in an

activity may mean that a greater number of learners will acquire a certain skill. This is related to the differentiation of instruction (Gutherie, 2003). Interestingly, the kind of ability measured by traditional IQ tests may be a strong predictor when it comes to language analysis and the learning the rules governing language, but be far less of a predictor in classrooms which focus on communication and interaction in language learning (Lightbown, & Spada, 2006). This is in part due to an individual's use of learning strategies and learning styles, which are described in the next section.

Use of Learning Strategies and Learning Styles

Factors in language acquisition include language aptitude, language learning strategies and styles, attitude, and motivation. Language aptitude refers to a learner's innate ability to acquire language as well as any learned skill or practice that has led the learner to make connections and retain language. Language aptitude can be related to language learning strategies and styles in that learners who have a high perception of self-efficacy are more likely to engage in strategies that assist them in their language learning and fit both the context of the learning situation as well as their personal preference or style of learning (Ehrman, Leaver, & Oxford (2003). Language learning strategies are systems or techniques that learners use to attain and retain a target language as well as the strategic implementation of these strategies at proper moments (Gutherie, 2003). They are related to learning strategies needed in other disciplines, but are specifically based on the need to acquire and communicate using language as a vehicle. Much research has been done in this area regarding how learners use language they have acquired and how language learners acquire new language learning strategies (Ehrman, et. al. (2003).

Common strategies most often employed by low-proficiency ESL learners include cognitive strategies such as repetition or memorization. They are less likely to use metacognitive strategies such as cooperative work (Griffiths, 2003).

Language learning strategies work in conjunction with learning styles. In other words, “styles are made manifest by learning strategies” which are overt learning behaviors or actions (Ehrman, et. al., 2003, 315). Language learning styles and strategies are interrelated. The term “learning style” refers to an individual’s natural, habitual, and preferred way of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills. There are many questions about how learning styles interact with language learning, though the safest assumption seems to be that the styles used in language learning operate to a certain degree separately from a general aptitude for learning or overall IQ and so can be considered separate entities (Lightbown, & Spada, 2006).

Ehrman, Leaver, and Oxford (2003) name six language learning strategies. An individual can use any combination of these strategies to complete a language learning task. Strategies specific to language learning are: 1) cognitive, 2) metacognitive, 3) memory related, 4) compensatory, 5) affective, and 6) social (Ehrman, et. al., 2003, 316-317). Cognitive strategies are those used to manipulate language material in direct ways as in note-taking. Metacognitive strategies are those used to manage the overall learning process as in knowledge of one’s own learning style preferences. Memory-related strategies are those which help an L2 learner link one concept or word to another but do not necessarily involve deep understanding. An example of this would be images and key words. The fourth strategy is compensatory. The purpose of a compensatory

strategy is to help navigate missing knowledge as in circumlocution. Affective strategies assist in helping learners manage their emotions and motivation levels. This is of special interest to this study and includes identifying one's own mood and anxiety levels.

According to Ehrman and associates (2003), "L2 performance anxiety is often highly related to motivation" and as such is related to the purpose of measuring motivation in this study (320). The social strategy, finally, enables the learner to learn via interaction with others and understand the target culture (Ehrman, et. al., 2003). Strategies are considered neutral, neither good nor bad, until an individual either successfully completes an identified language learning task or not. A competent individual would be able to use a correctly selected strategy depending on the task, the context, and the individual's learning style preference.

Gardner (2001) uses the term Other Non-Motivational Factor to describe language learning strategies. These factors can influence achievement in language learning contexts by providing schema and techniques to help learn the material. These factors are "most often employed by motivated individuals," and so there is a correlation between strategy usage and motivation to learn a language (Gardner, 2001, 10). Other Non-Motivational Factors combined with language learning styles and several other factors and influences have led to the development of Individual Differences research and theory.

Individual Differences

Another factor is that of individual differences and their affect on language learning outcomes. Dörnyei (2006) purports that individual differences (IDs) have been

found to be consistent predictors of success in second language acquisition (SLA) yielding multiple correlations with language attainment in instructed settings.

Theoretically, the five most important L2 ID domains are personality, aptitude, motivation, learning styles, and learning strategies (Dörnyei, 2006). At this time, IDs have been the subject of various published works, including that of Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels (1994), Dörnyei (2006), Gardner (2003), and others. Guthrie (2003) suggests that all these influences covary with other factors such as age, status of the learner, and reasons for learning the L2. This does not mean that the age of the learner necessarily impacts the language fluency attained by the learner, but simply suggests that at different developmental stages different influences can have the greatest impact. Individual differences and factors that influence language learning when taken together based on either model, that from Gardner (1985) or the adapted model by Dörnyei (2006b), simply become tools and predictors that researchers and teachers can examine to assist language learners.

Attitude and Motivation as Factors Affecting Language Acquisition

Motivation and attitude can be defined in various ways. At times researchers will use the two terms interchangeably or use one definition to cover both concepts in a single attitude/motivation index (Baker, et. al., 2003). Still others attempt to define how attitude and motivation differ (Dörnyei, 2001b; Kline, 2007; Laine, 1987, 1988). For the purposes of this literature review, I discuss both attitude and motivation and how each relates to language learning because they can be defined as conceptually separate. In the actual study, the terms will be relatively related but again conceptually separate because

of the sensitivity of the data collection tool used. However, the perceived correlation of attitude and motivation is so great as to make studying the differences between them very difficult and perhaps unnecessary within the scope and time frame of this present research (Dörnyei, 2001b). There is so much about them that happens in an internally unobservable moment that the difference between attitude and motivation is not always possible to document in an actual study. This study mainly focuses on individual differences as exhibited by changes motivation and attitude.

Motivation and Language Acquisition

Motivation is, in a general sense, “the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby the initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized, operationalised, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out” (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998, p. 65). Motivation is the choice of action, the persistence to carry out the action, and the effort expended in the process. It is why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to try to sustain an activity, and how hard they work to pursue a perceived goal. Motivation itself can account for every decision to act that a human being makes (Dörnyei, 2001b). Since our students are human, motivation is also reflected in our classrooms in every subject area including language learning. For example, those students who are highly motivated to learn English are often those who decide on actions that bring them closer to that goal. Usually, these are the learners who expend more effort both practicing and perfecting their language usage.

Two types of motivation factor into language learning. One is the learner's communicative needs and the other is the learner's attitude towards the second language community (Lightbown, & Spada, 2006). These two types of motivation, which are integral to language learning, are referred to as integrative and instrumental motivation, a term coined by Gardner and Lambert in 1972 (Krashen, Scarcella, & Long, 1982). Integrative motivation to learn a language stems from the learner's desire to become integrated into the L2 community or to be like members of the target language community. Instrumental motivation, on the other hand, has as its goal using the language primarily for some practical or utilitarian purpose such as getting a job (Gardner, 1985). Some research has shown either integrative or instrumental motivational factors to be more influential in determining eventual language acquisition while other research has been inconclusive or has shown instrumental motivational factors to be the stronger variable (Gardner, 1982). Recently, integrativeness was found to be the most powerful general component of a language-related affective disposition, determining language choice and the general level of effort the students intended to invest in the learning process (Dörnyei, 2001b, p. 51). Both integrative and instrumental motivations factor into the ultimate level of language acquisition (Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

Demotivation

Often it seems that students themselves are not aware of their own motivation, or conversely, of their state of demotivation, or of specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioral intention or an ongoing action (Dörnyei,

2001b, p. 143). Students might experience negative de-energizing factors which are not at all uncommon in the second language classroom leading to demotivation. Major studies in the area of demotivation include Oxford (1998), Ushioda (1998) and Dörnyei (1998). All three studies concluded that demotivation factors were primarily related to teaching methods and learning tasks. For example, using old-fashioned teaching materials and not giving clear instructions were two areas of frustration for language students. In her 1998 study, Oxford carried out content analysis of essays written by about 250 American students at the secondary level who responded to prompts about their learning experiences over the past five years. In language acquisition, Oxford found the main reasons for student demotivation to have been the following: (a) the teacher's personal relationship with the students, (b) the teacher's attitude towards the course or material, (c) style conflicts between the teachers and students, or (d) the nature of the classroom activities (1998). These factors demonstrate the relationship between language students and the language teacher. For example, when attempting a new instructional or motivational language acquisitional strategy, a teacher must be aware and attuned to the possible positive or negative motivational outcome. Studies by Oxford (1998), Ushioda (1998), and Dörnyei (1998) all conclude that the teacher and learner must communicate to resolve issues of demotivation.

The process model of motivation developed by Dörnyei (2001a) accounts for the various changes in motivation and action that can occur along the path of language learning. The first stage is referred to as "choice motivation" and involves getting started and setting goals. The second stage is "executive motivation" and involves carrying out

the necessary tasks to maintain and sustain motivation. The third and final stage of the cycle is that of “motivation retrospection” and refers to students’ appraisal of and reaction to their performance (Dörnyei, 2001a). This in turn can lead to a renewal of language goals or changes in language learning goals which is also called the choice motivation phase). These phases of motivation can help explain the complexity inherent in sustaining language learning over the years it can take to become fluent in a target language.

Motivation Changes

Inherent in the concept of motivation is the challenge of the time element and what impact time has on the motivation to learn another language. The two most important aspects surrounding the relevancy of time to motivation for language learning are that (1) motivation to do something usually evolves gradually through a complex mental process and that (2) a sustained, long-term activity such as mastering an L2 is not characterized by sustained constant motivation. Rather, motivation is the appraisal, reappraisal, and balancing of all internal and external influences by the individual learner. These fluctuations can occur over the days, months, or years of a language acquisition process (Dörnyei, 2001a). Based on the theory of motivation as set forth by Dörnyei, it would seem that fluctuations in motivation can be expected. Motivation is also affected by classroom influences as well as by individual learner attributes and experiences. Theoretically, it would seem that students would learn more of a target language when their motivational factors are consistently operating at a high level. Motivation is an inherently subjective, internal process that is not directly observable. According to

Dörnyei (2001b), there are three main issues in motivation research: 1) motivation is abstract and observable, 2) motivation is a multi-dimensional construct, and 3) motivation is inconsistent and changes dynamically over time. Through the triangulation of data and use of specific tools, these pitfalls were minimized as much as possible in the current study.

Attitude and Language Acquisition

Attitude commonly is defined as what someone thinks or believes, either positively or negatively, about something. In this case, attitude also refers to the behavior and the manner of acting, as well as the feeling or opinion a learner has toward either the target language, target culture, speakers of the target language, or the language learning situation. I will not attempt to discuss how an overall attitude towards school and learning might affect learner attitude towards language learning because language in itself is a subject distinct from all others. (One reason why is that learner attitude towards the target language is difficult to separate from other cultural and social factors).

A current widely accepted theory in SLA is that a learner's attitude toward to the facets of language learning affects the method, speed, and effectiveness of his or her language acquisition experience. At this same time, researchers have been calling for the need for more empirical research to expand the motivational construct (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994a). Dominant attitudes which can influence language learning include attitudes toward L2 speakers, integrative orientation, the interest the learner has in learning foreign and second languages, the attitude the learner has toward the L2 course, and the instrumental orientation of the learner (Dörnyei, 2001a). Attitude toward the

speakers of the L2 can have both a positive and negative aspect. A major factor that determines motivation is learner attitude toward the learning situation which includes attitudes towards the teacher and the course (Dörnyei, 2001b). This means that the predominant L2 speaker who can affect learner motivation is the teacher, professor, or lecturer of the L2 class. In other words, the attitude of the student towards the teacher motivates the students' performance in the subject area (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). This socio-linguistic factor can be viewed from a global perspective as well by looking at what languages are most often taught or sponsored by parents and school districts. Integrative orientation, then, is having a positive disposition toward the L2 group and a "willingness to be like other members of the [target] language community" (Dörnyei, 2001a, 49). Instrumental orientation or goal setting, on the other hand, involves tasks that a learner can accomplish as a result of learning the target language. Instrumental orientation involves the "potential pragmatic gains" that occur if the L2 is learned (Dörnyei, 2001a, 49). Learner attitude toward the acquisition of a second language such as English is a varied and complex component in the factors affecting language acquisition.

Attitude, Motivation, and Second Language Learning

Gardner (1985) proposed a theory in which the relationship between motivational factors to learn a language was made up of three parts: (1) motivational intensity, (2) desire to learn the language, and (3) attitudes toward learning the language. After two subsequent remodelings of this motivational theory to include social-cognitive grounded theory and expectancy-value or goal theory, the socio-educational model was published

in 1995 by Tremblay and Gardner. Gardner's (1995) socio-educational model involves the relationship of five attitude and motivation variables: integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation, integrative orientation, and instrumental orientation. Research has shown that these factors are related to language learning, but the distinctions between them are not always as clear in the learning environment as they are in the research context. In particular, the motivation component was previously conceptualized as a stable factor.

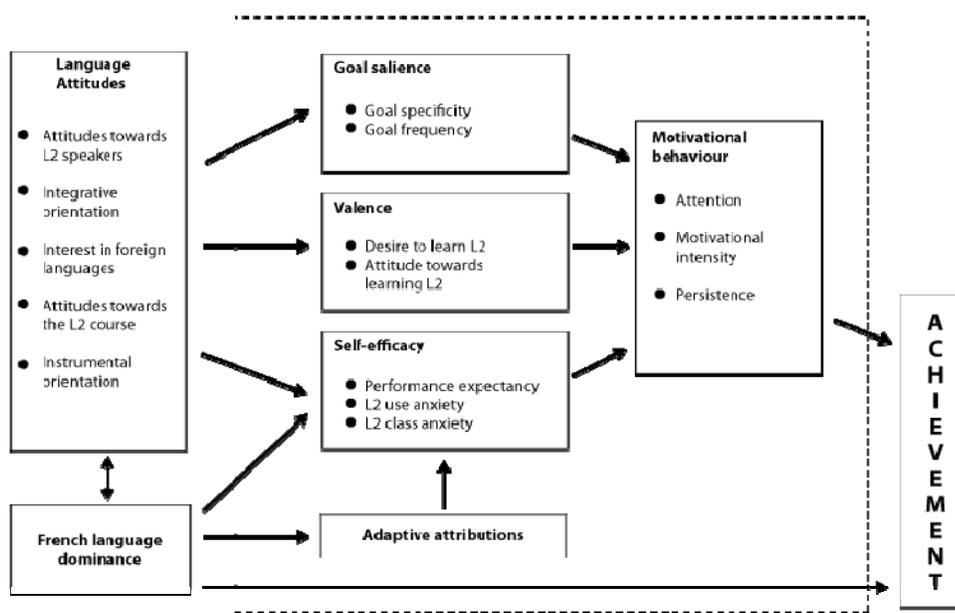


Figure 2.1 Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) model of L2 Motivation

In recent years, Dörnyei has developed the concept of motivation in a process-orientated model that consists of three phases (as cited in Lightbown and Spada, 2006). Dörnyei suggests that language attitudes influence motivational behavior. This in turn

leads to a language achievement sequence(2001b). Figure 2.1 represents the proposed model which was tested on a sample of French learners. This figure depicts the relational role between language attitudes and motivational aspects. Language attitude can influence language motivation on a first and second tiered level, thus leading through motivation to achievement (Dörnyei, 2001b, 54).

The idea that high motivation and a positive attitude toward learning the target language affect language learning is the basis for Figure 2.1. Most SLA professionals agree to the correlational principle underlying attitude, motivation, and language learning though the degree to which they may affect language achievement is still up for debate in relationship to other individual differences and factors in language learning (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). This current study involved measuring changes in motivation over time and investigated how these changes may be concurring with any possible changes in language achievement.

Relevant Studies of L2 Motivation

A recent study relevant to this current research includes a meta-analysis study of attitude, motivation, and second language learning which focused on the previous research of Gardner and associates. The meta-analysis was conducted by Gardner and Masgoret (2003). The meta-analysis used the Attitude and Motivation Battery Test, or AMTB. The AMTB is the survey used to measure the major components of Gardner's (1985, 2000) socio-educational model. The model presupposes that the two correlated variables that support an individual's language learning are integrativeness and attitude, and that these two factors are related to language learning achievement indirectly through

motivation. Thus motivation is the major measurable factor affecting language learning achievement (Gardner and Masgoret, 2003). The AMTB is comprised of eleven subtests, nine of which involve assessments of attitudinal and motivational variables and two of which measure reasons for learning another language. The AMTB is the most commonly used questionnaire for studying motivation and language learning, though it is not universal as it is necessary to continually adapt it to the socio-specific environment in which it is being given (Dörnyei, 2001b).

The meta-analysis study examined 75 independent samples and 10,489 individuals who had been involved in previous studies conducted by Gardner and various associates. Two additional variables were also included: the availability of the language community and the age level of the students to see if they had any moderating effects on the correlation between attitude, motivation, and language learning. The study examined three hypotheses: 1) that the relationships between second language achievement and the variables of motivation, attitude, and language learning orientation are consistently positive and that motivation shows the highest correlation, 2) that the relationship between attitudes, motivation, and orientations to language achievement will be stronger in second language than in foreign language environments, and 3) that the relationships between achievement and the motivational variables vary as a function of whether or not students are in elementary school, secondary school, or university level classes. The method was data analysis of 75 independent studies which were included after considering the criteria for inclusion, other recorded variables, data transformations, moderator analysis and analytic procedures.

The results of the study show that the five variables of the socio-educational model are all positively related to achievement in a second language. The results also demonstrate that motivation is the most highly related of these variables. Lastly, the findings of the meta-analysis are that the availability of a specific language learning environment (English as a Second Language or English as a Foreign Language instruction) is not moderated to any great degree by the age or immediate environment of the learners. The AMTB as a research tool was found to have been reliable (Gardner and Masgoret, 2003). This being said, Dörnyei (2001b), Lightbown, and Spada (2006) caution against assumptions made as to the cause of these correlations and call attention the fact that the AMTB can only accurately measure what is included in the questions. Gardner and Masgoret conclude by calling for more research looking at “comparable variables” in language learning (2003, 159).

Bernaus, Masgoret, Gardner, and Reyes (2004) conducted a study using the AMTB. This study involved measuring attitude and motivation for learning language in secondary multicultural classrooms such as the one involved in this paper. The multicultural classroom which participated in the study by Bernaus and associates was located in Spain. A total of 114 students between the ages of twelve and sixteen answered a questionnaire based on the AMTB designed to assess their attitudes, motivation, and anxiety towards learning Catalan, Spanish, and English. In the study, 34.2% of the students were natives of Spain, 10.5% came from South American countries, 31.6% came from African countries, and 23.7% came from Asian countries. Of these students, 26.3% reported having lived in Spain for 1-3 years, 22.8% had been

living in Spain for 4-6 years, and 50.9% reported having lived in Spain for over 6 years (Bernaus, et. al., 2004). The students also completed self-ratings of their language achievement in each of the three languages. It is important to note that the components of attitude, motivational effort, and anxiety as related to language learning were considered to define a single factor in terms of language learning for the purposes of this study. The reason was that these factors have proven to be “highly inter-related” (Bernaus, et. al., 2004). Furthermore, this study is seminal because it involves the measure of a motivational concept of language learning in relation to multicultural students and multilingual environments.

The results of the AMTB and student self-rating of language achievement were interesting as students reported equally positive attitudes toward English and Spanish but not toward Catalan. Students also expressed higher levels of anxiety when called upon to use English and Catalan than when asked to use Spanish. These findings suggest that students “hold more negative attitudes towards and are less motivated to learn Catalan than the other two languages” (Bernaus, et. al., 2004, 82). This is significant because it leads to the idea that motivational variables leading to achievement in a given target language are dependent on the individual’s attitude and social concept of that specific language. Furthermore, it could be that while an individual is fluent in multiple languages, their differing attitude and motivation related to each additional language affects their achievement in each language independently. In multicultural classrooms, the study of motivation, attitude, anxiety, and language achievement become increasingly complex. In other words, in Gardner’s socio-educational model, it is unclear “whether or

not integrative motivation is a somewhat general characteristic of individuals that applies to many different languages or is specific within individuals to a given language” (Bernaus, et. al., 2004, 87). Related to the current study, motivation to learn English is affected by the social role that English plays in the lives of students from various backgrounds, the number of languages spoken, and demonstrated language ability.

Clement, Dornyei, and Noels (1994) studied the relationship between motivation and the verbal language output of middle school and high school ESL learners. They found that older students tend to be more motivated in learning environments that provide opportunities for peer interaction, creativity, and autonomy. Exploring ways to increase student motivation to learn a target language should then involve these factors. The next section looks at ways that the classroom professional can use strategies that take motivation and attitude into account by supporting meaningful context and language, thereby allowing for opportunities in peer interaction, individual or community creativity, and student autonomy.

Attitude and Willingness to Communicate

A learner’s ‘willingness to communicate’ (WtC) has also been related to anxiety. According to some researchers, a learner’s ability to communicate in a L2 context is because of their prior language learning and the development of their self-confidence (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). This confidence is based both on a lack of anxiety as well as a sufficient level of communicative competence from a series of positive second language learning experiences. The concept of WtC is related to motivation and attitude towards language learning, and can be measured in much the same way that motivation

and attitude are measured using the AMTB. The difference is that WtC, which is the speaker's perceptions of competence along with the level of communication apprehension, is related to each given situation that the individual speaker experiences (Baker, Clément, Donovan, and MacIntyre, 2003b). It is the reason why some learners achieve a high level of competence, and yet remain hesitant in communicative situations. "L2 self-confidence is often related to motivational processes and goals", thereby linking WtC to a broader framework of motivation (Baker, et. al., 2003b, 591).

There is a measure of Willingness to Communicate based on each individual's experience that will factor into the present study, and relate to the data measured using the Attitude and Motivation Test Battery questionnaire. The self-confidence gained through activities used in the study could positively affect the students' WtC in English and result in increased intercultural behavior both inside and outside the classroom, as was the result of the study by Shimizu, Yashima, and Zenuk-Nishide (2004). The 2004 study investigated the idea that a student's self-confidence and WtC would affect their frequency of communication. The study was in a questionnaire format and was administered to two groups of high school aged students, with 166 students participating in the Japanese group and 46 participating in the American group. Two questionnaires were administered to each group pre- and post- sojourn (experience). The initial data collected showing WtC significantly correlated with the frequency of communication and an increase in communicative self-confidence (Shimizu, et. al., 2004). This increase could then lead to more competence and confidence in using English for communication, and affect motivation as measured by changes in L2 proficiency.

The Communicative Approach to Language Teaching

Since the influences of attitude and motivation on language learning often are affected by the context of the learning, some discussion of the communicative approach to language teaching and its influences on language learning are necessary for this research. Problems students often experience when trying to speak and learn a language can often include language-based problems as well as problems of a more psychological nature. Some examples include insufficient knowledge of colloquial and social English, misuse of prosodic features, lack of control of voice (including volume, pitch, and related breathing patterns), lack of self-confidence, poor performance due to stress and tension, feelings of isolation and loneliness, a sense of frustration at not being able to “be themselves” in English, and finally psychological distance from English as if it remains foreign to the student as a person (Gassin, 1986). These problems may interfere with a language learner’s ability to acquire communicative competency, which is the aspect that enables the learner to send and receive messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts (Hymes, 1972 as cited in Coleman, 2005). The communicative approach emphasizes using language for interacting with others in a meaningful way. It makes use of real life situations that necessitate communication (Canale & Swain, 1979; Halliday, 1978; Ackerman, 1989). The students’ motivation to speak the target language must come from their desire and need to communicate and share in a meaningful learning environment, akin to that in which one learns a first language (Krashen, 1982).

The Communicative Approach is a broad approach to language learning and teaching that focuses on teaching through the communicative functions of language. It is most often defined by a list of general features, such as: (1) an emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language, (2) the introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation, (3) the provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language but also on the learning management process, (4) an enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning, (5) an attempt to link classroom language learning with language activities outside the classroom (Nunan, 1991 as cited in Brown, 2007). This description of the broad Communicative Approach, or Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), does allow for language educators to embed these features within other methods of language teaching.

A theoretical approach to language learning that is compatible with CLT is Stephen Krashen's second language acquisition theory model (Brown, 2007). This model includes five hypotheses: (1) the acquisition-learning hypothesis, (2) the monitor hypothesis, (3) the natural order hypothesis, (4) the input hypothesis, and (5) the affective filter hypothesis. The first three are central to the organization of a language program using either the Natural Approach or the Communicative Approach. The latter two, the input and affective filter hypothesis, may help determine what actually happens on a day-to-day basis in a second language classroom (Brown, 2007). The notion of the affective filter assumes that the affective variables of motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety have profound influence on language learning and teaching (Krashen, 1982). These three

variables could also be thought of as the integrative factors surrounded by the foreign language and/or L2 community, attitudes toward the learning situation such as the classroom and the teacher, and motivation to learn the language (Dörnyei, 2001b). The theory, then, is that students will acquire a language best when they are in an environment which provides a low or weak affective filter (low anxiety, high motivation and positive self-confidence) and a high amount of comprehensible input, with the understanding that language acquired is always subject to individual differences (Dörnyei, 2006; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994; Krashen, 1982). The communicative approach is when the intention is to create activities which utilize an ideal environment for language learning. This is accomplished by focusing on meaning in order to lower the affective filter, and by doing so decrease anxiety, build a positive attitude, and increase motivation within the language learner.

Recent support for the communicative approach has come from the rapidly advancing field of brain research. Neuroimaging research refers to PET scans and MRI scans that reveal significant disturbances in the brain's learning circuits and chemical messengers when subjects are studied in stressful learning environments (Willis, 2006). In particular, the amygdala becomes overstimulated by stress, and in that overstimulated or hypermetabolic state, information cannot pass from sensory awareness into the memory connection and storage regions of the brain. Stress in the classroom or elsewhere, especially when associated with anxiety or fear, releases a chemical called TMT, or trimethyltin, into the brain. TMT disrupts brain cell development. When it is present in brain regions during short stressful periods, there is impaired short-term

memory and work efficiency. Willis' research has supported his statement that, "after extended periods of stress, TMT is associated with reduction in long-term memory storage and retrieval, motivation, and creative problem solving. While students under stress may appear to work harder, the quality of their work decreases" (2006, 59).

One of the recommended strategies to combat bad stress includes physical movement as in physical games and the Total Physical Response teaching technique also known as TPR and TPR Storytelling. It is the goal of the communicative approach to create a comfortable learning environment where communication is valued, and methods used in this approach seek to combat a stressful environment or relationships. The benefits of the communicative approach have long been noted, and the positive brain research to support it should come as no real surprise (Coleman, 2005, Willis, 2006). It could be that social processes in a social context allow those students who have been silenced to speak again. Lowering of the affective-filter, and, as a result increasing self-esteem, self-confidence, and spontaneity are things that reduce inhibitions, feelings of alienation, and sensitivity to rejection (Kao & O'Neill, 1998; Stern, 1980; Via, 1976 as cited in Dodson, 2000). Most importantly, students in a communicative centered classroom learn language which may allow them to communicate in real world contexts.

Measuring Communication in the Language Classroom

The next section will provide a framework for measuring and qualifying communication within the language classroom, with the assumption that learning the language is the primary goal of often differing instructional styles. Communicative, content-based, and task-based instructional styles can show different emphasis on

interaction and language use. Communicative language teaching should fall under the communicative and creative side of classroom communication. The goal is for communication to be less scripted and manipulated. The place of an activity within the context for language learning is often determined by the focus of the teacher in the implementation of a strategy as well as the language level of the ELL students.

A current version of this concept in relation to the classroom language learning environment can be found in Lightbown and Spada (2006, 111). Figure 2.2 represents the characteristics of differing types of contexts for language learning. There are three main types of language learning environments which represent a continuum of experience for the average language learner. Within the chart, a pattern of instruction should emerge which fits within the framework of the following instructional types.

Characteristics	Natural Acquisition	Structure-based Instruction	Communicative Instruction
Learning one thing at a time		X	X
Frequent feedback on errors		X	X
Ample time for learning	X		X
High ratio of native speakers to learners	X		X
Variety of language and discourse types	X		X
Pressure to speak		X	X
Access to modified instruction		X	X

(Lightbown and Spada, 2006, 111)

Figure 2.2 *Contexts for Language Learning*

The first type is the natural acquisition setting where language is not presented step-by-step, learners' errors are rarely corrected, the learner is surrounded by the language for many hours each day, the learners observe or participate in many different kinds of language events, encounter a number of different people who use the target language proficiently, and modified input is available in many one-to-one conversations but the learner might have difficulty getting access to language that he or she can understand. A natural acquisition environment is one most like that in which a native language is learned.

The second type is the structure-based instructional environment, where the language is taught to a group of second or foreign language learners. This instruction is typified by study of the language itself. In structure-based instruction, language items are presented in isolation, errors are frequently corrected, learning is limited to a few hours a week, students experience a limited range of discourse, the teacher is often the only native or proficient speaker the students have contact with, the students often feel pressure to speak or write correctly in the target language from the very beginning, and often teachers modify the target language to ensure comprehension.

The third type of language instruction is that of the communicative instructional setting. In the communicative context, language input is simplified to make input comprehensible by using contextual clues, props, and gestures rather than structured gradients. There is a limited amount of error correction with emphasis on meaning over form. Learners have a limited time for learning the target language, and as in the structure-based approach the teacher is often the only proficient native speaker.

However, a variety of discourse types may be introduced including the use of authentic materials and role-play as is common in the natural approach. Modified input is the most important aspect of communicative instruction so that learners are sure to achieve understanding, and learners from different language backgrounds may have to modify their own language so that they can be understood. Finally, there is little pressure to perform at high levels of accuracy, and there is an inverse emphasis on comprehension at the beginning levels with a focus on production at the advanced levels (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). Studies have shown that the type of approach that is used successfully is most “dependent on the motivation of the language learners” which led to the development of communicative approaches to support students in ordinary school programs (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, 140). This study will center on CLT as opposed to natural or structure-based approaches for this reason.

Common Communicative Instructional Strategies

This section will describe a few common communicative instructional strategies that one might find in a language classroom centered on the approach. These six techniques are often used by teachers to promote meaning-based language acquisition and communication in the target language:

1. Academic Scaffolding
2. Total Physical Response (TPR)
3. Role Play
4. Realia
5. Dialogue Journals
6. Information Gap (Savignon, 1983).

All six of these techniques involve a student-centered approach in which the teacher talks less and the students talk more. All six techniques are examples of ways the communicative approach can be implemented in the classroom context (White, 1989). There are also potentially limitless activities and contexts which can be created by individual instructors to suit the communicative needs of their language classroom and context. The six techniques described here, as well as other potential techniques, are keys to putting CLT into practice.

The first technique is academic scaffolding (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2005). This is the building of students' ability in a step-by-step process including these linked tenets of (a) modeling language, (b) using visuals, gestures, and demonstrations to convey meaning and (c) facilitating hand-on learning. Just as tangible scaffolding is created around a building as a support structure while the building is constructed, the academic scaffolding techniques mentioned above are used to create meaningful experiences for students which are connected to instructional goals. Academic scaffolding can be related to the principles of sheltered instruction. It can be used to teach content as well as language, often simultaneously.

The second technique, TPR, involves the use of physical response in order to increase meaningful learning opportunities and language retention. In 2000, Asher, who developed TPR, stated that it encourages student motivation, participation, and learning by engaging them in physical activities such as performing a skit and playing games (as cited in Coleman, 2005). While not initially part of most ESL learners' classroom expectations, adult ESL students have been found to react positively to engagement in

language learning through the use of TPR movement and storytelling (Braunstein, 2006). It is thought that language learning is strengthened when movement is integrated because it is closer to the natural way that humans acquire language, and so is a part of the natural approach for second language acquisition (Krashen, 1982). However, it differs from the natural approach in that the material gradually increases in complexity so that each new lesson builds on the one previous and in this way differs in one very important aspect from Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). In short, TPR lets students increase knowledge in the language with minimum amounts of nervousness to speak.

The third technique of Role Play involves students creating dialogue surrounding an issue or context. It is often used in texts and course books as a formal (academic) or informal (social) method of encouraging communication. It often follows an A/B format, in which one speaker is A ("How are you today?") and one speaker is B ("I'm fine, thanks. How are you?"). It is a familiar format for most language teachers. It is popular in part because it readily provides a reason for student-student communication and can be made more or less manipulative or communicative as needed. Role play also fulfills the need for co-operative rather than competitive goals, ones where students must work together in order to complete a task or solve a problem. It has been found that co-operative work such as role play and also group work increase the self-confidence of students, include weaker ones, because every participant in such a task has an important role to play (Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

The fourth and widely accepted form of the communicative approach in language teaching is that of the use of realia where teachers use real, concrete or semi-concrete objects to create connections with vocabulary words, stimulate conversation, and build background knowledge. The realia acts as a stimulus for language and communication, and bridges the gap between the classroom and real-world contexts. Realia can be used as a tool in motivating students into the opening stages of a lesson and within transitions, it has been observed that realia can lead to higher levels of interest on the part of the students (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). Realia also helps with varying the activities, tasks, and materials used. Lessons that always consist of the same routine, pattern, and format have been shown to lead to “decrease attention and lead to boredom” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, 65).

The fifth technique mentioned above is dialogue journals, also known as interactive journals. They provide teachers and students an opportunity to engage in meta-cognitive strategies using written English. Much work in this area has been done by researchers Peyton (2000) and Reid (1997). Teachers can use journals as an assessment strategy; however journals are more meant to model cognitive processes. In the model developed by Peyton and Reid, the teacher does not evaluate or give feedback unless asked to do so by the students (Coleman, 2005).

The sixth and final technique described here is that of Information Gap exercises. In these exercises, students are divided into pairs or groups. Student A has information that student B requires and vice versa. The students must use the target language to ask for and exchange information. This method closely mirrors many real life contexts and

creates an authentic reason for communication in the target language. Communicative language classrooms may include the use of all six of these common strategies or any combination thereof. Drama as an additional communicative technique will be described in the following section in a more in-depth way.

What is Drama?

Of all the many communicative strategies in language teaching, drama is the focus of this research. The definitions of drama are as varied as the fields of study in which it is used. Teachers, motivational speakers, psychologists, thespians, and literary gurus all color the term drama with their backgrounds and experiences and the various usages of it in the field (Vardell, et.al., 2003). Such a term warrants discussion and definition. The etymology of drama is Greek, meaning “to do” or “to act” (Song, 2000). Historically, the use of dramatic art is long and varied, and at different times in history drama has enjoyed relative popularity or has been the source of scandal. This capstone will not attempt to describe the history of drama as an art, though the study of it and its uses in the classroom can be vital for all students interested in a well-rounded educational experience (Bolton, 1984).

Simply put, drama can be defined as the portrayal of an imaginary situation, or the portrayal of a “non-self” in any type of situation. A definition of drama as it relates to all fields would be “a composition in prose or verse, adapted to be acted upon a stage, in which a story is related by means of dialogue and action, and is represented with accompanying gesture, costume, and scenery, as in real life; a play” according to the *Oxford English Dictionary Online* (2008). Taken this way, with an emphasis on “as in

real life” and “a play,” drama and reality are really not that far apart, which will be of importance later in the discussion in relation to using drama as a tool to enhance real life communication in the ELL classroom.

Some may say, “Well, drama is theater,” which is only then as clear as one’s definition of the term theater. For the purposes of this paper, the term of “theater” will also be used to refer to this dramatic art. Some authors have sought to distinguish between drama and theater, with drama being the act of dramatic play and the creation effort itself without a necessary performance, and theater being dramatic play with a performance as a form of goal orientated motivation (Maley & Duff, 1979). For the purpose of this project, no such distinction between language learning activity and performance or presentation is needed, so I will use the terms drama and theater/theatre interchangeably.

Drama in Education

A description of how drama in general education and common dramatic activities and strategies are used is crucial before discussing drama as relating to a second language acquisition context. For the purposes of this capstone, I define drama as a written, acted, or oral composition created by students and acted at any level of performance.

Educational drama applies to dramatic forms to the extent they are used to achieve structured and precise educational goals (Coleman, 2005). Therefore, all class dramatic and theater activities will involve some degree of in-class presentation, either as examples or for learning purposes. There will be relatively few activities in which students will not demonstrate created content or technique within the classroom

community. Indeed, often there is a final performance for the larger school community or another class of learners.

Drama in education was greatly influenced by the works of Brian Way and Dorothy Heathcote in the 1960s and 1970s. It was then that people first began to recognize the potential of drama in the classroom, and though Way and Heathcote have seemingly diverse philosophies, they both agree on theater's role in developing intuition and celebrating each learner's uniqueness (Bolton, 1984). The greater movement towards drama in education was underscored by how drama can impact learning in the classroom. Bolton proposes that drama (1) allows for the personalizing of knowledge and (2) allows for greater focus of attention to learning (Bolton & Heathcote, 1994). Individuals involved in drama and theater activities can be called actors/actresses, students, players, participants, and performers. Performances can include one or many of the above participants. There are many facets to the traditional educational dramatic process including role playing, warm-ups, situational improvisation, role preparation, miming, puppetry, dialogue practice, voice coaching, script writing and reading, practice, other sensory development exercises, and finally performance (Coleman, 2005). Maley and Duff (1982) suggest that the only way for one to really understand the possibilities and power of dramatic techniques in the second language classroom are to try out different techniques with students.

Drama praxis is the educational theatre-form theory in which participants act, reflect, and then transform themselves based on the shared experiences within the drama communicative classroom. Taylor (2000) claims that "at the core of drama praxis is the

artful interplay of people, passion, and platform” (p. 1). *People* refers to the physical instrument of the theater, *passion* to the emotive stories and themes conveyed using theater, and *platform* as the setting in which an audience and actors can interact on a meaningful level. The principles of creating this interplay are central to using drama in the education classroom and are as follows:

- 1) Theater is driven by inquiry
- 2) The teacher is a co-artist
- 3) It should promote yearning for understanding
- 4) It should be well-researched
- 5) It should generate rather than transmit knowledge
- 6) It should be tightly balanced, yet flexible in structure
- 7) It pursues both engagement and detachment
- 8) It is powered by risk-taking
- 9) It is logically sequenced
- 10) It is rich in artistry (Taylor, 2000, 18-19).

These tenets can be implemented in a creative approach, or under the mantle of the expert process-orientated approach explained by Heathcote and Bolton (1984). Both creative and process drama practices can be used in a well-rounded educational program (Taylor, 2000). To help overcome students’ fear of speaking and performing, teachers will engage them in well-established beginning activities to build up both verbal and nonverbal communication skills within the dramatic context. These activities can help to build student awareness of voice, breathing, bodily communication, phrasing, articulation

and so on until students feel more confident and comfortable being “on” in front of each other and an audience. Instrumental to this awareness is the development of community within the classroom. This stage cannot be skipped and should be flexible and continuous throughout the class or project. The focus on “as in real life” should also be instrumental in the drama process in the classroom (Maley, & Duff, 1979).

Creating an Original Play

Creating original skits may be the best means through which students can apply all facets of language- reading, writing, listening, and speaking, in a creative thinking endeavor that is highly enjoyable (Cecil & Lauritzen, 1994). Mandell and Wolf (2003) describe the process in which a drama classroom can create its own work to perform. This is based on classroom research conducted through Stanford University by Mandell and Wolf (2003) as well as on Mandell’s more than twenty years experience in the field. The concept of creating original plays for students to perform is not a new one, and yet there are very few current publications which explain how to help students achieve this goal. Creating scripts is one of the most ambitious tasks that can be undertaken in drama (Cecil & Lauritzen, 1994). Mandell and Wolf (2003) provide a practical overview of ways in which this process can be completed in a step-by-step process to ensure a good transition from performing the works of others to trying their own play writing (Cecill & Lauritzen, 1994). Mandell and Wolf (2003) have stated that the creative performing arts enable students to move through five essential, often overlapping, stages of learning:

1. Using the receptive mind
2. Becoming a productive member of an ensemble

3. Creating original work
4. Using the rehearsal process
5. Performing what has been created.

These stages engage students simultaneously as performers, spectators, artists, and critics (Mandell & Wolf, 2003). A brief explanation of each stage and an activity will follow. This literature review will not attempt a full explanation of each stage nor will it cover every theater activity that could be used at each of the five stages in part because of the length of explanation required at every stage and in part because a comprehensive reference already exists in the text by Mandell and Wolf (2003).

Cultivating the Receptive Mind

A receptive mind refers to the willingness to learn as well as to how open someone is to being engaged in classroom theater. Cultivating the receptive mind is an ongoing process which can lead to enthusiastic participation, can allow students to stop and think about what is going on around them, can allow students to observe respectfully and be a good audience, can help students concentrate and stay focused, and can keep students open to new ideas for learning (Mandell & Wolf, 2003).

Becoming a Receptive Member of an Ensemble

The second stage involves becoming a receptive member of an ensemble or group of individuals working together to achieve a performance or create a product. Theater is one art which most often involves group work, and teaching students to work together involves the students taking risks, asking for and accepting help, working to bring out the best in others, working hard and being reliable, and resolving conflicts constructively a

task which sometimes involves peer mediation techniques. To teach students how to become an ensemble, teachers often use games and other activities which are designed to teach getting along with others. It is not games strictly for the sake of fun, but fun for the sake of community building (Mandell & Wolf, 2003).

Creating Original Work

The third stage involves creating original work for performance. Mandell and Wolf (2003) sum up the relationship between teachers and students in the following: “Teachers of the arts are responsible for teaching the process of creation, and students of the arts are responsible for producing creative work, and in this way we fulfill our responsibility to create for one another” (p. 65). There is no one single method for creating original plays with students. There are many creative methods, but all start with asking students to identify what is most important to them through discussion, writing, or improvisation. The folktale approach involves immigrant students telling versions of folktales familiar to them from their own personal experiences and then analyzing them for themes and deeper meanings. The folktales are then fashioned into a play along with their advisor using a mixture of English and native languages. Community elders from each respective immigrant group are invited to give feedback and comment on the authenticity of the stories. The play is then memorized and performed using some planned improvisations. This process of creation based around an issue relevant in the students’ own lives can be called an ethnodrama and can include the purpose of educating a wider community audience on a set of issues (Nimmon, 2007). This approach encourages analytical thought which requires skills including identifying, comparing,

contrasting, predicting, and prioritizing throughout their creation process (Mandell, & Wolf, 2003). In addition, when students “move from acting out the ideas of others to bringing their own thoughts to life, they experience the heady pride associated with ownership of a project from start to finish” (Cecil & Lauritzen, 1994, 75).

The Rehearsal Process

The fourth stage of the play creation process involves using the rehearsal process. Rehearsal is more than repetition and memorization; it is practicing with the intent of performing a work for an audience. Actors use the rehearsal process to memorize their (1) line cues, (2) entrances and exits, (3) choreography, (4) sequences, (5) use of props, (5) light cues, (6) and also sound cues. It also is this stage usually at which students demonstrate pre-performance anxiety (Mandell & Wolf, 2003). Students at this stage should be encouraged to self-evaluate their readiness for performance.

Performance

The fifth and final stage of the play creation experience involves performing what has been created. Performance is defined in this context as “presenting something that has been rehearsed to a group of others for the purpose of engaging them” (Mandell & Wolf, 2003, 143). It includes important aspects of learning such as: (1) reflection, (2) self-evaluation, (3) community connection, (4) publication, (5) and demonstrating thanks. These characteristics of performance are not necessarily reflected in standardized tests or class assignments. They complete the circle of communication by allowing creator and performer to engage with the feedback of the receptive audience. Students may also practice on-going reflection throughout the play creation process.

One example of an activity which can be used as part of cultivating a receptive mind in the drama classroom is introducing students to the concept of freeze, where all physical movement ceases and students hold a pose for an extended moment. This allows students to focus, think, stay “in character”, and make smooth transitions between activities. One activity that can cultivate receptivity of mind which utilizes the freeze concept is frozen sculptures. Students work together to create frozen scenes based on motivating themes, such as courage or escape to freedom. Students in the group are instructed to create a physical sculpture representing the theme without talking. The average time to create this sculpture is ten seconds. Students can work together simultaneously or can build off each other. Students can then either release the pose or complete one of four variations such as (1) focus on memory work by leaving the sculpture for eight counts and returning to the same position (2) bring it to life by having the class suggest interpretations of the sculpture and then having the performing students incorporate those suggestions into the scene with or without vocalizing (3) create a short beginning or ending for what happened either before or after that picture and either end or begin with the sculpture (4) create a series of frozen moments by moving through three or more frozen sculpture moments centering around a theme, concept, story, or character (Mandell & Wolf, 2003, 26). Many improvisational and drama in education texts include variations of this frozen sculpture activity to achieve relaxation and focus in the classroom (Bedore, 2004, Spolin, 1986, Via, 1976).

Drama in Language Learning

This section is devoted to the difference between drama as it is used in language learning as opposed to how drama is used in education in general. According to English (1985), Drama has been taking a front row seat in ESL classrooms. In the decades since English made this statement, there has been a proliferation of books, papers, and articles on how to incorporate drama in ESL and EFL classes. The use of drama in the ESL classroom can range from the most basic role play to actual performing troupes of ESL students. Why has there been a drive by language teachers to include this natural communicative practice into the language classroom? Drama can help to fill the gap between learning language in the classroom context and using it realistically in the world outside the classroom. How often have students said that they have studied a language for any number of years and yet admit to not being able to converse freely with a member from that language community in either a formal or an informal context? Drama can help by ensuring that language is used in the appropriate context (Maley & Duff, 1978). Drama seeks to create a communicative context inside the language classroom.

Drama provides situational context for authentic language exchange. Students must listen and speak with one another to accomplish a task. In other words, Drama “provides a ready-made structure for practice in listening and speaking” (Fox, 1987, p. 2). One might add that drama provides an arena for students to practice playfully and engage the language with confidence. In English classes designed for native speakers, drama can be integrated without much thought with elements of language instruction because the students are already fluent in English. Students in the traditional classroom

learn to listen with the goal of “being a good listener” as opposed to being able to understand spoken English and students learn to speak with the goal of learning to express themselves. These goals are still true in the ESL classroom, where speaking and listening goals such as improving pronunciation, volume, overall fluency, and oral comprehension can also be the aim of dramatic integration. Stern states that along with an emphasis on reading, writing, vocabulary, grammar, and target culture, these oral factors highlight the main reasons to use drama in the ESL classroom (1980).

Furthermore, drama can be used at several levels of language acquisition, including the pre-production and early production stages of language learning (Ernst-Slavit, et. al., 2002). Drama, as it will be used in the creative play process in the context of the intermediate English classroom, fits under stage three, Speech Emergence, though it can be adapted and applied to all other language acquisition stages. Effective activities to use at the speech emergence stage include demonstrations, simple oral presentations, answering higher-level questions, hand-on activities, small group work, sound-symbol production, simple writing, play and role-playing, and choral reading. Certainly the theater process works at all language acquisition levels but in varying contexts.

Ackerman’s (1989) experience developing drama-based activities for ESL students showed that students more readily expressed ideas in a visual way before they made a linguistic statement. This would be adaptable for Stage I, “Preproduction,” because students can (1) build receptive vocabulary, (2) employ face-to-face conversation techniques as in role-playing, (3) enjoy puzzles as in improvisations, (4) and participate in games such as theater warm-ups. Stage II, “Early Production,” includes activities such

as retelling a story and oral reading. Stage IV, “Intermediate Fluency,” includes activities such as analysis of literary material, and explanation of new concepts, opinions, and ideas (Ernst-Slavit, et. al., 2002). The activities highlighted in the Intermediate Fluency stage fit very well with creative theater as well as improvisation and dramatization.

Improvisational activities in this area would be summarizing a story or creating an alternate ending to a literary work. Dramatization examples include reading texts aloud with character voice or adding movement after an initial reading of a text. Dramatic activities in the ELL classroom, whether verbal or nonverbal, aim to bridge the gap between the classroom and the world outside in order to meet these effective language activity goals (Vardell, et.al., 2003).

Drama works with multiple intelligences in the language classroom (Willis, 2006). Participants should work with the area of intelligence and communicative strategy that they are most comfortable in. The receptive learner is also open to learning new language learning strategies and can strike a balance between those he or she knows well and the various intelligences used for dramatic communication (Mandell & Wolf, 2003). Cecil & Lauritzen (1994) state, “Drama... underscores an entirely different kind of intelligence that is inherently interpersonal in nature. Drama affords children the opportunity to experience the rewarding social aspects of language and nonverbal communication... it can involve children conceptualizing ideas and developing alternative ways of communicating whether the children in ESL are doing so for the first time or are native speakers seeking a new voice” (p. 70-71). This quote summarizes what many language teachers already have realized concerning drama in the language

classroom, namely that drama can increase the students' usage of language learning strategies (Stern, 2005). Indeed, of the six strategies mentioned earlier attributed to Ehrman and associates (2003), almost all of them are present in the dramatic intervention used in this study. These strategies are related to the more powerful integrative motivation factor affecting language acquisition (Baker, et. al., 2003a).

Through drama, ELLs can come to a better understanding and appreciation of both their culture and the culture(s) of the target language (Dodson, 2000). Moreover, theater can help ELLs process cultural considerations and move through the tension associated with the assimilation and acculturation process by letting the theme of adjustment be the focus of classroom interaction. Other psychological and social benefits include developing problem-solving skills, working well in groups, and taking more risks. Students explore variations in register and style, and develop conversational skills in turn taking, topic changing, and leave taking (Dodson, 2000). These skills assist them in negotiating new cultural norms associated with the target culture because they have been incorporated into drama techniques and reflected on in the classroom context. This is one more way theater techniques can assist learners by bringing the classroom and the world contexts seamlessly together (Maley & Duff, 1978).

The idea that students and teachers like integrating drama into the classroom as reported by teacher reflections is noted in several studies (Bernal, 2007; Dodson, 2000; Ernst-Slavit & Wenger, 1998; Song, 2000; Via, 1981). This is tempered by the argument that many students are skeptical of the benefits of drama in the classroom. Students may find it hard to see this fun nontraditional technique as learning. A tip for winning over

students who have difficulty in seeing drama as learning is to highlight what they are learning all along, whether it is language structure, conversational skills, vocabulary, or adapting language for specific contexts (Dodson, 2000; Ernst-Slavit, et. al, 2002).

Debriefing sessions also help to cement the learning that just took place. One activity commonly used in debriefing sessions is to ask for one or two comments from students either at the end of the lesson or at the beginning of the next one. This allows students to share impressions, observations, and activities. This sharing also increases students' awareness of their own learning and aids in the endeavor to create motivated language learners (Mandell & Wolf, 2003).

Several studies have been documented concerning the relationship between theater and the ELL adolescent/secondary or adult classroom. Coleman (2005) studied the use of a drama-based instructional program to measure its possible relationship with differences in English verbal and nonverbal proficiency. Coleman's experimental research design involved 60 adolescent Korean English language camp students who participated in a five-day intensive workshop which included dramatization and performance as its instructional focus. Coleman used a series of instruments which included a "Checklist for Evaluation of Verbal and Nonverbal Behaviors" for cognitive performance, a scaled-item questionnaire for a measure of cognitive aptitude, and an interview to measure student attitude towards drama and whether it was helpful in regard to improving their English communication skills. Coleman's research concluded that drama programs increased students' English skills, that a subsequent increased self-confidence aided learning, that the collaborative nature of drama was essential, and that

students preferred verbal-focused activities. Coleman concludes by stating that five days is not enough time to document the effects of drama activities on improving students' language (2005).

In Stern's 1980 study, she utilized a Likert scale questionnaire to determine the usefulness of drama as perceived by 24 non-native speakers enrolled in three ESL classes at the University of California Los Angeles. Results indicated that students found dramatizing scenes from plays to be somewhat useful in improving pronunciation and quite useful in improving intonation and expression, gaining self-confidence, and becoming less inhibited or embarrassed when speaking in front of a group (Stern, 1980). Stern believes that drama improves the oral competence of L2 learners by encouraging the operation of certain psychological factors, namely: motivation, self-esteem (self-confidence), spontaneity, increased capacity for empathy, and lowered sensitivity to rejection. Several educators have found that drama creates a non-threatening situation which can reduce and even eliminate sensitivity to rejection specifically with regards to older adult ELL learners (Hines, 1973; Via, 1976; Early, 1977; Cookrall, 1978; as reported in Stern, 1980). There are several possible factors contributing to the decreased tension that theater brings to the language classroom. First and foremost are focusing and ensemble-building techniques. These are an integral parts of the drama experience and are undertaken for the express purpose of encouraging risk-taking. While the focus of Stern's (1980) study was of student attitude toward dramatization of existing literary text (scenes from existing plays), role-playing, and improvisation, subsequently the focus of this study will be on the original creation process.

Techniques in Drama and Language Learning

Vital to this research is a discussion of dramatic activities which can be used in the language learning classroom. All dramatic techniques for the language classroom come with a set of basic parameters, such as the need for space, time, and proactive discipline and organization. More specifically, one should make sure that there is a large empty space available, that drama can be used anywhere it fits in the schedule (not just the last thing on Friday!) and that students are organized, having some cue from the teacher when to listen for instructions (Fox, 1987). That said, the following general techniques are those most often used when combining drama and language teaching. These techniques include using theater warm-ups, role-play, tableaux, improvisation, puppetry, and finally dramatization. I will not explain exactly how to incorporate drama in the language classroom, as there are copious sources available with this specific goal in mind. For further reference in the area of expertly engaging language students by using drama techniques in the language classroom, as well as using ready-made plays and lesson plans, please refer to the list of references contained at the end of this document. This list is by no means exhaustive, as writing in this area has been published continuously since the 1970s.

One documented method is the Rittenburg/Kreitzer technique called *English Through Drama*. First developed in 1976 by Mark Rittenburg and Penelope Kreitzer, this technique is used to teach English (Ackerman, 1989). The basic tenet of the approach is that students need to have physical, mental, emotional, and oral involvement to facilitate their SLA. By involving all faculties in an integrated process, this technique

claims to break the barriers that inhibit the learning of English (Ackerman, 1989). This program is meant to simply accompany an existing curriculum and endeavors to enable the student to approximate his use of the first language. The English Through Drama method consists of the following:

1. “Active” exercises with participants on their feet behaving in the language.
2. “Integrative” exercises with participants developing integrated skills in listening, memorization, punctuation, and grammar.
3. “Vocal” exercises to develop vocal ranges as the result of increased flexibility of voice and breathing.
4. “Communication and feedback” exercises in to allow students to learn how their communication is perceived by others. (Ackerman, 1989).

The following techniques of warm-ups, role-play, tableaux, improvisation, puppetry, and dramatization describe communicative ways teachers can engage ELL students in actively acquiring English through the use of drama as in the Rittenburg and Kreitzer technique.

Warm-ups

Warming up is essential to performance. Just as athletes need to warm up before an athletic event so do actors need to warm up before participating in theater. The use of drama in a classroom context is always benefited by regular warming up sessions. One can use traditional classroom games, theater warm-ups, or modified traditional games to encourage focus and remove the outside distractions that students may have brought with them. They can include rhythmic movement games focusing on group interaction, space

exploration, creating environments, characters, and action sequences, practice with dialogue, and practice with storytelling and story theater (Spolin, 1986). One example of a warm-up which can later function as an improvisational tool is the *blind sculpture* game (Bedore, 2004). Three of four players are blindfolded on each of two teams. The two players who are not blindfolded freeze in poses which the other blindfolded team members have to feel and then recreate based only on touch. The players recreating the pose take turns trying to match it. For added fun, a timer can be used to see who is the closest in the shortest amount of time. This warm-up can also serve to increase the energy in the classroom. Warm-ups can also include exercises for voice, breathing, articulation (lip/tongue), body, and talking/listening adapting from theater techniques (Via, 1976).

Role-play

Role-play situations involve students assuming the roles of characters and participating in a speaking activity centering on a plot, theme, or literary work. Role-play helps students develop their overall fluency by providing a great deal of practice in speaking spontaneously and are closer to real-life conversation than any other classroom activity discussed so far. Some activities using role play in the communication classroom include creating situations with characters from literature, people in professional contexts such as those in the doctor's office or at job interviews, or creating situations where one student acts as the author of a literary work with other students interviewing for point of view (Stern, 1980).

Tableaux

The goal of this activity is that “students will be able to work cooperatively in groups of three to four to create frozen life scenes and silent story scenes” (Polsky, Schindel, Tabone, 2006). As in the play creation example, there are several variations of the tableaux, or frozen picture activity. Dialogue may be added, along with transition movements between multiple tableaux pictures. Mandell & Wolf (2003) even encourage students to “freeze their eyes” while they are holding their tableaux. In another variation, instructors can also invite class discussion based on thematic interpretations.

Improvisation

According to Fox (1987), “Drama is a problem solving exercise” (p. 3). This quote sums up what might be the focus of an improvisational exercise. Students are given a task or situation and are asked to instantly create the answer to the problems inherent in the given situation. Improvisation indicates a structured activity which demands that students step into a particular situation and often into a particular character as well (Stern, 1980). For example, students can participate in a game or exercise like the *One Word Story* (Bedore, 2004). In this game, students have to work together to reach the goal of finishing a story on a topic chosen either by the group or by the audience. The challenge is that the students must do this by only telling one word at a time. Player A says, “Once” while Player B says “upon” and so on. Players must listen to each other so that they will be ready. Another creative game which inspires improvisation is to give situations such as who, what, when, and where to students on cards, and allow them to play out a situation based on characters at a well-known local location such as the

grocery store or coffee shop (Via, 1976). It also helps to remind students that improvisation is one of the oldest forms of theater, and the spontaneity required of them when improvising is akin to that required every day in real life.

Dramatization

In Stern's 1980 work she states, "Dramatization entails the acting out of written materials, either scripted material or dramatic adaptations of prose" (p. 258). Drama is, after all, about making significant meaning (Bolton, 1994). What better way to explore the meaning and theme of poetry, short story, dialogue, dramatic work, or any other genre than to bring them to life. This approach empowers students as meaning makers and displays their understanding of the text. The whole group can act out the story while it is being told by a narrator, or students can read chosen excerpts themselves accompanied by emotion or movement (Polsky, et. al., 2006). Dramatization can span descriptions of oral communication from completely manipulative as structure-based instruction to completely communicative as in natural acquisition according to Lightbown and Spada's "Contexts for Language Learning" (2006, 11). Dramatization in which students create dialogue can be considered completely communicative, due to the inclusion of elements of natural acquisition as well as structure-based instruction.

Welcome to Communication

The above research and theory underscore the importance of motivation and attitude in language learning. Maley and Duff (1982) propose that a drama based curriculum can assist in overcoming language learner resistance by making it an enjoyable experience. Hence, students gain self-confidence and the motivation to begin

to interact both inside and outside the language classroom in the target language (Coleman, 2005). Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) formed a consolidated list of recommendations for motivating students to acquire language. The recommendations for language instructors are as follows:

1. Set a personal example through your own behavior.
2. Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.
3. Present tasks properly.
4. Develop a good relationship with the learners
5. Increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence.
6. Make the language classes interesting.
7. Promote learner autonomy.
8. Personalize the learning process.
9. Increase the learner's goal-orientedness.
10. Familiarize learners with the target language culture

(Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998, 215).

The above list of ten ways to motivate students can be easily fit into a framework for dramatic activity. Using ice-breakers at the beginning of a new course and using warmers (or warm-up games) at the beginning of each class encourages people to get to know one another and breaks down rigidity, creating a welcoming and relaxed atmosphere, one in which mistakes can be made without condescension. Group discussion and interaction in role-play, improvisation, tableaux, and play creation activities make the class more interesting by creating problems which require resolution.

Making a conscious effort to increase group dynamics and promote cohesiveness can be a vehicle for achieving the above recommendations to motivate language learning. Also theater games and activities are communicative strategies which, taken within the correct language classroom context, could increase motivation and eventually language learning. Language learners need to be aware, of course, of why they are carrying out a language learning task so that factors of demotivation are not at issue (Dörnyei, 2001b).

Furthermore, theater performance will involve each learner establishing individual language-learning goals, will potentially help students build up belief in themselves as well as their own self-confidence, and will develop internal beliefs surrounding their language learning potential. Issues of both initiating and sustaining motivation can potentially be addressed by the use of the theater arts as a communicative strategy in encouraging discourse from participant to participant and from participant(s) to audience (Dörnyei, 2001b; Via, 1976).

Theater has been shown to be useful in areas of vocal training and students can also raise awareness of cultural issues as in the ethnodrama (Hardison & Sonchaeng, 2005; Nimmon, 2006). The related TPR strategies, including storytelling, have been positively received by adult learners as a communicative language strategy (Braunstein, 2006). The need for empirical research concerning both motivation and theater in ELL is apparent. A number of books and articles are devoted to the subject, but very little secondary level research has been done to provide conclusive evidence of the effect the use of theater activities has on student motivation to acquire the L2. Now that research suggests that motivation affects L2 acquisition, one must document strategies which increase student

motivation within the language learning classroom context. It is the goal of this research to document one small slice of a potentially communicative strategy. Thus the research question: What effect do play creation and performance experiences have on the motivation of low-intermediate secondary ELL learners toward speaking the target language? Additional questions explored are:

- a. If students can articulate why theater activities and performance experience have an impact on their language learning, what reasons do they provide?
- b. Do secondary ELLs prefer theater activities and performance experiences to the traditional communicative instruction usually given in the Inter-Communications class?
- c. Is there any marked or significant change in oral fluency for the participants?

Summary of Literature Review

In this chapter, I have provided an overview of factors affecting language learning, including cognitive, social, and physical factors. I have addressed the current theories and research concerning motivation and language acquisition. The purpose of this study is to examine one such area of individual difference in language acquisition, and how it can be influenced using dramatic activities. Due to the covarying of factors influencing language learning, the ability to localize one factor, that of language attitude and motivation is an interesting and complex task which necessarily must be looked at in the context of both the whole learner and the learning situation. In short, the more positive a learner is towards his or her second language class and the target language group, and the more integrative the speaker's orientation is, the more positive and

dynamic the growth of the learner will be, balanced of course with the other remaining factors mentioned previously which affect SLA.

One approach to language acquisition is the communicative approach, which can be implemented using the techniques such as the six recognized in this chapter. Theater creation and performance could be integrated in as a strategy for affecting language learning motivation positively. Lessons involve theater activities, play creation, and performance include theater warm-up games (warmers), role-plays, tableaux, improvisation, one-act plays, play creation, and performance. Such lessons may impact student motivation to learn language within the context of a secondary English immersion program. Questions as to the nature of their impact on motivation, sustainability of results, and student attitude toward strategy preference will be addressed. The following chapter presents both the methodology and the measures that this study will undertake to address this pedagogical question.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

The objective of this study was to investigate the possible correlational relationship between a drama-based instructional approach as the intervention and its effects on learner motivation and attitude toward learning the target language. This was a mixed methodology qualitative and quantitative study using a quasi-experimental classroom research design.

This study focused on the following research question: What effect do play creation and performance experiences have on the motivation of low-intermediate secondary ELL learners toward speaking the target language? Related questions include:

- a. If students can articulate why theater activities and performance experience have an impact on their language learning, what reasons do they provide?
- b. Is there any marked change in verbal or nonverbal fluency for the participants?

The instruments used in this study collected both qualitative and quantitative data for analysis. The primary research question was answered using a motivation questionnaire (adapted from Clément, et. al., 1994, as cited in Dörnyei, 2001b). The on-line questionnaire was a way to measure the stability of various motivational factors and language learning orientations over time. The questionnaire was designed to measure

both the attitude and the motivation of language learners at a given point in time. The question of whether to examine language attitude and motivation separately is one which has faced researchers for quite some time (Dörnyei, 2005b, Lightbown and Spada, 2006). This data collection issue can be summed up in the following excerpt: The motivation component is made up of the desire to learn the L2, motivational intensity (effort), and attitudes toward learning the L2 (Baker, et. al., 2003). According to Gardner (1985), a truly motivated individual will possess all three of these characteristics; therefore, these components of motivation can be examined separately, as in cluster areas of motivation, or combined into a single attitude/motivation index (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). This study attempts to examine motivation and attitude towards learning English as specific cluster areas of motivation.

Overview of Methodology

This chapter describes the mixed methodologies used in this study. First, the rationale and description of the research approach is presented along with a description of the qualitative and quantitative paradigms. Second, the data collecting instruments and collection protocols are explained in detail. Third, a description of the data analysis techniques follows. Following that, the issue of reliability is addressed. Finally, I explore the potential validity of the data along with ethics pertaining to the study.

A Mixed Method: Qualitative and Quantitative Research Paradigm

Quantitative components were the backbone of this study. Quantitative research is defined by its reliability and validity (McKay, 2006). The purpose of this research was to posit a potential hypothesis regarding the use of drama in the language classroom and

its effect on language motivational variables. Research methods involving quantitative research typically include surveys, coding, systematic observation, experiments, and quasi-experiments (McKay, 2006). The research question and design can be statistically analyzed. Quantitative researchers are generally interested in experimental control so that outside factors do not contaminate results. However, these answers alone may not be enough to measure the results of dramatic activities on the attitude and motivation of second language learners or fully explain those results.

Qualitative research in education and language teaching is defined by its focus on understanding the meaning and context of the learning situation. Other synonyms often used interchangeably for qualitative research are “*naturalistic inquiry, interpretive research, field study, participant observation, inductive research, case study, and ethnography*” (Merriam, 1998, 5). Qualitative research is concerned with the inside perspective, sometimes called the emic perspective. Often the primary researcher is involved in the study in some capacity and possibly even has established a personal relationship with the participants of the study. This is true of both classroom and action research as the teacher can also be responsible for the data collection. With quantitative data the issue of explaining possible reasons for the results is an important issue for studies in which human subjects are involved such as education and language learning. Conversely, qualitative studies often lack internal and external validity measures to prove generalizability. The impact of qualitative research can be lessened by its micro-analytic perspective, meaning that the results of the study are often harder to generalize because they are related to a localized cross-section of a population for study (Lazarton, 2004).

Qualitative research is then most helpful when combined with several other studies over time to enhance generalizability. Therefore, in this study a combined approach was proposed which used methods from both research paradigms in appropriate contexts. The key concepts of reliability, validity, and statistical analysis were addressed by using a quantitative approach while the qualitative data collected also gave insight to the social construction of the dramatic process as well as the creative method used. There has been some debate about which method better serves education research; however, proponents of the mixed method approach argue with the false dichotomy that the view of using only one research method creates (Condelli, & Wrigley, 2004). This mixed method approach seeks to balance the real-life pedagogical considerations classroom language teachers face as well as provide valid and reliable statistical data which can be analyzed within the specific context.

Classroom Research Format

Classroom research is characterized by the processes, instruction, and interactions that take place in contexts where people learn. The purpose of classroom research is often to investigate instruction to further the practice and profession of teaching. In this study, instruction in the communicative approach along with performance techniques was studied to determine the effect that it had on student language motivation (McKay, 2006). Classroom research is different from the related method of action research. Action research is interested in impacting social change and the system of education while classroom research is most interested in the procedures and environment surrounding learning and acquiring learning. The data collection techniques used in action research

and in classroom research can be similar. Data collection techniques that were used in this study included the teacher reflective logs, lesson plans, and student feedback note cards. These instruments were used to provide a rich, purposeful, and on-going description of the classroom context.

Survey Research

Survey research is the gathering of data about the characteristics and views of informants about the nature of language or language learning through the use of written questionnaires (McKay, 2006). Surveys can provide three types of information: factual information, behavioral information, and attitudinal information (Dornyei, 2003). Because this study was interested in student learning goals, or orientational motivations, I looked at the attitudinal information component of available survey questionnaires. This followed recommendations by motivational researchers, the predominant opinion being that each motivational survey needs to be revised to reflect the context or academic needs of the study (Dörnyei, 2001b). The benefit of surveys is that they are a cost-effective way for researchers to obtain a large amount of information very quickly. The disadvantage of surveys is that they do not readily offer an emic perspective on the context for learning. The second caution in survey research is that the survey can also result in superficial or simplified responses (McKay, 2006). For this reason as well as for ethical considerations, survey respondents received neither reward nor negative consequences. It is for these reasons that my survey research was combined with the responses from the qualitative portion of the study. In this context, it is hoped that the

controlled and structured questionnaire portion yielded more than enough reliable data to answer my research questions.

The Quasi-Experimental Format

An experimental research format is one familiar to many fields of academia. It is virtually defined by the existence of an experimental group, a control group, an independent variable, and a dependent variable. The experimental group receives an intervention or treatment while the control group does not receive either treatment or intervention. The independent variable is the principle variable which is being investigated regarding its influence on some dependent variable (Perry, 2005). In this study, the independent variable was the intervention of drama activities, play creation, and play performance within the context of the oral communications class. The dependent variable is the variable that is analyzed for change as a result of change in another variable, namely the independent variable. (Perry, 2005). In the research project, the dependent variable was student motivation and attitude toward the learning the target language of English. For research sub-questions two and three, the added dependent variable of student verbal and nonverbal fluency was analyzed for change. Changes in each class were measured and analyzed and results in each class were compared. It is important to note that the degree of change within each respective class yielded conclusive evidence along with the comparison of the end scores of both classes.

This research design is only appropriate in educational settings when the control group is not in fact missing out on a beneficial component to their learning merely for the purpose of research. This was definitely not the case in this study as very little evidence

has been gathered which would prove that the dramatic method of communicative teaching demonstrates more reliable or greater gains in student language achievement than does the use of regular communication approaches in the second language learning classroom. Therefore, the choice to use experimental and control groupings for this study was founded in good practice.

This study was quasi-experimental in nature due to circumstances beyond the control of the researcher, namely that the sample is a non-randomized selection of secondary students (Spada & Lightbown, 1993). The students in each class were assigned to that class by taking into account numerous factors including abilities in other subject areas as well as in English. All low-intermediate students in the school participated. Therefore, the participant pool was as randomized as possible in the given classroom situation. Furthermore, the researcher and the subject of the research were interdependent due to the teacher-researcher role that I took. The effect of interdependency was minimized as much as possible by keeping data confidential from both the participants and the teacher-researcher. This was accomplished by coding participant note card response data instead of using student names. To further ensure confidentiality, the on-line survey method used did not allow me to know individual participant responses on the survey questionnaire. The questionnaire was collected using computer server addresses for organization in a computer lab where students were not assigned to a particular computer. This allowed for participants and researcher both to participate without feedback which might have influenced on-going data collection and analysis.

The research design for the primary research question involved a four-step process:

1. In both the control and experimental groups, I administered the pretest Attitude and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) to all subjects (48 subjects in two classes) to measure the language attitude and motivation scores before the experimental class received its exposure to treatment (dramatic activities).
2. I exposed all subjects in the experimental class to treatment. Treatment consisted of a six-week intervention using the dramatic process to create a student-written piece for performance. The experimental class was co-taught by the ESL teacher and an artist-in-residence. Qualitative data components gathered during treatment included student response note cards, reflective teaching logs, and lesson plan logs.
3. I administered the post-test AMTB to all subjects in each class to measure changes in the language attitude and motivation scores after the experimental was exposed to treatment.
4. I examined the gains, if any, in language attitude and motivation between the pre-test and the post-test questionnaires testing for both statistical significance and meaningful positive change.

The research design for the question concerning verbal or nonverbal fluency was also answered using a quasi-experimental design. The performance assessment evaluation rubric for verbal and nonverbal fluency was completed by the instructor following a four-step process of assessment, exposure to intervention, assessment, and analysis. Step one involved gathering class performance data, step two entailed the

drama intervention, step three involved the gathering of class performance data, and step four involved the analysis of this data.

Data Collection

Setting

The setting was an all ESL high school that is an Alternative Learning Center in a large Midwestern urban area. In this immersion-style program, students are grouped according to English level and all content is scaffolded appropriately, including in the Intercommunications class. Data was collected from February to April in both the experimental and the control classes by the researcher-teacher. Student in both classes had a low-intermediate skill level of English.

Participants

Learners who are not yet proficient in the target language pose special problems for assessing how creative theater and performance processes affect language attitude and motivation. Many low-proficiency learners have higher anxiety already (Griffiths, 2003). Additionally, when the instructor does not speak the students' first language, they cannot express their frustrations or communicate any problems which might occur. Due to the low-literacy rates in students' native languages, translation of non-oral testing instruments is not always an option, and literacy challenges in general add to the delicacy of the assessment situation.

High school-aged ESL students have enormously different backgrounds in both language and learning. It is almost impossible to quantify the amount of schooling these students have received before coming to the United States. This has, of course,

significant impact on a student's literacy skills and knowledge of learning strategies, academic content, and classroom expectations. It can be difficult to both quantify and qualify the past educational experiences of the students. Iverson stated it very well when she said, "Obtaining accurate and quantifiable information about students' previous formal education turned out to be difficult... because the frame of reference is different. Moreover, this issue can be quite personal, since some students may view any lack of previous education with a certain amount of shame" (2005).

This being the case, any reference to past educational experience of the ELLs who participated in the research project must be looked at with some uncertainty. What can be known more concretely is the time specific students had spent within the educational system in the United States. Students had a variety of educational backgrounds as well as a varied amount of time spent in the United States.

The socio-economic background of the students can also have an impact on their language growth and changes in motivation. Ninety-eight percent of the students at the participating high school qualified for free and reduced lunch. For the purpose of this study, this meant that statistically all but one of the student participants was living below the poverty line. This is quite common and expected for recent immigrants and refugees and does not carry the same social stigma it might if it were not so common in the participating program. The motivational impact of this socio-economic background information was not explored in this study because of time constraints and lack of comparable studies.

Two sections of students participated, a total of 48 participants. This was a quasi-experimental study as the student selection was not randomized because the student schedule was based on multiple factors which included mathematical ability and training as well as linguistic and literacy variables.

English Proficiency Level of Participants

The English acquisition level of the students was between the low-intermediate Stage II and the intermediate Stage III English proficiencies (Ernst-Slavit, et. al., 2002). An alternative assessment, the Minnesota Student Oral Language Observation Matrix (MN-SOLOM), demonstrated the students' proficiency levels to be consistently between the Level 2 Early Intermediate and the Level 3 Intermediate stages of fluency. Areas represented by the matrix include the following: a) academic comprehension, b) social comprehension, c) fluency, d) vocabulary, e) pronunciation, and f) grammar. The description of the early intermediate stage of proficiency includes a number of factors.

The student has difficulty following grade level content terminology and academic discourse, even when spoken slowly and with frequent repetition and rephrasing. The student has great difficulty following what is said. He or she can comprehend only social conversation spoken slowly. The student is usually hesitant, often gives up due to language limitations, and gives mainly one to two word answers. The student is difficult to understand because of misuse of words and very limited vocabulary. Pronunciation and intonation make speech difficult to understand and the student must frequently repeat in

order to be understood, and finally it is difficult to understand the student because of errors in grammar and word order. The student must either rephrase or restrict speech to basic patterns (MN-SOLOM).

The intermediate proficiency students could be described in much the same fashion as those at the early-intermediate proficiency level. Indeed, the same student may perform at either level depending upon context.

The intermediate level student understands most grade level content terminology and academic discourse when spoken at slower than normal speed with repetition and some rephrasing. The student understands most of what is said in social conversations at slower than normal speed with some repetition and rephrasing. The student's speech in social conversation and classroom discussion is frequently disrupted by the student's search for the correct manner of expression, and the student uses short phrases and sentences. The student frequently uses the wrong words, and conversation is somewhat limited because of inadequate vocabulary. The student's pronunciation and intonation necessitate concentration by the listener and occasionally lead to misunderstanding. Finally, frequent errors in grammar and word order mean that meaning is occasionally obscured (MN SOLOM).

It is important to note that the evaluation used in this study was designed to measure incremental growth in the above areas while the MN-SOLOM is meant to give

an overview of language proficiency and progress. The following section will give more detail on the background and demographics of the student participants.

Summary of Participants

The demographic information of the two participating classes is given here briefly along with explanations of the averages and amount of variation or potential differences between the two groups. For a statistical chart with the same information, please see table 3.1 *Report of Participant Demographics*.

	Control	Experimental
Total number of participants	19	29
Percent male	36.3%	40.0%
Percent female	63%	60%
Average age in years	19.32	19.68
Average time in the United States in years	2.14	2.55
Average length of prior education in years	5.6	4.3
Percent of students who speak two languages	45.5%	46%
Percent of students who speak three languages	45.5%	50%
Number of different L1 spoken in class	9	6

Table 3.1 Report of Participant Demographics

The total number of participants in this study is 48. The control class had a total of 19 participants. The experimental class has a total of 29 participants. The experimental and control classes are unequal in the number of participants. This

deviation is due to the quasi-experimental construct of classroom research and, based on the number of participants, was thought to have negligible impact on aspects of this particular study. For purposes of experimental research, the classes were also compared by gender. The control class is 36.6% male while the experimental class is 40.0% male. The control class is 63% female and the experimental class is 60% female. Therefore both are essentially equal in the ratio of male to female participants.

Students' ages range from 15-22 with an average age of 19.49 years for all study participants. The average age for participants in the control class was 19.32 years. The youngest student was 15 and the oldest student was 22. The average age of participants in experimental class was 19.68 years. The youngest participants was 16 and the oldest was 22. Students in both the control and experimental classes were found to be comparable in age.

The total average length of time spent in the United States was 2.37 years. It should be noted that 39.2% of the participants had been in the United States for one year or less, 15.7% had been in the United States for two years, 23.5% had been in the United States for three years, 11.8% had been in the United States for four years, and only 9.8% had been in the United States five years or more. It was assumed that the time spent in the United States was time spent in an English-intensive American school program. The average time in the United States for participants in the control class was 2.14 years and for the experimental class was 2.5 years. Students in the experimental class had spent a slightly higher average amount of time in the United States. This should have had little to no effect on the data collected to measure motivational variables within the time frame

of the study. However, the average amount of time in the United States is important to note based on observations and theories by Cummins, Collier, Krashen, and others, which have shown that the average length of time for learning academic language ranges between five to ten years (Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

The overall average reported number of years of education before coming to the United States was 4.9 years. It should be noted that 49% of the participants reported seven or more years of education, 22.4% of participants reported one to two years of previous education and 22.4% of participants reported three to four years of previous education before coming to the United States. Only 8.2 % of overall participants reported five to six years of education. The average reported length of time spent in prior education for the control class was 5.6 years while the average reported length of time spent for the experimental class was only 4.3 years. This comparative analysis of the two sample groups shows this to be the largest demographic difference between them. The difference in average length of time receiving education between the two classes is 1.3 years. This is a somewhat important difference but is due to variables in resources and in the historical background of the learning communities that the participants grew up in. It is a difference of time that is to be expected when working with a recent immigrant and refugee population. Furthermore, because of the culturally unprecedented communicative intervention used, little impact occurred based on the difference in amount of prior education between the two sample populations.

The exact language and cultural groups represented were Hmong (Thailand), Lao (Laos), Thai (Thailand), Vietnamese (Vietnam), Spanish (Mexico), Spanish (El

Salvador), Spanish (Guatemala), KaRen (Burma), Arabic (Libya), Anyuak (Nepal), Oromo (Ethiopia), Amharic (Ethiopia), Somali (Somalia), and Somali (Kenya). It is interesting to note that students self-reported how many languages they speak with 48% of participants claiming they spoke two languages and 48.1% claiming three.

Additionally, two respondents claimed fluency in four languages, and one respondent claimed fluency in five or more languages. Due to the high level of multi-lingualism, or speaking more than two languages, it is possible that these students who represented 56% of the sample may have had a high level of self-confidence in language learning due to positive past experiences in language acquisition. One of the only notable differences between the control and experimental class is that there was a mixture of nine different languages spoken in the control class while in the experimental class only six different languages were spoken even though there were ten more participants. This may potentially have affected the amount of English spoken in class as English may have been used more as a lingua franca in the control class than in the experimental class. In other words, the number of languages spoken in the control class was greater, thereby promoting English as the primary language of communication due to it being mutually intelligible. The difference in the numbers of L1 spoken in class probably had a negligible effect on the motivation results based on similar multi-linguistic studies (Bernaus, et. al., 2004).

Timeline

The timeline for the dramatic intervention used in this study is provided by Table 3.2.

Week	Control Group	Experimental Group
1	AMTB Questionnaire <i>Northstar</i> Unit One Activities	AMTB Questionnaire <i>Northstar</i> Unit One Activities
2	Verbal/Nonverbal Evaluation <i>Northstar</i> Unit One Activities	Verbal/Nonverbal Evaluation Drama activities
3	<i>Northstar</i> Unit Four Activities	Drama activities
4	<i>Northstar</i> Unit Four Activities	Drama activities
5	<i>Northstar</i> Unit Six Activities	Drama activities
6	Verbal/Nonverbal Evaluation AMTB Questionnaire <i>Northstar</i> Unit Six Activities	Verbal/Nonverbal Evaluation AMTB Questionnaire <i>Northstar</i> Unit Six Activities

Note: Northstar units are adapted from Mills & Frazier (2004).

Table 3.2 *Timeline of Dramatic Intervention*

For both the experimental and control classes, weeks one and six involved Verbal and Nonverbal evaluations using the rubric for this purpose located in Appendix A. The evaluation was based on a formal class speech averaging two to three minutes in length. During weeks one and six, both groups participated in the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) on-line questionnaire. Starting in week two and continuing to week five, instruction in the experimental class included the drama activities co-taught by an artist-in-residence and the ESL teacher. This was the experimental intervention. Instruction in the control class continued with the units and activities outlined in the syllabus and course text. The intervention for the experimental class ended at week six,

and units and activities outlined in the syllabus and course text resumed. The control group continued as previously with no change. Week six also included the post-test of the AMTB and the post-intervention Verbal and Nonverbal Evaluation of both classes.

Triangulation

In order to ensure reliable and valid data, all data and analysis were methodologically and data-type triangulated. This type of triangulation means that all different data collection methods used supported similar results and analysis. This was methodologically carried out using the following: descriptive lesson plans, teacher logs, student feedback note cards, a student attitude and motivation questionnaire featuring largely closed-ended questions, and finally a performance assessment evaluation for verbal and nonverbal communication. This follows guidelines for data triangulation as well as instrument triangulation (McKay, 2006).

Materials

Language Attitude and Motivation Survey Questionnaire

To determine the attitude/ motivation index of a language learner in a particular learning situation, Dörnyei (2001b) recommends the use of a standardized Attitude and Motivation Battery Test (AMBT) or a variation thereof. There are several revisions of this questionnaire that have proven reliable in the field, including that of Clément (1994), Dörnyei (1994, 1998, 2001b, 2003), and Gardner (1994, 2001, 2003). Actually, it is the only questionnaire which has proven reliability in the field. (Dörnyei, 2001b). The questionnaire used for this survey was field tested by Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels in 1994 and includes attitude as well as motivational questions on a closed-question Likert

interval scale (Clément, et. al., 1994). The AMTB has good psychometric properties as well as predictive and construct validity (Dörnyei, 2001b). At the moment, it is the only published standardized test of L2 motivation. For a copy of the adjusted AMTB questions used in this study, see appendix I. The items in the AMTB used in this study were adapted for ESL as opposed to those used in its original Hungarian EFL context and were simplified. The background questions are my own. This was necessary given the change in context from the one in which the test was developed and given the fact that the AMTB is a collection of variables which need to be adjusted according to context (Dörnyei, 2001b).

There were two possible issues with the questionnaire in this particular case. The first potential risk was that of obtaining false information from participants. As mentioned earlier, participants were informed of the zero negative consequences as well as the voluntary nature of the survey so that if any individual felt uncomfortable at any time, he or she could choose to not answer a specific question or could opt out of participation altogether. This was to prevent simple or unreliable responses which are one potential unreliable aspect of surveys and questionnaires (Dörnyei, 2003). The second possible issue involved the plan to administer the survey on-line. This method has recently been used to get a glimpse of motivation in process as there are three stages of motivation, and only one of those stages is visible. There is therefore a need for on-line motivational surveys to be short, approximately no more than four pages of text, and to be limited to 30 minutes or less. The adapted survey used in this study took slightly longer than 30 minutes for the students to complete the first time, but upon repeating the

questionnaire it took far less than 30 minutes because vocabulary taught during the pre-test did not have to be re-taught during the post-test administration of the computerized AMTB. This study could not study motivation as a continuum but still made use of the available technology within the school context. The general limits of quantitative survey research methods were mentioned early. I hope that the attempt to combat the two concerns mentioned above as well as the inclusion of descriptive instrumentation conferred reliability on the questionnaire portion.

Feedback Note Cards

The research design attempted to answer questions concerning whether students can articulate why drama activities and performance experience have an impact on their learning. It also attempted to find out what reasons for this they provided. In addition, it was designed to help answer the related question of what kind of instruction they said they preferred. This information was gathered using feedback note cards. The feedback note cards were completed by students daily, some of which included free student generated responses and some teacher-directed responses. In other words, the note cards were used to gather students' focused impressions after a particular lesson or activity while their ideas, feelings, opinions, and beliefs were still fresh. The feedback note cards were completed by the student participants everyday with teacher-directed focused questions for reflection at least twice a week during the pre-assessment, intervention, and post-assessment phases of the study. The students freely responded with comments on note cards three times a week when a teacher-directed focused question was not provided. Finally, I analyzed the note cards for specific trends and common ideas that emerged to

describe how students viewed this experience, either from their free responses or the teacher-directed responses. The list of guided questions is available in Appendix B.

Lesson Plans and Reflective Teaching Logs

Lesson plans and retrospective, or reflective, teaching logs were used to document and compare my expectations for each class with what actually happened. They included my reflective notes. These were also used to aid in the qualitative analysis. I completed the reflective teaching logs at least twice a week throughout all phases of the study. The structure of the log allowed for both guided questions and free form response. Student behavior and comments were recorded and later analyzed for patterns describing student reaction to drama activities. These reflective logs were continuously analyzed through every phase of the study as they were meant to also inform instruction. An example of the teacher reflective log instrument is available in Appendix C.

Finally, to aid in the analysis of research regarding the effect of a change in instructional approach, concrete lesson plans were recorded. The teacher-researcher completed lesson plans for each lesson in both the control and experimental classes. Lesson plans included (1) pre-assessment lessons for both classes, (2) intervention lesson plans for the experimental class as well as lesson plans for the traditional class, (3) and post-assessment plans for both classes including any transitions for the class that participated in the intervention. An on-going analysis of lesson plans allowed for accuracy in correlating events in either class to participant responses and teacher logs. An example lesson plan document is located in Appendix D.

Performance Assessment

The performance assessment used was the “Checklist for Evaluating Verbal and Nonverbal Communication Behaviors.” This evaluation was adapted by Coleman (2005) from its original source of Ananda (2000). The performance assessment evaluation rubric used in this study consisted of two main parts, a verbal communication scoring rationale and a nonverbal communication scoring rationale. Scores in these two areas were then combined to create an overall communication competency score. This rubric was specifically chosen for its adaptability to informal as well as formal contexts, including English as a Second Language classrooms, and for its emphasis on nonverbal as well as verbal communication. It should be noted that nonverbal communication changes in different cultural contexts and so is a skill as well as a self-confidence indicator (Coleman 2005). Both the verbal and nonverbal sections were further subdivided into five categories with the following qualitative titles: 0) unable/unwilling, 1) needs improvement, 2) developing, 3) adequate, 4) good, 5) excellent. Each category was further subdivided into a range of skill areas (a-e) with qualitative or quantitative descriptions for each. Within the verbal communication category, skill areas included a) purpose for speaking along with details and content, b) vocabulary, c) grammar and sentence variety, d) pronunciation, and e) voice characteristics. Within the nonverbal communication category, skill areas included a) nervousness or confidence indicators, b) eye contact, c) facial emotion, d) movement, and e) body posture. A full description of categories and skill areas is included in a copy of the performance assessment located in Appendix A. Please see Appendix E for a description of the scoring rationale for verbal

communication items and Appendix F for nonverbal communication items. The following section continues a description of how the performance assessment evaluation and other materials mentioned above were used.

Procedure

Pre-Intervention

Two methods of data collection were used before the start of the theater intervention, the fluency evaluation of student formal speeches and the AMTB questionnaire. The verbal and nonverbal fluency evaluation was completed by both classes. Two different speech topics were used. Different topics were necessary because of the format of the classes and the impending start of the intervention for the experimental class. The control class was given the task of giving an introduction speech about a partner. Part of the partner- assigning process was done by the teacher, and part was student-directed. Students were grouped in fours based on earlier responses to a question about what career they would like to have someday. Students were then allowed to self-select a partner within their group. Students completed a brainstorming worksheet on the skills and interests of their partner. Then they chose a career that would utilize these skills and interests. The speeches were two to three minutes in length. Independent preparation time was given as homework two days prior to the speeches. Students were given a copy of the rubric prior to the speech and encouraged to be as clear as possible. Vocabulary used during the speech had been pre-taught using Unit One information from the *Northstar* text (Mills & Frazier, 2004). Nineteen students from the control class completed the communicative evaluation. The experimental class did not have time to

complete the prior unit well enough to have the necessary vocabulary for the evaluative speech, and so another equal topic was chosen. Students in the experimental class were given the task of explaining an object that was very important to them. The task was demonstrated using objects important to the instructors who were present that day. The students in the experimental class were also given independent preparation time as homework two days prior and were able to self-select the object though the topic was teacher-selected. The students were encouraged to be as clear as possible. These speeches were also two to three minutes in length. Student listeners responded to the speaker throughout the speech. Twenty-three students from the experimental class completed the communicative evaluation.

Both classes completed the AMTB questionnaire on-line prior to the start of the intervention. The students were provided a link through the school's website in order to ensure accuracy and efficiency. The pre-intervention AMTB was completed by 47 participants without incident. The classes were told that they would get to see their group's results at the end of the study.

Intervention

The intervention consisted of drama activities, including those recommended by Mandell and Wolf (2003), the play-creation process, and a final play performance to attempt to effect a change in motivational factors for learning English. Only the experimental participated in recording data for this qualitative section of the study. To document this six week process, student comment cards were recorded daily and analyzed twice weekly for qualitative patterns. In conjunction with this, teacher

reflective logs and lesson plans were analyzed for patterns correlating to the positive or negative student comments. The teacher logs and lesson plans also constituted a documentary of the process used which may be analyzed in further additional studies examining drama and language learning. These three data collection methods were ongoing over the course of the intervention described below.

The three main components of the dramatic intervention used in this study were 1) theater warm-up activities, 2) play-creation activities, and 3) performance activities. Warm-up activities refer to the games, short activities, and community-building activities that were used at the beginning of class to cultivate a receptive mind (Mandell and Wolf, 2003). An example of a team- building activity was “The Human Knot” in which students (in this case in a same-gendered group due to factors of cultural sensitivity) formed a circle and clasped the hands of someone else across from them in the group until everyone had a hand. The group then worked together to untangle themselves without letting go of anyone’s hand. This was an effective means for teaching cooperation and the importance of communication. For additional lists of activities used, please refer to either example lesson plans available in Appendix D or how-to theater references listed in the bibliography such as Bedore (2004).

The second category of activities used in this intervention involved play creation. These included brainstorming that students did in groups around words with *heat*. In other words, the students were encouraged to give free form responses to words that could elicit strong feelings or reactions from group members. Words used in this activity included “forgot”, “hate”, “home”, and “now”. This activity was to ensure that the final

product for performance was student-centered around a topic, theme, or ideas that students thought was important to share with the school and surrounding communities. The student groups then developed writing and created tableaux that communicated these ideas.

The third category of the dramatic intervention flowed naturally from the play-creation activities mentioned above. Students, alone or in groups, performed their tableaux and the class was encouraged to respond as the audience. Finally, the groups were able to make any changes or adjustments necessary to ensure audience understanding and were able to correct visual interpretation of the idea and story elements. For the final performance piece, the teaching artist compiled a script containing all the elements and writing that the students had created. One week was spent on transitions and movement as a whole group. There was also an opportunity to add music or take advantage of other student skill areas as needed. Finally, the student-written play as a whole was performed twice for other classes from the general student body that volunteered to attend. The neighborhood coalition and other community members were invited to attend these day-time performances. A copy of the script is available in Appendix G.

Post-Intervention

Both classes completed the final fluency evaluation of student formal speeches and the AMTB questionnaire without incident. The same procedure described previously was used for both the communication evaluation and the on-line questionnaire. The student speech samples used were again two to three minutes in length. Previously each

class had given descriptive-style speeches with different tasks assigned to each group. This time both classes performed demonstration-style speeches with the same goal task given. Both classes had to demonstrate how to make something, giving instruction while completing the creation of an object. Nineteen students completed the speech evaluation in the control class and 29 students completed the speech evaluation in the experimental class. Students were then given the opportunity to make observations of changes or similarities in their individual pre- and post- assessments. Students were then asked to report on any reasons they could think of that might account for any change or similarity in their scores. The students reported these reasons on both a note card and in response to question 42 of the AMTB.

Both the control class and the experimental class completed the AMTB questionnaire a second time after the intervention. The same on-line questionnaire format was used. The survey's question order and individual question word order were purposely not changed between the pre- and post-intervention questionnaires. I felt that the six- week intervention period gave enough time to allow students to change answers when appropriate, and the fact that students knew what questions would be asked was not detrimental to their analysis because the survey is based on self-assessment, reflection on language learning, and self-motivational factors. As with the pre-intervention AMTB, the post-intervention AMTB questionnaire was completed by 48 participants without incident. Student participants were then shown their completed pre-and post-questionnaire results by class. Each group was only shown their own class's average score.

Pilot AMTB Questionnaire

A pilot AMTB questionnaire was administered to an equivalent group of students in order to verify the authenticity of the data collected later for the study. Additionally, the pilot was administered in order to make any accommodations or changes to the questionnaire as necessary. The pilot participants were as closely related as possible in demographical information and English language proficiency level to the actual study participants. The pilot was administered using a paper copy rather than an on-line version of the questionnaire due to technology available at the participant site. The pilot AMTB was administered by the student participants' regular classroom instructor rather than by the researcher to ensure honest answers based on familiarity with the administrator. This was to help reduce any anxiety or negative response caused by administering the evaluations with unfamiliar personnel. The pilot involved 44 participants from two different ESL classes in an all ESL high school program similar to the one featured in this study.

The pilot was only administered once as the purpose was to make any changes necessary to ensure comprehension of the questionnaire. Changes made from notes collected by the pilot questionnaire administrator include the following: a) the descriptor "YES, YES!!!" was added after the Strongly Agree categories, b) the descriptor "Yes" was added after the Agree categories, c) the descriptor No was added after the Disagree categories, and the descriptor "NO, NO!!!" was added after the Strongly Disagree categories. Other changes made due to pilot participant feedback include the pre-teaching of three vocabulary words from the questionnaire. The words *education*, *calm*,

and *confident* were pre-taught to all student participants in the actual survey based on formative feedback from the pilot participants who stated confusion with the above terms. The continued inclusion of these terms was determined to be necessary based on the term being the key element needed to understand the meaning of the corresponding question and motivational component. *Education* was explained as “the amount of schooling or classroom experience that you have had.” *Calm* was explained as “relaxed or the opposite of nervous,” and *confident* was defined as “feeling like you know you can do something.” Due to the quasi-experimental format of the study, I chose to teach these three common terms prior to the survey rather than omit them or change the meaning of the AMTB question.

Data Analysis

I collected AMTB questionnaire data by using an internet program called “Survey Monkey” located at <http://www.surveymonkey.com>. The questionnaire was administered on-line in the computer lab during class time, once pre and once post intervention, for each class. The analysis portion of the data was summarized and collated by section from the on-line survey provider.

Questions were categorized into five motivational components, or clusters, based on Gardner’s previous research (2006). The five motivational categories are integrativeness orientation, instrumental orientation, motivational effort, language anxiety, and attitude toward the learning situation. Verification of the assignment of a question to a motivational cluster was made possible by the independent analysis of questions by both the researcher and a qualified assistant. Questions from the survey were

analyzed for general trends and for relationships within the five motivational clusters mentioned previously.

It was not beneficial to find the overall average percentage within a group of questions because some questions were meant to elicit negative responses; therefore, a summative model could not be used in each multi-item motivational cluster. A qualified expert in the field of survey research was consulted, and since in some scales the negative response category could actually be seen as demonstrating a positive motivational orientation to learning the target language, the choice was made to use the extreme response categories Strongly Agree (SA) and Strongly Disagree (SD). Therefore, no means or percent averages were reported as these did not provide meaningful data for determining change in motivational orientation. Continued discussion of AMTB data analysis continues in Chapter Four.

The summary of responses to each question gives more helpful information in determining changes in motivation and allows for interpretation by looking for trends within a group of related questions. The benefits of using multi-item scales are still present, namely that “the scales refer to a cluster of several differently worded items that focus on the same target” (Dörnyei, 2003, 33). Along with a summary by motivational cluster, changes in extreme response categories were used for comparative analysis of general language motivation. A comparative analysis was performed to assess the statistically significant changes in motivation reflected in the AMTB results for both the control and experimental classes. The amount of change needed for statistical significant varied. This was determined by several factors: the number of participants in the sample,

the percent of actual change, the width of the interval between the Likert response categories, and a chosen confidence level. Due to the sample size and the relatively small number of questions demonstrating statistical significance, a percentage of change was also chosen to indicate a meaningful or important amount of change. In Chapter Four, further discussion on the concept of meaningful change and the percent change chosen to indicate meaningful change is discussed at length. Meaningful change is not the same as statistical significance but allows for a way to continue discussion which might not have been as meaningful due to the natural constrictions of a small quasi-experimental study.

The analysis of the three qualitative components was on-going throughout the intervention. The purpose of this analysis was to answer research sub-questions: a) If students can articulate why theater activities and performance experiences have an impact on their language learning, what reasons do they provide? and b) are secondary ELLs engaged by theater activities and performance experiences used in the communicative language classroom? The three types of data collected to answer these questions were student reflective note cards, teacher reflective logs, and lesson plans. The student reflective note cards were recorded on a daily basis, and included teacher directed reflections at least twice weekly. The second type of data, that of the teacher reflective logs, was analyzed for trends and correlational information to the student reflective note cards. The final type of data collected was the lesson plans. A copy of my instructional plan book was annotated for any changes that were made, with additional notes, observations, and reasons available in the log reflection with corresponding dates. The student comments were collated by activities in the lesson and by teacher reflections.

The analysis of teaching logs, surveys, questionnaires, and note cards was ongoing due to the large amount of data collected.

The language proficiency component was analyzed using the mean scores of the verbal and nonverbal performance assessment. The mean scores were compared both pre- and post-intervention for each group. Any change in mean score for either the control or experimental class was considered somewhat important though growth over time cannot be solely attributed to the intervention because of the quasi-experimental format of this study.

I categorized and quantified motivational and attitudinal statements on surveys and note cards by coding them on a spreadsheet using alphanumerical abbreviations and tally marks. I decided ahead of time what gains in attitude and changes in motivation I was looking for using the AMTB and other data sources. I also left room for categories I had not anticipated. This was one of the qualitative components of this study. I evaluated the students' perceptions of effects on motivation and the reasons given based on the note cards using the constant comparison method along the way. I focused on comparing each group first at the beginning and then at the end of the intervention by using similar analysis techniques and then compared the data from the two groups. I then compared the data from the lesson plans and teaching logs to the survey and note card data, and decided how much value to place on my own perceptions of events and on my own anecdotal evidence recorded in the teacher reflective logs. I then conducted a final in-depth analysis related to the hypothesis that student's attitudes and motivation, as well

as their verbal and nonverbal performance factors, could change due to a theater-activities intervention.

Verification of Data

Internal validity and reliability are assured by the triangulation of data collection methods, the use of standard survey questionnaire instruments which were field-tested prior to use and scored independently to avoid bias, and the use of a performance-based evaluative assessment linked to instruction through formal class speeches. Furthermore, all related components were controlled to the extent possible by the researcher.

Ethics

Data collection for this study included a questionnaire, feedback note cards, descriptive lesson plans, teacher logs, and an evaluative performance assessment which was related to instruction. In order to ensure individual student rights, an Informed Consent for the Protection of Human Subjects was provided to all participants in English as well as in the native language of the student participant. For a detailed list of the stipulations within the Informed Consent Document, please refer to Appendix H.

Summary of Methodology

The method of data collection used in this study was a mixed-method quantitative and qualitative one. The focus of the study was the effect of drama activities, play creation, and play performance on the motivational variable, reasons students may give for a possible change in motivation, and finally fluency gains made in either the verbal or nonverbal categories of the performance evaluation rubric. The research method included instrumentation from three categories, including classroom research, survey

research, and quasi-experimental research. The instrumentation included an Attitude and Motivation Battery Test (AMBT), a daily teacher log, on-going descriptive lesson plans, student feedback note cards, and finally the verbal and nonverbal performance evaluations. The descriptive and statistical elements were analyzed using grounded theory. Following precepts of grounded theory, each portion of data was analyzed without pre-supposing results. In this way, the qualitative elements such as the note cards, teacher logs, and lesson plans help to explain the quantitative statistical data. Validity and reliability were accounted for, and any ethical concerns were discussed. In the following chapter, I report on the results based on data collected in the experimental and control classes and will include both statistical information and qualitative results.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

In this chapter I will present the results gathered using the method described in Chapter Three. The goal is to answer certain questions regarding changes in motivation due to the use of a play-creation and performance process. These questions were based on the implementation of theater exercises which included creating a student-written play for community performance. The instruments used to gather results include an Attitude and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) questionnaire, a verbal and nonverbal communicative competency evaluation, teacher reflective notes, a lesson plan log, and student reflection note cards. The measurements provided by these instruments attempt to answer the following question: What effect do play-creation and performance experiences have on the motivation of low-intermediate secondary ELL learners toward speaking the target language? The results are divided into four sections as follows:

- a. Changes in motivation to learn English that students experienced as measured by the pre-intervention and post-intervention AMTB for both the control and experimental sections of student participants.
- b. Reasons subjects articulated about why theater activities and performance experience had an impact on their language learning. These responses were recorded using data from the teacher logs, lesson plans, and note cards.

- c. Answers ELLs provided as to whether they preferred theater activities and performance experiences to the common variety of communicative activities usually used. These responses were recorded using data from teacher logs, student reflective note cards, and Question 42 of AMTB.
- d. Marked changes in participants' verbal or nonverbal fluency as measured by the verbal and nonverbal fluency evaluations. In particular, any changes in fluency which may be able to be attributed to the intervention are noted.

Means of collection were explained in the previous chapter, including a summary of the participants, additional details on the processing of the data, a description of the assessment tools, a rationale for the data and content areas covered, a summary of the pilot test, and limitations or possible limitations. Chapter Four therefore focuses on the actual data collected using each assessment tool, and Chapter Five attempts to analyze and explain the results of the study.

Understanding the AMTB Results

Before examining the results, it is important to understand how meaningful change was determined. Therefore, the process of determining meaningful change is explained in the following section. The goal of administering the Attitude and Motivation Test Battery was to measure possible changes in overall L2 motivation in the experimental class subjects over the course of the theater intervention. These results are then compared with differences in overall L2 motivation demonstrated by the control class. The results for both the experimental and the control classes are reported separately in the first section below. All of the following AMTB results are presented

according to the coding for motivation orientation factors assigned previously in Gardner's study (2001). The AMTB questions are presented in the following five clusters or groupings: integrativeness orientation, instrumental orientation, motivational effort, language anxiety, and attitude toward the learning situation. It is important in this discussion to distinguish between the similar terms of motivation and motivational effort. In this paper, motivation refers to the combination of the five previously mentioned clusters or groupings. It is the general motivation of a learner towards the target language. The motivation to learn that language, however, is comprised in part of the effort expended within the language learning situation. This type of effort used to achieve goals in language learning is called motivational effort because it can show the willingness to put forth effort into language learning without necessarily being a true measure of the actual effort expended by the language learner. In examining pre and post-intervention results of the AMTB Questionnaire, each class was first compared with itself. Next, any motivational change which occurred was quantified. Finally, the results from the experimental and control groups were compared and meaningful changes were noted. These changes serve as the basis for the following discussion.

Concerning the total AMTB, results of questions one through six were related to the background of the participants and were presented as part of the previous chapter. Questions 1 to 42 of the AMTB are presented in Appendix I. Survey results for questions 7 to 42 are presented in a multi-item scale format by motivational orientation clusters in Appendix J. Each question within a group can be analyzed separately and also as part of the motivational orientation cluster as the results are discussed in Chapter Five. This is

because reliability, determined by Cronbach Alpha Coefficients (Dörnyei, 2006), decreases when each question is considered separately. Cronbach Alpha coefficients show the similarities and differences in survey responses when questions have similar meanings but slightly different wording. An example of this is found in questions 31 and 32. Question 31 states, “This class is made up of people who work well together and fit together.” Question 32 states, “There are some people in this group who do not really like each other.” Both questions 31 and 32 are related to the issue of attitude towards the learning situation and more specifically are related to student perception of community cohesiveness. The reliability of the survey increases if both versions of a particular question have a similar pattern of response. The reliability of the survey decreases if separate versions of the same question have extremely divergent responses. If the responses are answered similarly 70% of the time, they are determined to be more reliable. Questions 14 and 35 could be omitted from the cluster analysis section for lack of reliability. It was also difficult to appropriately quantify positive motivational growth in Question 36 relative to any other similar question, and therefore a Cronbach Alpha Coefficient could not be obtained for it. The following section further illustrates issues related to demonstrating positive motivational change as shown by the AMTB survey results.

Determining Meaningful Change

An attempt has been made to qualify as well as quantify the changes in motivation as measured by the AMTB scores both pre and post-intervention. There are four factors that influenced the decision to use raw changes in percentage greater than

10.0% to determine meaningful change in the responses to each AMTB question. The first factor involves positively and negatively phrased questions and a second related factor involves the effect that this phrasing of questions has on the mean scores. A third factor involves the number of questions in which responses demonstrated statistically significant change. A fourth factor involves the degree of change which may indicate the beginning of a trend toward positive movement within the reported results. In quantifying the raw scores, questions of what qualifies as significant or meaningful change arose. Reasons for qualifying changes as important or not are detailed below.

The first factor affecting the interpretation of the AMTB results is that there are both positively and negatively phrased questions. In an attempt to demonstrate the correlation between increased motivation and survey responses, the SA (Strongly Agree) Likert scale statement is not always a true indicator. Some questions in the survey necessitate a negative SD (Strongly Disagree) response to show positive motivational change. In other words, a negatively phrased question simply requires more SD, or Strongly Disagree, responses in the post test to show positive change. For example, in order to show positive change, Question 32 required an increase in SD responses to the statement, "There are some people in this group who do not really like each other." Pre-intervention results for the control class indicated that 13.6% of students strongly disagreed with that statement. Post-intervention results for the control class showed that 16.7% of students strongly disagreed with that statement. This indicates a 3.1% positive change in attitude towards the learning situation as demonstrated by the fact that more students disagreed with the negative statement in Question 32 on the post test. The

results of the survey are therefore described below for each motivational orientation cluster as a percentage showing positive or negative growth. Again, positive growth can be shown by either an increase in SA (Strongly Agree) responses for positively phrased questions or by an increase in SD (Strongly Disagree) responses for negatively phrased questions. Please see Appendix J for whether responses to a question indicated growth by necessitating an SA or an SD response.

The SA and SD response categories were used instead of the Agree (A) or Disagree (D) categories based on the usual movements of (A) to SA or (D) to SD to show positive change over a period of time. Use of the Agree and Disagree categories would not have added much more to the results or to the discussion since often change exhibited on answers to the Likert scale questions in this study resulted in movement toward SA or SD responses. Also, one might assume that respondents who chose SA or SD in the pre-intervention survey were less likely to change their responses while those who chose Agree or Disagree responses were more likely to show movement toward the extremes of SA or SD. Also, SA or SD responses were used to evaluate change since increases in SA responses for positively phrased questions and increases in SD responses for negatively phrased questions would indicate a more pronounced change in the motivation of the respondent than if one were to look at combined Strongly Agree and Agree responses or Strongly Disagree and Disagree responses.

The movement from the Agree and Disagree answers to the SA and SD answers respectively has been chosen for evaluating change in each of the five clusters of motivational orientation measured by the AMTB rather than calculating mean scores for

each question. There are two reasons for deciding not to use mean scores. The first involves the necessity of reversing the scale for positively and negatively phrased questions. In order to determine a mean, each response category must be assigned a number. In the case of four response categories, an SA answer could be assigned the numerical value of 1, and an SD answer could be assigned the numerical value of 4. As a result, means closer to the number 1 would be considered high if all questions were positively phrased. This becomes complicated and potentially confusing, however, if one wishes to compare the means of positively and negatively phrased questions, especially because an increase in SD response indicates positive change in a negatively phrased question. If, on the post-test, more students disagree that they are nervous speaking in front of the class, that would be considered a good result, but if the numerical scale used for determining the mean remains the same, a positive result for such a question would result in a mean closer to the numerical symbol of 4. Therefore, in order to compare means for positively and negatively phrased questions, one would need to reverse the scale for one type of question. For example, one could determine that for negatively phrased questions (to which one might hope for more SD answers), an SA answer would be represented by a 4 and an SD answer would be represented by a 1. In this case, a mean closer to 1 would always indicate positive movement, and a mean closer to 4 would always indicate negative movement. This leads to a second reason for rejecting the use of means. Calculating the mean tends to average responses in all categories and could hide some significant shifts toward SA responses for positively phrased questions and toward SD responses for negatively phrased questions. Focusing on SA or SD responses,

however, may show more pronounced change. Most survey research, therefore, focuses on analyzing and reporting changes to SA and SD category responses as we have done in the following section. Using the SA and SD response categories only still allows us to show meaningful changes in responses for questions within a motivational cluster.

The third factor affecting the determination of meaningful changes in motivation was that of statistical significance which was determined using Error Factor Analysis. Responses to ten of the 34 AMTB questions showed changes of statistical significance with a confidence level of at least 80%. The results demonstrating statistical significance are marked by an asterisk (*) in the following sections. Respondents in the control class reported statistically significant change in Questions 7, 8, 11, and 13. Respondents in the experimental class reported statistically significant change in Questions 14, 15, 20, 21, 22, 34. More discussion of these questions and results are detailed in the following sections. Due to the quasi-experimental format of the study or more specifically to the limited six-week timeline of the intervention and the small sample size, a choice was made to look for meaningful positive changes other than ones considered statistically significant.

The fourth factor in determining what qualifies as meaningful change is the desire to look for trends or movements towards positive change. In this discussion, the term *meaningful positive change* is used to indicate the minimum change in response determined to be meaningful, sizeable, important, and interesting. In the instrument used to determine statistical significance, significance was based on sample size and on the percent of people who chose a particular response on the Likert scale. A confidence level

of at least 80% was chosen. Whether the responses were statistically significantly significant or not was determined question by question. In determining meaningful change, the percent I have chosen is 10.0%. This was arrived at by looking at the lowest statistically significant change for any question (9.1%) and by finding a threshold offering flexibility for evaluating pre-intervention and post-intervention responses to questions. The question which demonstrated a 9.1% statistically significant change was Q20. This change in the SA category was reported by the experimental group. The question concerned students choosing whether to finish things that are too difficult. While the response necessary to demonstrate positive change was SD, it was the SA response which was statistically significant. This number cannot be generalized to show statistically significant change for all remaining questions. This said, 9.1% was the lowest percent of change needed to show statistical significance at an 80% level of confidence. This number was rounded to 10.0% and was used as the threshold for meaningful changes in motivation. One could argue that any movement over 10.0% may demonstrate the beginning of movement or a trend in movement, movement that could be further extended with a longer intervention or a larger sample size.

One cannot over generalize from these numbers. I have chosen the threshold of 10.0% as a reasonable number for looking at possible trends in changes in respondents' motivation. The questions that do not exhibit a statistically significant change in response are not marked with an asterisk (*). Responses to questions which are not statistically significant but which do exhibit a change over 10.0% are described as meaningful changes. Responses to questions that show a less than 10.0% change in SA

or SD Likert scale answers are considered inconsequential for purposes of demonstrating meaningful change. Observations in the following two sections are largely limited to responses to questions which exhibited changes greater than 10.0% and are therefore sizeable enough to be considered meaningful for the purposes of this discussion. The following section discusses specific questions and the percent of change in responses reported by the control participants followed by a separate section reporting the general results for the experimental classes. Questions will be reported in motivational clusters, and questions 7 through 42 will be referred to by using the abbreviations Q7-Q42 for the remainder of Chapters Four and Five.

Control Class AMTB Results

In the following section, the motivational results for language learning represent the raw data in percents for the control class only. The first subsection reports integrativeness orientation results from the AMTB questionnaire. The second subsection shows instrumental orientation results. The third subsection reports changes in motivation as measured by motivational effort expended towards language learning. The fourth subsection reports changes in language anxiety according to participant self-response. Finally, the fifth subsection reports survey results regarding changes in attitude toward the learning situation. In each subsection there is a brief description highlighting statistically significant as well as meaningful changes in motivational orientation within each cluster group measured by the AMTB.

Control Integrativeness Orientation Results

Integrativeness orientation includes an open interest in the other language group or in groups in general and a willingness to identify with other groups. The results from the control group emphasize an overall positive change in integrativeness orientation with four of the five questions in this group showing a more than 20.0 % change in integrativeness orientation in the SA (Strongly Agree) category. Question 7 demonstrates the largest numerical shift between Likert answers, with a 37.4% increase in the SA responses. Students reported increased agreement with the idea of studying English to meet Americans. To clarify, this change in score represents the fact that 37.4% more students responded to Q7 using the SA response category than had previously. The changed responses correlated to decreases in the Agree and Disagree categories. Respondents reported a positive change of 25.3% to the statement in Q8 that studying English is important because it will help them to get to know different cultures. Changes in response for both Q7 and Q8 are statistically significant. Respondents reported a 22.7% positive change in Q9 and a 20.7% positive change in Q18. Responses to Q9 and Q18 demonstrate meaningful change. The only decrease in motivation was reported in Q14 to which there was a negative 5.1% change reported in answer to the question that it is important to know English in order to think and act like the Americans. The negative 5.1% change is well below the meaningful change qualifier of 10.0%, and so the control class response to Q14 can be seen as not highly meaningful. The five questions in the integrativeness category demonstrate an overall with responses to 80% of the questions in this cluster showing positive change.

Control Instrumental Orientation Results

The instrumental orientation category includes interest in learning language for pragmatic purposes. The results in this portion of the AMTB show an increase in the SA category in three of the four questions. Respondents to Q11 and Q13 demonstrated an increase of 41.4% and 35.8% respectively in the SA category. These are statistically significant gains in motivation in response to the statements, “Studying English is important to me because I may need it later for work or school,” and “Studying English is important to me so that I can read English books, newspapers, or magazines.” Respondents to Q12 reported a moderately meaningful increase in the SA category of 13.6% in answer to the statement that English is important for understanding American movies, TV, and radio. Respondents to Q10 regarding learning English to become a smarter person did not demonstrate any meaningful change (-1.1%). Responses to questions in the instrumental orientation cluster demonstrate an overall positive change in 75% of the questions in this cluster.

Control Motivational Effort Results

Results in the category which measured motivational effort expended towards learning the target language represent the raw data in percents for the control class only. This category of the AMTB includes effort expended, desire to learn, and favorable attitudes towards learning the language. Of the eight questions in this category, two questions showed a meaningful change in the SA category. Responses to Q19 and Q22 had moderate meaningful differences of 18.2% and 14.3% respectively. Question 19 was in response to the statement, “I enjoy hard work”, and Q22 was in response to the

statement, “I frequently think over what we have learned in my English classes.”

Responses to Q15, Q16, Q17, Q20, Q21, and Q35 showed no meaningful change. For exact percentages of change, please see Appendix J. Overall, 25% of the questions in this section of the AMTB demonstrated positive change in motivation to learn English.

Control Language Anxiety Results

The following language anxiety cluster results for language learning represent the raw data in percents for the control class only. This category of motivation includes feelings of anxiety and concern in using the language in the classroom and other contexts. Respondents reported zero meaningful positive differences over 10.0%. Surprisingly, students reported an increase of 12.2% in strongly agreeing that they are nervous and confused when speaking in front of the class (Q23). Only 2% more of the students chose the SD response category than had previously. More students choosing the SD response category would have shown positive change while fewer students choosing the SD response category indicates negative change in language anxiety. There were no significant positive motivational gains in the area of language anxiety as measured by Q23, Q24, Q25, Q26, Q27, Q28, Q29, and Q30.

Control Attitude Results

The following results on attitude towards the learning situation represent the raw data in percents for the control class only. This category of the AMTB includes favorable attitudes towards the classroom context, the instructor, and fellow students. Five of the nine questions in this category use a differently worded scale from the SA to SD scale used for the other questions. For example, in Q37, they are asked to rate the students in

the class on a scale ranging from *all the same* to *all different*. In Q38, they are asked to rate the class on a scale ranging from *very interesting* to *very boring*. Three of the nine questions in this group exhibited a meaningful change in attitude towards the learning situation. One of these showed positive change, and two of them showed negative change. Students responded 20.2% more positively to the statement, “I am happy with this English class” for Q34. Responses to Q33 showed a negative change of 19.7% in the SD category. Since the statement says, “I am not happy with this group,” one would have hoped that more people would have disagreed with this statement on the post-test. However, fewer people disagreed, resulting in negative change. Responses to Q38 showed a negative 14.3% change for the statement, “Our English class is very interesting.” All other changes were less than 8%. The control class showed some positive change in their attitude towards the language learning situation overall as measured by the AMTB. In this cluster, 11.1% of the questions reported positive meaningful changes.

Positive gains in attitude towards learning English were made in every subcategory of the AMTB except for the area of language anxiety. Integrativeness and instrumental orientation experienced the biggest overall gains in both the percentage of questions within the group showing positive gains and the significance of the gains made. Motivational effort and attitude towards the learning situation both experienced some positive gains in motivation in 17.6 % of the questions in the respective subgroups. The following section details the gains in motivation made by the experimental class.

Experimental Class AMTB Results

The following motivational orientation results for language learning represent the raw data in percents for the experimental class only. As in the previous section, the first subsection reports integrativeness orientation results. Then the results from the instrumental orientation, motivational effort, language anxiety and attitude towards the learning situation are discussed. Changes in percentages over 10.0% are discussed in each subsection along with changes that are determined to be statistically significant.

Experimental Integrativeness Orientation Results

The results from the integrativeness orientation cluster show a positive change for one of the five questions in this group. In this question there was a 29% change in motivational orientation to the SA (Strongly Agree) category. Responses to Q14 demonstrate this shift to be mostly between the Agree and the SA answers in response to the statement, "It is important for me to know English in order to think and act like the Americans." No other questions in this category demonstrated a meaningful change in response, including Q7, Q8, Q9, and Q18. Only 20% of the questions in the integrativeness subcategory indicated positive meaningful change.

Experimental Instrumental Orientation Results

The instrumental orientation category includes interest in learning language for pragmatic purposes. Responses in this cluster demonstrated positive motivational change in three of the four questions for the experimental class. Responses to Q10 demonstrated 10.5% positive change, and responses to Q11 demonstrated 13.0% positive change. Responses to Q13 showed a meaningful increase of 17.9% students answering Strongly

Agree in response to the statement, “Studying English is important for me so that I can read English books, newspapers, or magazines.” It is interesting that responses to Q12 did not exhibit a similar meaningful change in the Strongly Agree (SA) category as it was a similarly worded question. There was a negative 0.6% change in responses in the SA category for this question. This was in response to the statement, “Studying English is important to me so I can understand American movies, TV, or radio.” Gains in responses to this question were found instead in Disagree (D) to Agree (A) category movement with a change of 15.5%. Responses to 75% of the questions in the instrumental orientation subcategory showed positive motivational gains, not including the movement in the non-extreme categories found in Q12.

Experimental Motivational Effort Results

The following motivational effort results for language learning represent the raw data in percents for the experimental class only. Motivational effort includes the willingness to communicate (WtC) concept as well as time spent and work ethic in response to the language-learning situation. Responses to three of the motivational effort category questions showed statistically significant changes. Responses to Q15, Q21, and Q22 all demonstrated statistically significant gains with an 80% or higher confidence level. In response to the statement, “I do not like learning English. I do it only because I need it,” in Q15, the respondents indicated a 26.1% positive change in choosing the SD category. The respondents answered Q20, “I don’t finish things that are too difficult,” with a 9.9% meaningful positive change in the SD category when rounded to the 10% threshold for meaningful change. It is interesting that the SA response to Q20 is

significant at 9.1% even though it represents negative change. It appears that students were divided in their response to this question. Responses to Q21 indicated a 14.5% positive change. Responses to Q22 indicated a 19.6% positive change. The 14.5% change in response was to the statement, “In my work, I don’t usually do more than I have to.” The 19.6% change in response was to the statement, “I frequently think over what we have learned in my English classes.” Responses to Q17, Q19, and Q35 all exhibited meaningful change. Responses to Q17 showed a 17.1% positive increase in response to the statement, “I really like learning English.” The responses to Q19 showed a 13.3% positive change to a statement regarding enjoying hard work. Finally, responses in the SA category demonstrated meaningful negative change for Q35 in response to the statement, “I am happy with how much English I speak now” with students reporting a change of negative 27.7%. While this may appear to be a negative change, this could be construed to be a positive motivational response and will be discussed further in Chapter Five. Responses to Q16 exhibited no meaningful changes. Of the responses to questions in this cluster, 75% showed meaningful positive gains in motivation as exhibited by effort to learn the target language. This cluster also had the greatest number of questions in which responses showed statistically significant positive change in either the control or the experimental classes.

Experimental Language Anxiety Results

Results in the measurement of language anxiety represent the raw data in percents for the experimental class only. Responses to four of eight questions in this subgroup of the AMTB showed meaningful change when scores were rounded up to 10.0%. All four

exhibited positive motivational change. Responses to Q23, Q24, and Q26 showed gains of about 10.0% in the Strongly Disagree (SD) Likert scale response in answer to statements similar to, “I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.” Responses to Q28 indicated a 9.1% gain in the Strongly Agree (SA) Likert scale response category in answer to the statement, “I feel calm and confident when together with English-speaking people.” Since this is within one percentage point of the 10.0% threshold chosen to represent meaningful change, it can be considered a meaningful change. Overall, responses to questions in the language anxiety category for the experimental class showed moderately meaningful positive gains as demonstrated by 50% of the subcategory questions.

Experimental Attitude Results

The following results on attitude towards the learning situation represent the raw data in percents for the experimental class only. Responses to five of the nine questions in this subcategory exhibited meaningful change in motivation. Responses to four of these five questions demonstrated positive meaningful change, and responses to one question demonstrated negative meaningful change in motivation. Responses to Question 34 showed the greatest amount of positive change in this area with 33.1% gain in responses in answer to the statement, “I am happy with this English class.” Student response to Q34 is statistically significant. Responses to Q31, Q32, Q33, and Q41 all indicated meaningful changes over 14.1%. Responses to Q31 indicated a 16.1% positive change in response to the statement, “This group is made of people who work well together and fit together.” Correspondingly, responses to Q32 indicated a 15.0% positive

change and those to Q33 indicated a 14.1% positive change. Results for Q32, “There are some people in this group who do not really like each other,” are in response to a negatively phrased statement that corresponds to the positively stated Q31, “This group is made of people who work well together and fit together.” Positive results for Q33 are in response to a similar idea, “I am not happy with this group.” Responses to Q41 indicated a unique negative change in motivation of -31.9%. This change was in response to the multi-item scale question, “Our English class is (very meaningful...very meaningless).” This question could be omitted from the analysis due to a low Cronbach Alpha Coefficient; however, it will remain for purposes of the discussion in Chapter Five. In short, attitude toward the learning situation exhibited positive change that was meaningful in 44.4% of the questions in this cluster. Finally, attitude towards the learning situation exhibited a unique negative change that was meaningful in 11.1% of the questions in this cluster.

Overall areas of meaningful positive motivational change for the experimental class were reported in the areas of instrumental orientation, motivational effort, language anxiety, and attitude towards the language-learning situation. The cluster area of integrativeness orientation demonstrated only one positive motivational change that was meaningful and so can be considered an area of minimum growth in motivation. The amount of change in general motivational orientation that each class experienced over the course of the eight-week theater intervention is summarized in this and the previous section. The purpose is to show changes reported by each class. Please see Appendix J for the corresponding Likert scale area which decreased in correlation to the answers

reported in this section. The following section attempts to compare the meaningful changes in motivation for the control and experimental groups as seen in the reported AMTB results.

AMTB Control and Experimental Results Comparison

While each subset of questions listed above represents the general changes in motivation and attitude experienced by each class individually, the following section attempts to quantify and compare those changes. For each meaningful positive change, the corresponding change value from the other class is reported whether it is a positive or negative motivational change indicator. Negative change is reported, though analyzing negative change in motivation may take further time and study in a separate context focusing more on demotivational factors. Response percentages are listed in the tables for the comparative analysis even though they may not necessarily be considered meaningful. In other words, responses are listed in each table even if the change in response was less than 10.0%. As mentioned at the beginning of Chapter Four, results which demonstrated statistical significance, as opposed to meaningful change, are marked by an asterisk (*). As there were no questions for which statistically significant changes were reported in both the control and the experimental groups in this section, it is important to note which result is marked by an asterisk for statistical significance in the following sets of tables. The questions featured in the charts below, which present results in bar graph form, were chosen because at least one of the participant classes showed a meaningful positive change within either the Strongly Agree (SA) or Strongly Disagree (SD) Likert scale options. This being the case, the same questions featured in the

previous section are also featured in this section. It is also important to note again that either SA or SD responses can show positive motivational changes depending on the wording of the question. Again, the order of results listed is by motivational area as follows: integrativeness orientation, instrumental orientation, motivational effort expended, language anxiety, and attitude towards the learning situation. At the end of this section, observations are made about which areas experienced the most consistent growth for each class and which class experienced more motivational growth as measured by the AMTB. Analysis of these reported results is discussed in Chapter Five.

Comparison of Integrativeness Orientation

There was some meaningful change experienced by either the control or the experimental class in 100% of the questions in this cluster group, and so the following section contains data for all five questions in the section on integrativeness orientation. Using the change in percent for each class, the following table represents meaningful changes in the integrativeness orientation area of the AMTB (Table 4.1). Question 7, Q8, Q9, and Q18 are included due to meaningful change exhibited by the control class, and Q14 is included due to meaningful change reported by the experimental class. The control class experienced significant growth in two of the five questions. Question 7 and Q8 are in response to statements concerning why it is important for the student to learn English.

Integrative Orientation Questions	Control Class	Experimental Class
Studying English is important to me because I want to meet Americans (Question 7, Strongly Agree = SA).	37.4*	- 9.3
Studying English is important to me because it will help me to get to know different cultures (Q8, SA).	25.3*	5.1
Studying English is important to me because I would like to learn as many languages as I can (Q 9, SA).	22.7	0.5
It is important for me to know English in order to think and act like the Americans (Q14, SA).	- 5.1	29*
Americans are friendly and kind (Q18, SA).	20.7	5.4

Table 4.1 *Comparison of Integrativeness Orientation*

While the control class reported positive change over 25%, the experimental class reported no similar gains in responses to these questions. Indeed, the experimental class reported meaningful negative growth in Q7. Conversely, the control class reported negative motivational growth in Q14 which is the only question in this cluster in which the experimental class reported statistically significant positive change.

To better illustrate the changes in integrativeness orientation in both the control and experimental groups, the integrativeness orientation graph (Figure 4.1) visually demonstrates the corresponding raw data shown in the table above (Table 4.1). Figure 4.1 reflects the changes each class reported in integrativeness orientation.

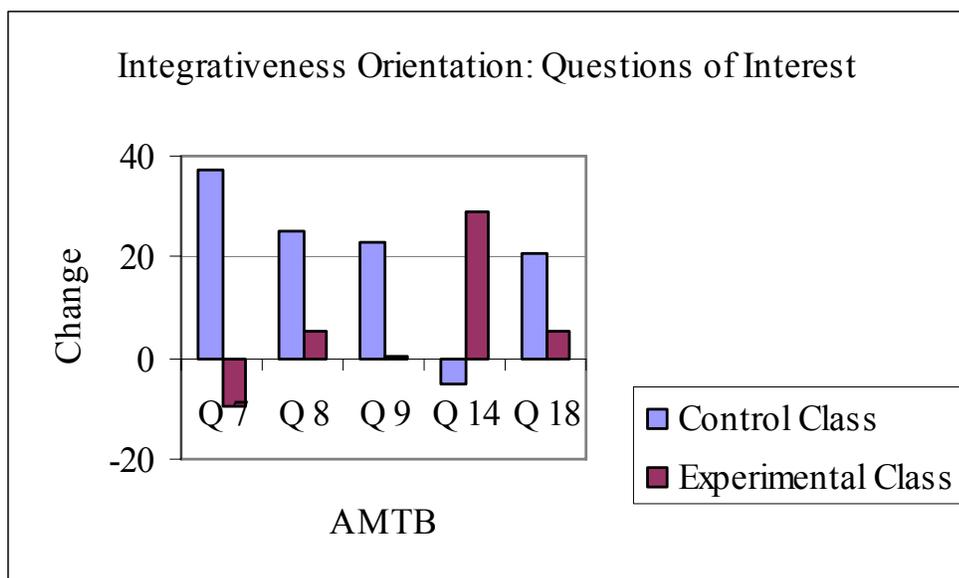


Figure 4.1 Comparison of Integrativeness Orientation

Responses to all questions show a divergence in motivation between the experimental and control classes. Responses to Q7, Q8, Q9, and Q18 show positive increases in integrativeness orientation in the control class compared to the experimental class. Responses to Q14, conversely, show an increase in integrativeness orientation in the experimental class but not in the control class. The control class had positive growth on the questions about developing relationships with Americans and other cultures while the experimental class only had positive growth on the question of needing to think and act like an American. If Cronbach Alpha coefficients were used, Q14 would be discarded from this subsection in order to achieve the 70% reliability. This would then clearly show that the control class experienced the most growth in the area of integrativeness orientation. However, explanation of this one-question phenomenon (Q14) could be related to the intervention performed and so will be discussed further in Chapter Five.

Comparison of Instrumental Orientation

The following table represents the differences in instrumental motivation as demonstrated by AMTB results. In the instrumental orientation cluster, 100% of the questions had meaningful changes in motivational status for at least one of the class groups. The results for both classes are reported in numerical form in the following table (Table 4.2). Both the control class and the experimental class experienced meaningful positive change in Q11 and in Q13. The control class reported greater growth in their responses to these two questions as demonstrated by two changes of statistical significance as opposed to simply meaningful change.

Instrumental Orientation Questions	Control Class	Experimental Class
Studying English is important to me so I can be a smarter person (Q10, SA).	- 1.1	10.5
Studying English is important to me because I may need it later for work or school (Q11, SA).	41.4*	13.0
Studying English is important to me so that I can understand American movies, TV, or radio (Q12, SA).	13.6	- 0.6
Studying English is important to me so that I can read English books, newspapers, or magazines (Q13, SA).	35.8*	17.9

Table 4.2 *Comparison of Instrumental Orientation*

The control class shows the strongest overall growth in terms of raw percent for three of the questions while the experimental group shows a more moderate growth on three questions. To better illustrate the changes in instrumental orientation in both the

control and experimental groups, the Comparison of Instrumental Orientation graph below visually demonstrates the corresponding raw data shown in Table 4.2 (Figure 4.2).

The experimental class showed positive growth in response to Q10 while the control class experienced no meaningful change. The opposite was true for Q12. It is interesting to note that the experimental class responded positively to the statement in Q10 about wanting to learn English to be a smarter person while the control class did not. The control class's positive response to the statement in Q13 regarding wanting to study English to understand American movies, TV, and radio was statistically significant while the experimental class's responses was meaningful but not statistically significant.

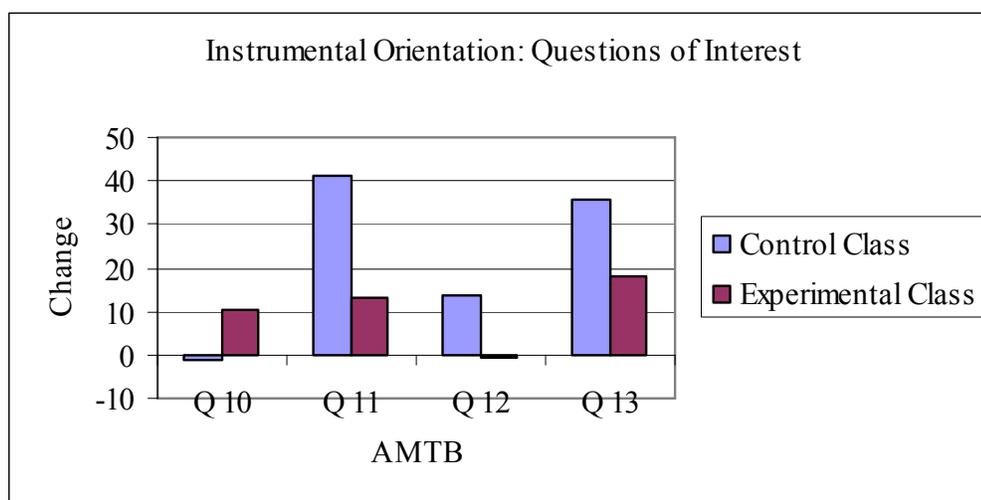


Figure 4.2 Comparison of Instrumental Orientation

The chart above depicts unequal responses to these questions, and it is difficult to determine overall growth in this area for each class for comparative analysis. If Cronbach Alpha coefficients were used for reliability purposes, Q10 would be removed for the control class and Q12 removed for the experimental class. Again, these questions

were not removed in hopes of furthering discussion in Chapter Five surrounding the impact of the intervention.

Comparison of Motivational Effort

There was some meaningful change reported by either the control or the experimental class in 87.5% of the questions in this cluster group, and so the following section discusses data for seven of the eight qualifying questions in the section on motivational effort. Neither class reported a meaningful change over 10.0% for Q16. For reliability purposes, Q36 was omitted earlier from this cluster to achieve greater reliability and in an effort to quantify the remaining responses. The format of Q36 cannot be compared to the remaining questions in this section as it asks respondents to quantify how much English they would like to speak using an unreliable multi-item scale. The reader may refer to Appendix J for results on Q36.

In Table 4.3 there is a numerical comparison of results for motivational effort towards language learning cluster questions in both the control and experimental classes. The experimental class exhibited meaningful growth in 87.5 % of questions listed in Table 4.3. The control class exhibited meaningful growth on two questions and no meaningful growth on the other five questions in this area. Statistically significant change occurred in responses to Q15, Q21, and Q22 in the experimental class results while there were no changes of statistical significance reported by the control class for this cluster group.

Motivational Effort Questions	Control Class	Experimental Class
I do not like learning English. I do it only because I need it (Q15, Strongly Disagree= SD).	- 0.5	26.1*
I want to spend my time on subjects other than English (Q16, SD).	-8.0	-7.4
I really like learning English (Q17, SA).	7.6	17.1
I enjoy hard work (Q19, SA).	18.2	13.3
I don't finish things that are too difficult (Q20, SD).	- 3.5	9.9
In my work, I don't usually do more than I have to (Q21, SD).	1.1	14.5*
I frequently think over what we have learned in my English classes (Q22, SA).	14.3	19.6*
I am happy with how much English I speak now (Q35, SA).	6.6	- 27.7

Table 4.3 *Comparison of Motivational Effort*

The experimental class reported meaningful negative change in response to Q35 at -27.7% while none of the control class responses exhibited meaningful negative change. To better illustrate the comparison of motivational effort, the following figure provides a visual summary of meaningful changes (Figure 4.3).

Three of the five questions to which responses demonstrated no meaningful growth for the control group (Q15, Q16, and Q35) were related specifically to English language learning. Two of the five questions to which responses demonstrated no meaningful growth for the control class (Q20, Q21) were related to effort in general.

The experimental class responded with positive motivational growth to questions of both general motivation as well as motivation to learn English and the effort needed to accomplish this language goal as seen in Q15, Q17, Q19, Q20, Q21, and Q22 in Figure 4.3.

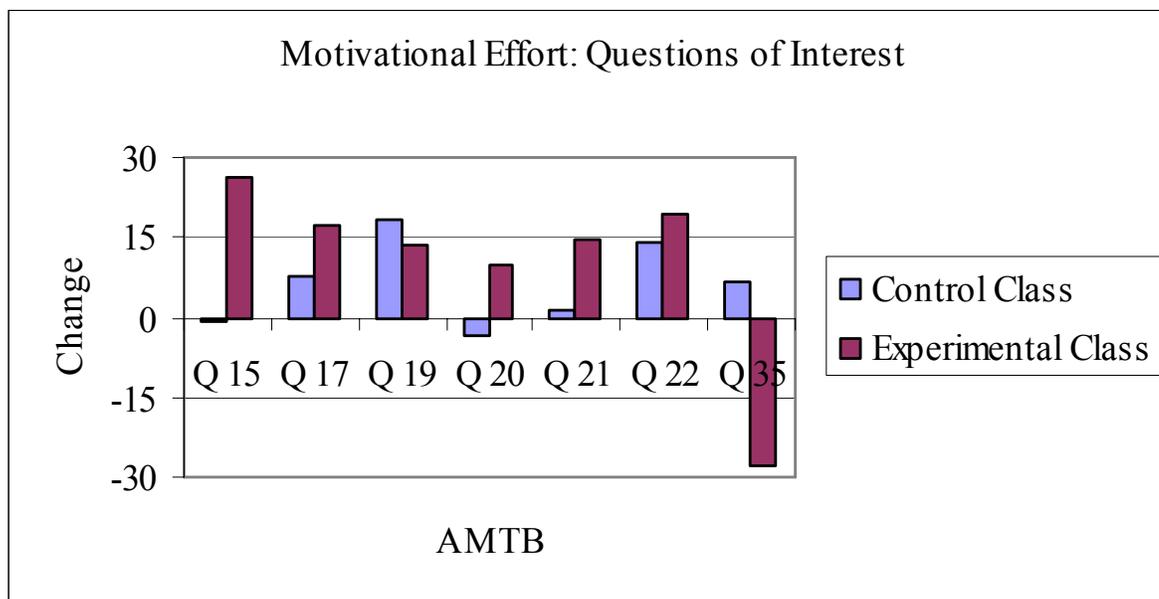


Figure 4.3 Comparison of Motivational Effort

Question 19 and Q22 are the only questions in the motivational effort cluster that showed meaningful positive change in responses reported by both the experimental and control classes. Question 19 concerns general hard work and is not necessarily related to language learning. Question 22 concerns effort spent outside of English class reflecting on the language learning that occurred in class. Question 15, Q17, Q20, and Q21 indicate meaningful positive change for the experimental class only. Conversely, the control class reported no meaningful change for Q35 while the responses of the experimental class demonstrated meaningful negative change in that one question. In short, the experimental class exhibited consistently meaningful positive change in motivational

effort expended towards learning the target language as shown in six of the seven questions above. The control class exhibited somewhat sporadic growth as reported in two of the seven questions within the motivational effort cluster. Question 35 exhibited a unique response pattern as it is the one question qualifying as negative meaningful change within this cluster of questions and so will be further discussed in Chapter Five.

Comparison of Language Anxiety

As in the previous section regarding motivation, language anxiety as measured by the AMTB sometimes requires an SA answer and sometimes an SD answer to show meaningful positive growth in motivation toward language acquisition depending on the phrasing of the statement in the question. There was some meaningful change reported by the experimental class in 50% of the questions in this cluster group though the following section contains data for all eight questions in the section on language anxiety.

Numerical data on the differences in growth between the control and the experimental classes as well as the specific statements for the four questions that showed qualifying changes in participant responses is given in Table 4.4. As explained previously, experimental class results for Q23, Q24, and Q28 were rounded to 10.0% for purposes of discussion as the change was within 0.9 of the amount necessary to show meaningful change (10.0%). Responses to Q25, Q27, Q29, and Q30 did not exhibit meaningful change. Respondents in the experimental class reported a meaningful change of 9.8% to Q23 and Q24, a 15.5% change in response to Q26, and a meaningful change (if rounded to 10.0%) of 9.1% to Q28.

Language Anxiety Questions	Control Class	Experimental Class
I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class (Q23, SD).	2.0	9.8
I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do (Q24, SD).	- 8.7	9.8
It embarrasses me to give answers in our class (Q25, SD).	-5.0	0.7
I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English (Q26, SD).	- 4.8	15.5
I usually get uneasy when I have to speak in English (Q27, SD).	-4.5	2.5
I feel calm and confident when together with English-speaking people (Q28, SA).	- 2.5	9.1
It is not embarrassing to give directions in English to Americans (Q29, SA).	2.0	2.0
When I have to speak English on the phone I am easily confused (Q30, SD).	1.1	5.7

Table 4.4 *Comparison of Language Anxiety*

As shown in Table 4.4, all instances of positive meaningful change were reported by the experimental class only. The control class reported no meaningful change in language anxiety. The closest qualifying response, a -8.7% change for the control class in Q24, indicated negative growth in response to the statement, “I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.” To better illustrate this numerical data, a

chart is provided visually detailing the meaningful growth towards feeling comfortable communicating in English (see Figure 4.4).

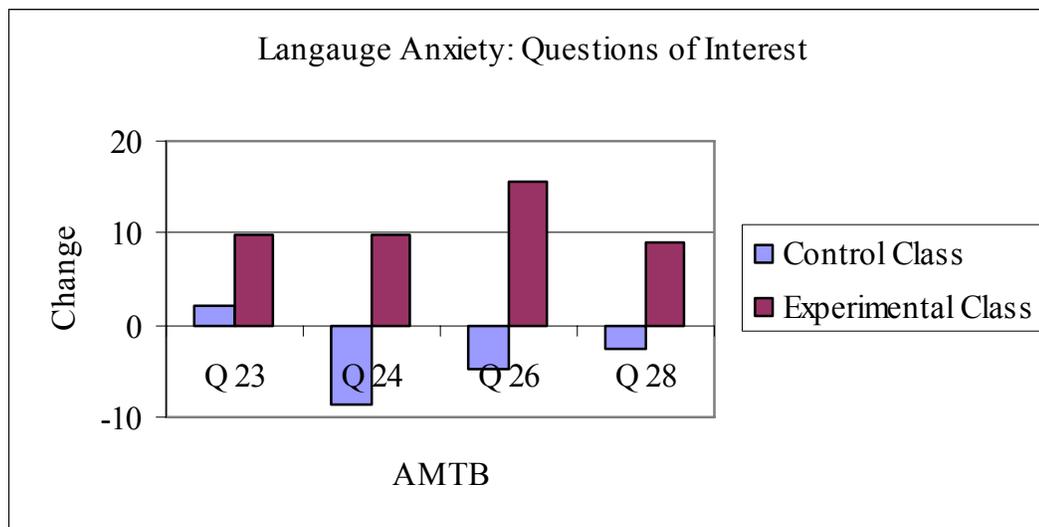


Figure 4.4 Comparison of Language Anxiety

The control class exhibited no positive growth in their responses to questions in the language anxiety cluster and indeed seems to have experienced a slightly negative language anxiety growth as depicted in chart 4.4. Conversely, the experimental class exhibited a more than 9% growth in half of the questions comprising this section. No questions in this section need to be removed for reliability purposes using the Cronbach Alpha coefficients as a determinant. The responses to similar questions are consistent. It can be stated that the control class did not exhibit growth towards overcoming language anxiety while the experimental class exhibited some meaningful growth in this same area over the course of the theater intervention.

Comparison of Attitude

There was some meaningful change experienced by either the control or the experimental class in 66.7% of the question responses in the cluster of the AMTB concerning attitude toward the language-learning situation.

Attitude	Control Class	Experimental Class
This group is made of people who work well together and fit together (Q31, SA).	8.8	16.1
There are some people in this group who do not really like each other (Q32, SD).	3.1	15.0
I am not happy with this group (Q33, SD).	-19.7	14.1
I am happy with this English class (Q34, SA).	20.2	33.1*
Our English class is (all the same... all different) (Q37, other).	-4.9	5.7
Our English class is (very interesting...very boring) (Q38, other).	-14.3	4.4
Our English class is (very easy...very difficult) (Q39, other).	0.8	6.6
Our English class is (very useful... very useless) (Q40, other).	4.7	5.3
Our English class is (very meaningful... very meaningless) (Q41, other).	-0.8	-31.9

Table 4.5 *Comparison of Attitude*

This section contains data for all nine questions in this cluster group with a detailed report following about the six questions in which at least one group of participants reported meaningful change over the course of the six-week study. The data for the control and experimental classes in terms of responses generated to the attitude portion of the survey are reported below in numerical form (Table 4.5).

As shown in Table 4.5, the control class exhibited meaningful change in responses to three of the nine questions. The experimental class exhibited meaningful change in responses to five questions. The six questions which demonstrated no meaningful change for the control class were in response to whether there were some people in this group who did not really like each other as well as a series of questions asking the students to define the class as easy or difficult, meaningful or meaningless, and so on. The four questions in which responses demonstrated no meaningful change for the experimental class were in this latter group of questions rating the class.

Respondents in the control class gave somewhat conflicting responses to similarly worded questions while the experimental class responses to these same questions were consistent. Question 33 is close to the simple negation of the statement used in Q34. The statement used in Q33 was, "I am not happy with this group," while the statement used in Q34 is, "I am happy with this English class." Responses from the control class showed meaningful negative change in Q33 at -19.7% but showed meaningful positive change in Q34 at 20.2%. Experimental class responses showed meaningful positive change for both Q33 at 14.1% and Q34 at 33.1%. On the related subject of respondent attitude toward the people comprising the class, the experimental group showed consistent positive change

reported in Q31 and Q32. For the experimental class, these responses are consistent with the positive changes in Q33 and Q34 also. For the control group, no such correlation exists between responses to overall happiness in Q33 and Q34 and the related Q31 and Q32 on the people comprising the class. Additionally, the responses to Q38 were very different also. The control class responded to the statement regarding whether the class was very interesting or very boring with a negative 14.3% change in response. The experimental class answered the same question with a 4.4% positive change in response. The Q38 response by the experimental class is consistent with responses to three other questions (Q37, Q39, Q40) in the attitude cluster group of questions. The control class response to Q38 is consistent with its response to Q33, but inconsistent with other responses in this cluster group.

Respondents in the experimental class gave somewhat conflicting responses to the similarly worded questions Q40 and Q41 while the control class responses to these same questions were more consistent. The control class response for Q40 indicated a small (4.7%) positive change in response to rating this English class on a scale of usefulness. The data from Q41 are similar to this response with a -0.8% change in response to rating this English class as very meaningful to very meaningless. Both Q40 and Q41 responses by the control class are consistent in that there is no meaningful amount of change for either question. The inconsistency occurs when examining the experimental class responses to Q40 and Q41. The experimental class's response to Q40 about usefulness only indicated a 5.3% change. This is not a meaningful change in response. On the other hand, the experimental class response to Q41 indicated a meaningful negative change of

31.9% in response to rating this English class on a scale of *meaningfulness*. The control class responses to both questions were relatively consistent and did not demonstrate any meaningful change in response while the experimental class responses to Q40 and Q41 varied greatly. Responses to Q31, Q32, Q33, Q34, Q40, and Q41 will all be discussed in the following chapter with more speculation as to possible reasons for these inconsistencies.

The highest meaningful change for either the control class or the experimental class was in response to Q34 which concerned happiness over the learning situation or English class. In Q34, the respondents from the control class showed a positive movement towards a general happiness with the class (20.2%), and the experimental class reported a 33.1% change in response to this question, a change which is statistically significant. Nearly half of the participants demonstrated a change in their ideas about the class over the course of the intervention.

Figure 4.5 provides a visual reference to the growth made by the control and experimental classes (see Figure 4.5). The experimental class demonstrates positive meaningful change regarding their attitude towards the learning situation in four times as many questions as the control class. The control class exhibited somewhat positive meaningful change in attitude towards the learning situation in only one question. The one question in which the control class exhibited a positive response regarded general happiness with the English class. The experimental class exhibited a positive change in response regarding questions concerning the English class, the people comprising the

class, and the instructional strategies used in the class. Both classes exhibited some inconsistencies in response as is clearly indicated in Figure 4.5.

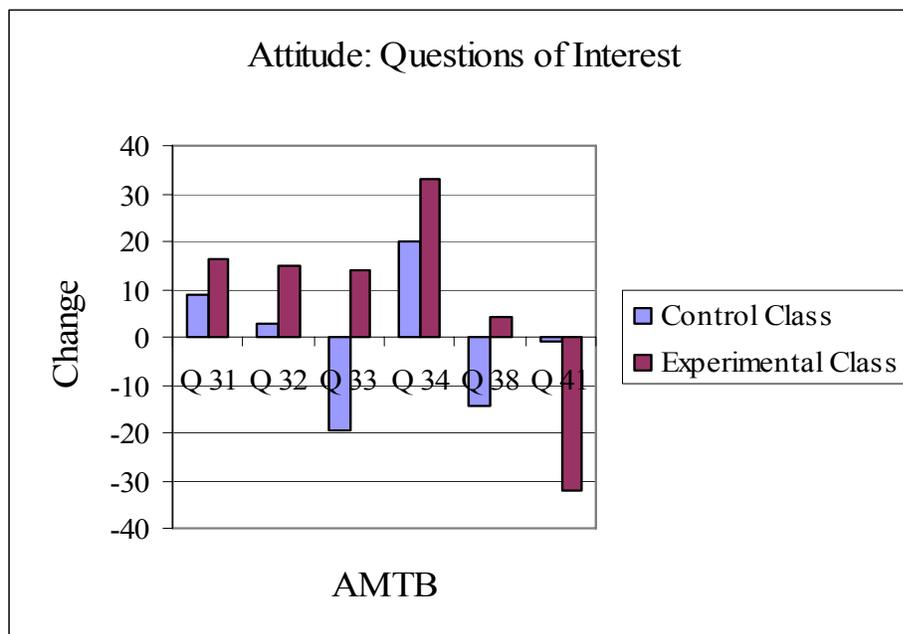


Figure 4.5 Comparison of Attitude

In summary, using the above tables and charts for comparative analysis, several statements can be made regarding the comparative change in motivation to learn English as measured by this version of the AMTB. It can be stated that the control class exhibited a higher number of positive meaningful change instances in the cluster area of integrativeness motivation while the experimental class exhibited minimal change in this area. The control class indicated zero meaningful changes in the area of language anxiety. Concerning the area of instrumental orientation, each group indicated some meaningful change in motivation. Finally, the experimental class reported a higher number of positive meaningful changes in the cluster areas of motivational effort expended, relief from language anxiety, and attitude towards the learning situation.

Overall change in all areas for both classes was most consistently positive in the AMTB clusters of integrativeness orientation, motivational effort expended, and attitude.

Lesson Plans and Teacher Reflective Logs

The daily lesson plans and teacher reflective logs were collected in an attempt to see if ELLs prefer theater activities and performance experiences to the more common communicative activities. The daily lesson plans provide a complete picture of the activities used in the theater intervention class and are most valuable when considered with the teacher log. The teacher reflective logs were completed twice weekly. They describe the activities of the experimental class and make observations about student behavior. There are no reflective logs for the control group. The following paragraph reports on notes and reflections from the lesson plans and teacher reflective logs.

The experimental class lesson plans reveal estimated time spent on several categories of activities throughout the course of the intervention. Approximately 55% of class time was spent on verbal and nonverbal communicative activities such as general speaking and listening practice. Approximately 25% of class time was used to do theater warm-up activities and community-building games. Approximately 15% of class time was used specifically for student formal performance or for observation of professional theater performances. The remaining 5% of class time was used for pronunciation practice using tongue twisters or homework assignment collection and distribution. The amount of time spent on each activity varied daily; these percentages are meant to reflect the amount of time spent on each type of activity over the course of the entire intervention experience.

The teacher reflective logs or journals consist of observations made over the course of the intervention. The part of the teacher logs which details the activities used in class is the same as that reported in the lesson plans. Remaining sections discuss which activities went poorly, which activities went well, and include open observations of a student or students.

In the section of the teacher reflective log which details impressions of activities that went poorly, 60% of the time I noted that nothing had gone poorly. In the remaining observations, 22% of the time a reference was made to not having enough time, and 18% of the time I made the reference that an individual student was experiencing difficulty with an activity or was misunderstanding the purpose of the activity including directions. In the section which details impressions of activities that went well, 72% of the time I made a note about how well the group work was going and how the students were excited about the theater activity done that day. The perception of excitement was determined through student facial expressions such as smiling, a higher level of noise due to student participation, and general attentiveness during direction-giving and discussion. The remaining 28% of the log is made up of two observation types. Twenty percent of the time, I made an observation about the growth of an individual or a group of students in verbal and non-verbal fluency. The remaining 8% of the observations note good ideas generated by individual students or small groups which I felt demonstrated understanding of the creative performance piece.

The section in which I made observations about students was the most varied. Fifteen percent of the entries consist of notes about adapting the content for students with

special needs such as severe to moderate hearing loss. Eighteen percent of the entries in this category showed that students were somewhat shy to volunteer for a new game, performance, or activity. Student responses to field trips and performances made up 24% of the teacher reflections. The remaining 43% of observations consisted of important notes and reminders for the following lessons or guiding remarks for adapting future lessons. In Chapter Five, correlations will be noted for results from the lesson plans, the teacher reflective logs, and the AMTB results.

Student Responses to Theater Intervention

This section is a report of observations made through reading student note card responses. It attempts to answer the question of whether the experimental or control subjects could articulate why class activities had an impact on their English language learning or on their motivation to learn the target language. For the experimental class, collection of student ideas about regular communicative class activities as well as theater and performance activities was on-going throughout the study. In the control class, responses were only collected during the final week of the intervention. The control and experimental class responses to Q42 are compared in the last section. Question 42 from the survey questionnaire concerned which class activities students reported as being most helpful.

Students in the experimental group kept a daily journal of their theater experience and responded to prompts on note cards a few times a week. The journal instructions asked students to reflect on the learning and activities which had occurred in class that day and to write at least three sentences every day. For the most part, journal entries were

a log of activities and observations made throughout the course of the intervention.

Students consistently stated enjoying games and having fun with their peers as one of the highlights of class time. The journals were periodically shared out loud with partners, in small groups, or with the whole class. They formed a basis for sharing reflections on the intervention experiences in an on-going and natural way. More discussion stemming from student journals will occur in Chapter Five as the journals were instrumental in the on-going analysis of the intervention and in decisions made about activities over the course of the intervention.

The note card prompts varied (Appendix B). Analysis of the student responses remained on-going throughout the course of the study. Responses changed little throughout the course of the intervention. This being the case, it is possible to simply look at the student responses in journals and on note cards from weeks one, four, and six.

During week one of the intervention, students were asked to write what they liked about their class that week. Fifty percent of the respondents reported that they liked to play theater games (such as Zoom Zoom). Twenty-five percent of respondents reported that they liked the interaction with other students (how friendly other students were to them, for example). Only 12% replied with questions unrelated to what they had enjoyed about class that week (“I wonder what our play will look like,” for example).

During week four of the intervention, one of the prompts students were asked to respond to involved what activity they had learned the most from that week. Sixty percent of responses noted that they had learned from working with their groups in creating tableaux. Twenty-five percent of respondents stated that they enjoyed

performing for others in class or watching the performances of others in class. Creating and performing the group tableaux was specifically part of the theater intervention. The control class did have some experience with performance also as they gave individual speech performances during class. Fifteen percent of responses were unrelated to the question. For example, one student asked the question, “Why do we have to learn about this lesson?”

During week six of the intervention, one of the prompts the experimental group of students was given regarded what activities in the class they found most helpful. Eighty-seven percent of the time, responses included references to speaking English or time spent generally practicing English through communicative activities. Twelve of 23 responses, or 52%, included references to community-oriented activities such as helping friends, working with groups, and sharing ideas. Eight of the 23 responses (34.7%) included a reference to an activity that was specifically a part of the theater intervention. These responses include creating tableaux, playing interesting theater games, and demonstrating tableaux work to each other as a performance element. Finally, two of the 23 responses involved other activities. These were weekly tongue twisters and writing, which were non-specific to the intervention.

The same prompt regarding activities that were the most helpful was also given to the control class at this time. The control class responded in categories easily related to and comparable with the experimental class. Twelve of 19 responses (63.2%) in the control group involved speaking English, 16 of 19 responses (84.2%) involved classroom community, and one of 19 responses (05%) related to other activities. One other category

consisted of one response which included “reading aloud” for the class. Comparing the two classes in the categories of (1) general practice communicating in English and (2) working as a group or class community, the percent of responses in each category is almost reversed. In the control class, 63.2% of responses included practicing speaking English while in the experimental class 87.0% of responses included that same idea. In the second category, working together in a community and sharing ideas, 84.2% of responses in the control class included this while only 52.2% of the experimental class responses made reference to these activities. This interesting response pattern will be discussed further in Chapter Five.

Student note cards were analyzed for the purpose of finding out whether the ELL students involved could identify which specific part of the intervention was most helpful to them. As their answers fluctuated greatly from the beginning to the end of the study, further discussion surrounding student responses on note cards will be addressed in Chapter Five.

Performance Assessment Results

The purpose of this section is to report any marked changes in participants’ verbal or nonverbal fluency as measured by fluency evaluations. See Appendices E, F, and G for details concerning individual categories used in the performance evaluation forms which are not provided here. The context of the performance for the evaluation was individual student speeches which were formal and given in front of classroom peers only by both groups. As the classroom teacher, I completed these evaluations both during the pre-intervention phases and the post-intervention phase. The performance evaluation

form used was consistent with the time frame and purpose of the study that included the necessity of a verbal and nonverbal fluency measure. The verbal and nonverbal fluency evaluations were administered pre- and post-intervention for both the control and experimental classes. For a copy of the skill areas evaluated on the fluency assessment, refer to Appendix A. As with the AMTB, the verbal and nonverbal fluency evaluations are most helpful when measuring the degree of change made by either the control class or the experimental class and then doing a comparative analysis of the results. Furthermore, as with the AMTB results, significance testing was used to determine if any performance assessment results exhibited a significant change. No results indicated a statistically significant change in either the control or experimental classes. In other words, error factor analysis determined that there was not significant change at the 80% confidence level. Control and experimental class results are still reported below, and the following section details the communication differences according to the matrix used for evaluation. It is important to note that both the control and experimental class had some positive growth and that neither class exhibited negative growth.

Mean scores for the control class are shown in the Table 4.6. The control class showed a total growth of 9.6% in verbal communication, 11.1% in nonverbal communication, and an overall growth of 10.2%. According to the performance evaluation assessment performed at the beginning and at the end of the study, the control class exhibited meaningful growth in both verbal and nonverbal areas of communication. The criteria for meaningful growth was a full or partial letter grade change based on a standard grading scale. By a standard scale, I mean one which uses a 10% interval

between letter grades. If the class mean score improves enough to change letter grades, it demonstrates a significant change in language growth as determined by the formal performance evaluation.

Control Class	Verbal (max possible 50)	Nonverbal (max possible 50)	Composite (max possible 100)
Week One: Mean score	40.7	39.8	80.5
Percent score	81.4%	79.6%	80.5%
Week Six: Mean score	45.5	45.4	90.7
Percent total	91.0%	90.8%	90.7%
Growth in Mean Score	4.8	5.6	10.2
Growth in Percent	9.6%	11.1%	10.2%

Table 4.6 *Control Class Performance Evaluation*

Mean scores for the experimental class are shown in table 4.7. The experimental class showed a growth of 7.75% in verbal communication and 6.22% in nonverbal communication. The composite score for verbal and nonverbal communication showed a growth of 7.0%. According to the performance evaluation scores listed in Table 4.7, the experimental class also exhibited meaningful growth in verbal and nonverbal fluency over the course of the intervention. To compare the control and experimental classes, the percent of change can be used directly. The control class showed a 9.6% change in verbal fluency; the experimental class showed a 7.75% change in verbal fluency. The control class showed an 11.1% change in nonverbal fluency, and the experimental class showed a

6.22% change in nonverbal fluency. The control class showed a 10.2% overall change in growth while experimental class showed a 7.0% overall change.

	Verbal	Nonverbal	Composite
Experimental Class	(max possible 50)	(max possible 50)	(max possible 100)
Week One: Mean score	40.7	44.1	84.8
Percent total	81.45%	88.18%	84.8%
Week Six: Mean score	44.6	47.2	91.8
Percent total	89.2%	94.4%	91.8%
Growth in Mean Score	3.9	3.1	7.0
Growth in Percent	7.75%	6.22%	7.0%

Table 4.7 *Experimental Class Performance Evaluation*

It is also important to note that the mean scores of the verbal portion were comparable for both classes at 40.7. The nonverbal mean raw score of the experimental group was slightly higher at the start of the study at 44.1 compared with 39.8 for the control group. On the other hand, the post-intervention composite percentage scores for the control group are slightly higher (+3.2%) than those of the experimental group. The mean composite scores reflect these differences though both classes exhibited growth in language fluency. In short, both the control group and the experimental group experienced similar gains in communicative competence as measured using the fluency evaluation tool.

Summary of Results

This chapter presented results from the data gathered on the research question. The focus of the study is the effect of drama activities, play creation, and play performance on the motivational variable of language learning. It includes reasons students may give for a possible change in motivation and fluency gains made in either the verbal or nonverbal categories of the performance evaluation rubric. Results were presented in four sections based on collection tools. The first section was a detailed presentation of changes exhibited by both the control and experimental classes on the Attitude and Motivation Test Battery. Results were presented in the following cluster areas of motivation: integrativeness orientation, instrumental orientation, motivational effort, language anxiety, and attitude towards the learning situation. Both classes experienced some level of positive change in motivation. A detailed discussion of cluster areas and changes exhibited by the control and experimental classes follows in the Chapter Five. The second section presented results of the lesson plans and the teacher reflective logs. Results included estimated times spent on activities throughout the course of the intervention as well as consistent observations of student behavior and intervention activities. The third section reported results based on the student reflective journals and note cards analyzed over the course of the intervention. The student reflective comments were analyzed throughout the intervention though there was not much change. The students were then asked to reflect on reasons for positive change, and the answers for both classes were categorized and compared. The fourth section presented results regarding the performance evaluation administered to each class group

both pre- and post-intervention. Both the control class and the experimental class exhibited similar positive changes in communicative competency in the speeches which were used for evaluative purposes. An analysis of these results is the subject of Chapter Five along with reflections on the process of this study and on possible areas for future study of L2 motivation in high school ESL students and the effect of theater activities and performance on that motivation.

CHAPTER FIVE: ANALYSIS AND CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study was to measure the changes in motivation that occurred in secondary ESL students over the course of a play-creation and performance intervention. In other words, what effect do play-creation and performance experiences have on the motivation of low-intermediate secondary ELL learners toward speaking English? In this chapter, I analyze the data reported previously in an attempt to answer this research question as well as related questions. One related question was what reasons, if any, students were able to articulate for why theater activities and performance experience might have had an impact on their language learning. Another related question was whether there were any marked changes in verbal or nonverbal fluency for either the control class or the experimental class. The first section attempts to analyze results concerning the effects of the intervention on L2 motivation as reported by the AMTB, the teacher reflection logs, and the lesson plans. Secondly, I attempt to analyze results from student reflective note cards, including journals, and Q42 of the survey questionnaire to see what reasons students provided about why the intervention might have worked. In the third section, I attempt to analyze the results of the communicative performance evaluation to see if any changes in verbal or nonverbal fluency occurred. In the last section, general reflections on the process used in this study and on study results will be discussed and possible future areas of related study will be explored. Finally, I

encourage readers to reflect on these results in the context of their respective learning situations.

Analyzing L2 Motivation Growth

The effects of the theater intervention on motivation were generally positive. The intervention used in this study consisted of play-creation and performance activities administered to one of two similar ESL student groups. The control class participated in communicative activities that did not include play-creation and performance. The experimental class participated in communicative activities that included play-creation and performance. Students in both classes took the Attitude and Motivation Battery Test (AMTB) before and after the intervention in an attempt to quantify their motivation. The primary research question will be examined through analyzing the results of the AMTB and teacher observations. The AMTB was the primary collection tool used for collecting motivational results in this study. AMTB results will be analyzed by referring to the same five cluster groups of motivation discussed in Chapter Four. They are integrativeness orientation, instrumental orientation, motivational effort, language anxiety, and attitude toward the learning situation. The results of the AMTB are more valuable if examined in the context of the learning situation. Therefore, this section also analyzes the teacher reflective logs and lesson plans to provide a clearer context for the differences between the control and experimental classes. This section dealing with the effect of play creation and performance experiences on motivation includes a general analysis of the control and experimental class results. I also include personal thoughts

and reflections on the intervention and the use of the AMTB results to measure motivational change.

A few things need to be clarified concerning the interpretation of the AMTB results. For the purposes of qualifying motivational change in this analysis, any meaningful positive change reported by participants is attributed to positive growth or willingness to grow in motivation to learn English. In other words, I feel that meaningful changes reported in the previous chapter directly correlate to motivational growth. The same concept will be applied with somewhat more confidence to statistically significant results where statistically significant change equals positive growth in motivation to speak the L2. This is in keeping with the concept of motivation explained in Chapter Two where the motivation of the language learner varies over time due to the complexity of the language-learning task. The AMTB, student note cards, teacher reflective log, and lesson plans also allow a glimpse into students' usage of the six language learning strategies (Ehrman, et. al., 2003). The students' possible use of cognitive, metacognitive, memory-related, compensatory, affective, and social strategy usage throughout the intervention is discussed. It is possible that student participants experienced a change in motivation which was documented by the AMTB and that this change correlates with the growth in the language motivation construct of the learners. This correlates with Dörnyei's (2001b, 2006) concept of motivation as a time-dependent variable. Concepts of demotivation or meaningful negative change will also be addressed when appropriate. Both positive and negative change at the very least show the beginning of movement and change within the individual learner's motivational construct for learning language. This

study does not attempt to show if motivational change is fully realized or sustained over time. Therefore, the following section analyzes the reported results in the context of the six-week time frame of the intervention with changes on the AMTB being a signal of L2 motivational growth.

Integrativeness Orientation Results Analysis

Integrativeness orientation questions are designed to measure the motivation of the language learner to become an integrated member of the culture corresponding to the target language. I wanted to pay particular attention to this area of motivation, as a recent study by Dörnyei and Clement (2000) found integrativeness to be the most powerful general component of a language affective disposition. How a student determines which language to use in a given context as well as the effort a student is willing to invest in second language learning can be greatly affected by the measure of integrativeness orientation reported by the student (Dörnyei & Clement, 2000). According to results reported in Chapter Four, the control class had positive growth on the questions about developing relationships with Americans and other cultures. Indeed, the control class reported positive meaningful growth on four of the five questions in this cluster area in response to statements such as “Americans are friendly and kind.” Because of this response pattern, it can be stated that the control class exhibited more positive growth in the area of integrativeness orientation while the experimental class only showed positive growth on the question of needing to think and act like an American (Q14). The control class actually reported a small meaningless amount of demotivation in response to Q14.

This brings in the question of reliability when Q14 is taken in context with the rest of the responses to the questions in this cluster.

As stated in Chapter Four, if Cronbach Alpha coefficients were used, Q14 as a one-question anomaly would be discarded from this subsection in order to achieve reliability. The results would then clearly show that the control class reported the most growth in the area of integrativeness orientation while the experimental class actually reported demotivation in integrativeness orientation. This one-question phenomenon, however, might be explained by carefully noting the wording of Q14 which states, “It is important for me to know English in order to think and *act* like the Americans.” As the experimental class had been receiving instruction specifically designed to lead to effective communication through acting, it is easy to see how second language learners with low-intermediate proficiency might have over generalized the use of this theater-specific vocabulary. The first time the experimental class took the AMTB, they were unfamiliar with the idiom “to act like” but probably interpreted it correctly based on the context of the question. The second time the experimental class took the AMTB, they had received specific instruction on the verb “to act”, but the use of the idiom had not been explained. The importance of acting as a form of communication might have been clearly communicated but not the idea of taking on American mannerisms and language in order to more smoothly integrate into American culture. This, then, is a possible explanation for the experimental class reporting positive change in response to only one of the five questions. If this study were repeated, the wording “act like the Americans do” could be modified to “behave as the Americans do” without losing the meaning of

the question. It is possible that there would still be positive change in response to this question, but it would be clearer whether this positive change was due to linguistic considerations or not.

It is also necessary to attempt to explain the control class response to Q14 which again states, “It is important for me to know English in order to think and *act* like the Americans.” The relative size of the high school program and the similarity between the two classes might possibly have affected the results for this question. The size of the ESL program is important because its small size allowed for everyone in the program to know what students in another group were doing. Students in the control class were similar enough to those in the experimental class that their schedules intersected at several possible points during the day. In other words, students in the control class knew that the experimental class was receiving the theater intervention. They knew that they were not receiving the same instruction in acting as their peers, and they had just seen the performance of the experimental class’s play before taking the second round of the questionnaire. This awareness of the intervention project may have influenced the students’ perception of the question using the word *act*.

Finally, the question of why the control class responses demonstrated explicit integrativeness orientation growth and why the experimental class responses did not might be related to the different communicative activities in each class. This idea will be addressed further in the section analyzing the teacher reflective logs and lesson plans. One possible explanation might be that the communicative activities in the control class maintained a more community-building focus while those in the experimental class

maintained a focus towards performance with less time spent on activities purely for the purpose of community building. Explanations for this warrant on-going discussion in upcoming sections as integrativeness orientation was not the only cluster area of L2 motivation in which the control class exhibited more growth than the experimental class. It is interesting, however, in relation to Dörnyei and Clement's (2000) study results. The impact of the reported change in the important area of integrativeness orientation is questionable when similar change was not exhibited in other cluster areas equally.

Instrumental Orientation Results Analysis

The instrumental orientation portion of the AMTB questions was designed to measure change in L2 motivation for practical, technical, or cultural purposes. As in the previous section on integrativeness orientation, the control class results reported greater change or greater growth than those from the experimental class. However, unlike in the previous section, the experimental class also reported some positive change. In other words, the control class shows the strongest overall growth in terms of raw percent for three of the questions while the experimental group shows a more moderate growth on three questions. This data is not surprising as both classes maintained a focus on using English for communicative purposes. In short, both the control and experimental classes demonstrated some positive growth in the area of instrumental orientation. Based on the data from the AMTB, it could be assumed that the control class and the experimental class experienced somewhat equal growth in this area even though only one class experienced theater intervention activities.

While both classes reported instrumental orientation growth in general, it is interesting to note some of the specific questions and responses. The following paragraphs discuss some of the possible reasons for changes in response to specific questions. With some degree of confidence, it can be stated that the control class experienced motivational growth in response to at least two specific statements. The first statistically significant growth was in response to the Q11 statement, “Studying English is important to me because I may need it later for work or school.” The second statistically significant positive growth was in response to the Q13 statement, “Studying English is important to me so that I can read English books, newspapers, or magazines.” From this data, it is assumed that the control class reported greater instrumental orientation motivational growth as it relates to learning English for academic purposes. The experimental class also reported positive growth in response to Q11 and Q13, but it was meaningful change (+10.0%) rather than statistically significant change. This could be attributed to the fact that the control class maintained a focus on communication in various social and academic contexts while the experimental class focused more on the formal theater performance context for communication.

Two other questions, Q10 and Q12, within this same cluster area of motivation are of interest because of a nearly opposite response pattern in each class. The experimental class showed meaningful growth in response to the statement in Q10, “Studying English is important to me so I can be a smarter person.” The control class showed no meaningful change in response to Q10. An analysis of the response data shows that the responses of the control class continued to be in the SA and Agree

categories with little change measured between the pre- and post- AMTB results. The experimental class, on the other hand, showed a positive 10.5% change in response. It is unclear why the control class did not respond with more positive growth in response to this statement unless the generality of “being a smarter person” was not thought to correlate directly with needing to learn the target language. Indeed, one can be a smart person while maintaining just the native language. The other interesting set of responses was to Q12 which states, “Studying English is important to me so that I can understand American movies, TV, or radio.” The control class demonstrated meaningful growth in response to this statement while the experimental class did not. Possible reasons for this difference in response could be that instruction for the control class included recordings of content from TV and radio while the communicative instruction included in the intervention for the experimental group did not. Thus, understanding target language communication for these specific instrumental purposes was considered important by the control class. If each data set had been analyzed separately, Q10 and Q12 could have been removed for reliability reasons. However, when interpreted in the context of results for both questions, student responses might be understood as explained above. In short, both classes reported growth in the area of instrumental orientation. The following section will discuss results from the motivational effort cluster.

Motivational Effort Results Analysis

The motivational effort portion of the AMTB measured the effort the learner is willing to expend in order to learn the target language. The questions in this cluster only measure the learners’ self-perception in this area as it is not a measure of the actual

outcome of the motivation. In other words, it is the intrinsic effort the learner reports, something that may or may not be observable in day-to-day classroom activities. It is simply one of the indicators of a later, more observable action towards the language-learning goal according to Dörnyei's model of motivation. This being the case, the growth reported in this section is important as it could be a precursor to action towards further L2 acquisition. It is also one of the two most variable factors in language motivation, the other being attitude toward the learning situation (Gardner, 2001). Language learning is a complex task, one that necessitates L2 learners sustaining effort over a long period of time. It is therefore important that the experimental class participants reported consistently meaningful growth in motivational effort expended towards learning the target language as shown by responses to 75% questions in this cluster. As reported in Chapter Four, the control class exhibited somewhat sporadic growth as reported in responses to two of the eight questions within the same cluster. These results will be discussed further along with the unique response pattern for one question with a qualifying negative meaningful change.

The experimental class results clearly indicate meaningful positive growth in the area of motivational effort as measured by the AMTB. With confidence it can be noted that responses to three of the questions in the cluster showed statistically significant growth. These questions were specifically related to the idea of learning English only because it is necessary, not doing more than they have to, and reflecting on learning from class. These responses may indicate a willingness to further expend effort in the future

toward the goal of learning English. The experimental class also demonstrated meaningful growth in a willingness to enjoy hard work and learn English.

The experimental class responses indicate that the intervention might have had a meaningful impact on motivational effort as measured by the AMTB. Reasons for this may be related to the creation and performance aspects of the intervention. The students in the experimental class had control over the play they created as students co-authored the play. The students had the ability to assign meaning to the communicative task, adding value to it. This follows similar play-creation results observed by Mandell and Wolf (2005) and others mentioned in Chapter Three. The increase in participation and the importance placed on communicative tasks such as the theater performance were documented by Mandell and Wolf (2005) in play-creation tasks and also maintained in the motivational results reported by experimental class participants. The performance element of the intervention may have provided for motivational growth that was, in this case, specifically observable through effort. The students in the experimental class may have been more willing to put effort into the goal of language learning because of the community performance. In other words, students may have wished to perform well for their peers and for the school community, and therefore may have been more willing to put effort towards communicating effectively. Finally, the only question in which the experimental class reported negative change will be addressed below.

The control class results demonstrate growth on only two questions in the motivational effort cluster. The control class growth can be characterized as somewhat sporadic. The response to the statement in Q19, "I enjoy hard work," indicates that

students are generally more able to enjoy hard work than they were previously. Whether this applies exclusively to the language-learning context is somewhat debatable. The control class responses to the statement, “I frequently think over what we have learned in my English classes,” (Q22) were also positive. This is slightly easier to interpret since in the post-intervention, students reported being more willing to reflect or think about the learning that occurred in class. Reflective learners are often more able to sustain language growth by becoming more aware of their own learning. Both the control and experimental classes reported similar responses to these two questions in this cluster. It is therefore possible that responses to these specific questions indicate that communicative activities in general may lead to positive growth.

Responses to the Q35 statement, “I am happy with how much English I speak now,” may involve issues of reliability. Six of the other questions in this cluster group demonstrated positive growth for the experimental class. Why then does this question showed a statistically significant negative result? The experimental class reported a negative 27.7% change in response to the statement while the control class showed a 6.6% positive change. In preparing for performance for others, the experimental class may have felt that they needed to put more effort into learning English and thus reacted negatively when asked if they were happy with their current level of proficiency. Their responses might actually have indicated a heightened sense of awareness of their own level of English proficiency. If this results in additional effort expended towards the target language goal, this change could be construed as positive. If this results in loss of effort towards the target language goal because of demotivation, this change could be

construed as negative. Taken in context with the rest of the experimental class responses in this cluster, it is more likely that this negative change could actually demonstrate positive growth. This is particularly true when taken in context with the positive change in reflective practices as seen in responses to Q22 and others. The responses of the control class to Q35 follow the pattern of sporadic growth shown in responses to all other questions in this cluster, thereby reinforcing the reliability of this question. The performance focus of the intervention may have influenced the experimental class results in response to the Q35 statement. The experimental class may have felt the need to increase English proficiency in response to the community performance.

Language Anxiety Results Analysis

This portion of the AMTB analysis focuses on the results reported for statements related to language anxiety. This cluster includes ideas surrounding learner perceptions of language achievement in relation to speaking with fellow target language learners as well as with native speakers of the target language. It is a measure of how comfortable a language learner feels communicating in the target language as reported by the learner. This area is of interest in this study because the performance part of the intervention could adversely affect the language anxiety level of the student participants. Instruction in both the control and experimental classes contained an element of performance, but the experimental class also performed for the larger school community while the control group maintained a focus of performing in the context of the classroom only. Results from this question cluster set indicate that the experimental class experienced some growth in the area of language anxiety, that is, they appear to be less anxious than they

reported being on the pretest while the control class experienced no meaningful growth and in fact reported a slight trend towards demotivation, that is, they reported being more anxious on the post-test. For this researcher, these are among the most counter-intuitive results as reported by either the control class or the experimental class. The act of speaking a second language in front of a large community of people who are unfamiliar to the student participants as well as speaking in front of peers could be a high anxiety issue for most people. However, as reported in this study the act of actually performing for these groups of people seems to have done something significant in allowing positive growth in the area of English language anxiety. This situation is in concurrence with the Willingness to Communicate studies by Baker, MacIntyre, Clément, and Donovan (2003b). The findings for the control class are in concurrence with another Willingness to Communicate study by these same researchers (Baker, et.al., 2003a). It is possible that the performance for peers only within the language classroom did not contribute the same amount of pressure on the student participants, and therefore a similar level of growth in language anxiety was not reached. Overall, these language anxiety results did not appear to negatively affect student performance in either class. The language anxiety results remain important, however, due to the fact that one of the purposes of the drama intervention was to contribute to feeling uninhibited (Mandell and Wolf, 2003).

The meaningful responses in this cluster of the AMTB were somewhat limited. Responses to only four of the eight questions in this cluster indicated meaningful change. Language anxiety was not an area previous studies had found to be highly variable (Gardner, 2001). Therefore, the lack of change in response to 50% of the questions is not

highly unusual given the length of time involved in the intervention. The experimental class demonstrated positive growth in response to the statements, “I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class” (Q23), “I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do” (Q24), “I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English” (Q26), and “I feel calm and confident when together with English-speaking people” (Q28). Because of the wording of the questions, positive responses to Q23, Q24, and Q26 necessitated a SD (Strongly Disagree) answer while a positive response to Q28 necessitated an SA (Strongly Agree) answer.

The experimental class clearly showed some positive growth in language anxiety. This means that apparently they now feel slightly more calm and comfortable speaking English in front of both fellow language learners and native English speakers. The control class exhibited no corresponding change in response. Therefore, the cause of growth in this cluster area could possibly be related to the play-creation and performance intervention. The exact cause in relation to the intervention is unknown, but several aspects of the intervention could be involved. The fact that the experimental class performed for both fellow language learners as well as native English speakers could be highly related. The experimental class also performed in a group context that could have alleviated some of the negative individual responses. The students in the experimental group also chose to communicate something they were passionate about through the use of the play-creation activities. That may mean that their inhibitions were overridden by the desire to communicate these ideas. Though the causes may continue to be discussed, what is known more confidently is that the responses in this section are fairly reliable.

There is no need to remove a question for reliability purposes. As the experimental group clearly demonstrated some positive growth in the area of language anxiety, and the control class did not, discussion surrounding intervention factors affecting language anxiety will be on-going throughout the remainder of this chapter.

Attitude Results Analysis

This section provides analysis of results from the attitude portion of the AMTB. Attitude towards the learning situation includes students' perceptions of instruction, the teacher, the classroom atmosphere, and peer relationships. As stated in the analysis of motivational effort, according to earlier L2 studies by Gardner (2001), motivational effort and attitude towards the learning situation were found to be the most variable factors over time. It is therefore not surprising that the experimental class exhibited statistically significant positive growth in the cluster area of attitude to correlate with the growth mentioned previously in the area of motivational effort. The results for this cluster group will be discussed in the following two paragraphs. First there is an analysis of the one statistically significant response followed by a discussion of positive and negative meaningful responses. In the attitude toward the learning situation cluster, the response to one question was statistically significant. The experimental class's response to the statement in Q34, "I am happy with this English class," was significantly positive. All other responses from the experimental class in the area of attitude are positive except for its response to Q41. Somewhat confusingly, its response to the statement in Q41, "Our English class is very meaningful," was meaningfully negative. The student responses to Q34 follow the pattern of reliability demonstrated by other statements in this cluster

while the meaningful negative response to the statement in Q41 does not. The responses to Q34 seem to indicate that the students enjoyed the learning situation created by the intervention. Possible reasons for this are detailed in the section discussing student note cards and responses to survey question 42. Further discussion surrounding the negative response to Q41 will continue below. The control class reported no statistically significant changes in response.

Other positive meaningful responses to questions in the attitude cluster differed to some degree between the two groups. The experimental class somewhat consistently reported growth in this area. The control class reported somewhat more sporadic growth. In response to Q31, Q32, Q33, and Q34, the experimental class reported meaningful positive growth in attitude related to how they perceived the group of people in class working together and in their general happiness with the class situation. The control class reported meaningful positive growth only in response to Q34 concerning general happiness with the class. The only similar response between the two classes was in response to the statement in Q34, "I am happy with this English class." The experimental class responses indicate a more positive perception of the classroom and fellow language learners. This could positively correlate with aspects of the intervention strategy. Further details regarding possible explanations for this slightly greater positive growth reported by the experimental class will be discussed in the section regarding the data collected through the teacher reflective logs and the lesson plans.

The negative meaningful responses reported in the attitude cluster of the AMTB are perhaps the most confusing. In particular, the control class response to the Q33

statement is in direct disagreement with the Q34 statement. Question 33 is the statement, “I am not happy with this group.” It is basically the negatively stated version of the Q34 statement, “I am happy with the this English class.” The change in the control class response to Q33 is -19.7% while the change in response to Q34 is positive 20.2%. One possible explanation might stem from the relatively small difference between the questions, namely the word “not.” Perhaps some members of the control class were not reading the statements carefully enough as the negative statement contained no underlining or other manner of drawing the reader’s attention to the negative nature of the statement. The other more probable explanation lies in the perceived difference between “group” and “class.” The control class is organized around table groups. Discussion often occurred in groups which were sometimes teacher-chosen and sometimes student-chosen. The control class might have thought the word “group” referred to its respective table groups. The experimental class demonstrated no such discrepancy in their responses to Q33 and Q34, but the class does not work in table groups. However, there is a discrepancy between the experimental class responses to Q41 and all other responses in the attitude cluster. The experimental class response to Q41 in the context of the remaining questions seems to indicate that while they enjoy the learning situation, they have not found it to be particularly meaningful to their everyday lives. The *Northstar series* is designed to initiate conversation on topics of interest for the English immersion-style learning context (Mills & Frazier, 2004). The topics and vocabulary are a combination of everyday language and content area vocabulary and topics. For example, the initial unit of the text is titled “Offbeat Jobs” and contains dialogues from a window-

washer and personal shopper. Vocabulary included in this unit ranges from common words used to describe skills and interests to specific vocabulary for offbeat jobs such as dog-walker. While the students may appreciate resumé-style language, the dialogues provided for classroom use are not wholly applicable to life outside the classroom due to the relative obscurity of some of the topics. The purpose of each unit is to encourage conversation between peers in class. This response to Q41 will be further discussed in the following analysis of general results of the AMTB as it could correlate to other cluster area responses reported by the experimental and control classes. Indeed, though the previous sections provide a separate analysis for each cluster area of language motivation, the greatest insights come from examining the AMTB results as a whole. Possible correlations between the cluster area results for each class as well as possible explanations as they relate to the intervention are discussed in the following section.

Effect of the Intervention on L2 Motivation

This section details the overall findings of the AMTB which indicate that while the control class reported more positive growth in the areas of integrativeness and instrumental orientations, the experimental class reported more positive growth in the areas of motivational effort, language anxiety, and attitude. Both the experimental and control groups showed some degree of meaningful growth in each of the five cluster areas measured by the AMTB test. Statistically significant and therefore somewhat more reliable growth occurred in the cluster areas of integrativeness orientation, instrumental orientation, motivational effort, and attitude toward the learning situation. Language anxiety was the only cluster area in which no response from either class was statistically

significant though some degree of meaningful change was reported by the experimental class. These general results were somewhat expected based on previous research in the areas of motivation and theater intervention in the second language classroom.

In regard to the meaningful growth demonstrated by the control class in the areas of integrativeness orientation and instrumental orientation, several statements can be made. The areas of integrativeness orientation and instrumental orientation are no longer considered to be as unrelated as they might have been in the past. Indeed, both Gardner (2001) and Dörnyei (2005) have mentioned that the dichotomy previously considered true between the two orientations might be inaccurate based on how closely they are used by an English as a Second Language learner. In other words, rarely is it that an ESL learner is motivated by purely integrativeness orientation. More often they are motivated by both orientations. It is therefore not surprising that the motivational growth reported by the control class in the integrativeness orientation cluster is somewhat mirrored by the results in the instrumental orientation cluster. The same is true for the somewhat more moderate growth reported by the experimental class in both orientation clusters. When comparing causes for the growth reported by experimental and control classes in the orientation cluster areas, care will be taken to detail possible differences in the instruction received by each class group. It can be stated that the intervention in the experimental class affected student motivation less in the areas of integrativeness and instrumental orientations than in other areas of language motivation. The activities used in the communicative context of the control class, however, did have some positive effect on responses to questions in the integrativeness and instrumental clusters.

The experimental class reported more positive growth in the areas of motivational effort, language anxiety, and attitude toward the learning situation over the course of the intervention than the control class did. Since, Gardner and Masgoret (2003) found motivational effort and attitude are the easiest areas of language learning motivation to affect, the fact that the experimental group showed statistically significant change in these two areas should not be a surprise. That responses in these two areas should correlate to somewhat more moderate effects reported in the area of language anxiety also makes sense in this context. The experimental class reported statistically significant growth in both effort and attitude. Overall, the control class exhibited less meaningful change in response in the areas of motivational effort, language anxiety, and attitude when compared with the growth reported by the experimental class. The increase in motivation in effort and attitude in the experimental class may possibly be tied to some aspect of the intervention. The greater confidence in communicating in the target language or at least the decrease in language anxiety reported by the experimental class may be related to some aspect of the intervention as well.

One other observation is that responses in different cluster areas may be related to one another in certain contexts. For example, the negative response reported by the experimental class in response to Q41 regarding the meaningfulness of the English class might correlate to the only moderate growth exhibited in the areas of integrativeness and instrumental orientation. In other words, the experimental class might have viewed the intervention as not specifically meaningful as students did not see how it would specifically help them with either the social aspects of integrativeness orientation or the

practical aspects of instrumental orientation. The experimental class reported no meaningful positive growth in the areas of instrumental and integrativeness orientations. The results from each cluster are often related to those in the other clusters in this way. Reliability is always a factor when viewing the questions in cluster groups instead of as a whole. Overall change must be considered as well as changes reported within each question or question cluster. Further discussion of possible causes for these general AMTB results are in the section containing the analysis of the lesson plans and teacher reflective logs.

Analysis of Lesson Plans and Teacher Reflective Logs

The lesson plans and teacher reflective logs will be used to help explain some of the results from the AMTB as well as contribute to a deeper understanding of the student responses reported in the second section under “Analysis of Student Note Card Responses.” The teacher reflective logs and lesson plans contribute to the understanding of what was different in the experimental class when compared with the activities experienced by the control class. Both classes maintained an emphasis on communication though the types of activities and conditions for performance differed. The communicative context of the control class was standard. Standard communicative activities included academic scaffolding, TPR, role play, the use of realia, dialogue journals, and information gap activities. Therefore, details here are provided only for the instruction the experimental class received over the course of the theater intervention. Some observations about correlations between the teacher logs and intervention lesson plans and areas of growth demonstrated on the AMTB follow though no assumption of

causation is made. The lesson plans recorded over the course of the intervention are most helpful in the context of the teacher reflective logs; therefore, both are considered simultaneously in the following paragraphs in relation to the AMBT results reported by the experimental class.

For purposes of analysis, the teacher reflective logs and lesson plans include intervention activities categorized into four general groups. The four categories used for analysis are (1) general listening and speaking practice, (2) theater warm-ups and community-building activities, (3) performance activities, and (4) a small amount of time used for general classroom tasks such as attendance and homework collection. With the information provided by the lesson plans and the teacher reflective logs, there is the possibility that the category of general listening and speaking practice, or verbal and nonverbal communicative activities, might have influenced the scores reported by the experimental class on the AMTB in the motivational effort and attitude toward the learning situation question clusters. The intervention lesson plans noted that approximately 55% of class time was spent on verbal and nonverbal communicative activities which include general speaking and listening practice. An example of an activity in this group includes small group work with the task of choosing the topic to be addressed in the play. Another example is an activity in which the class had to choose the title of the play. The emphasis of any activity was on communicating with an audience during the actual play performance. The teacher reflective logs include the observation that activities went well more than 70% of the time. This observation was based on student participation, positive student comments, and student facial expressions

such as smiling. Additionally, observations concerning an individual student's growth in relation to the communicative activity occurred 20% of the time. The emphasis on working together on tasks used later for a purpose beyond the classroom context, that is, the performance of the play for a real audience, may have been positively motivating and therefore reflected on the AMTB results in the effort and attitude clusters. It would seem that the growth in this area could directly relate to the class time spent on authentic communicative activities such as those used in the theater intervention.

Second, the lesson plans noted that approximately 25% of the time was used doing theater warm-up games and community-building activities. Through the teacher reflective logs, observations were noted that though students' general response to the daily activities was positive, approximately 18% of the log entries observed that students were somewhat shy to volunteer for a new game, performance, or activity. This is interesting in the context of the student note card responses discussed in the next section because the majority of activities which students reported liking the most were warm-up activities and community-building games. This reinforces the fact that what teachers observe and how students feel about activities can be two different things. This issue may be compounded in language classroom contexts such as this one where the teacher and the students are from different cultural and learning contexts. According to what students reported on their note cards, it could be that while they enjoyed the theater warm-up games and community-building activities, they were still dealing with a degree of language anxiety.

Also related to the theater warm-ups and community-building activities are the experimental class responses to questions in the integrativeness and instrumental orientation clusters. Though students reacted positively to the games and activities, cultural assumptions regarding learning might have influenced evaluative decisions on the practicality of the theater activities. In other words, though care was taken to explain the objective of each game or activity, including reasons for completing and participating in the activity, students might not have been able to ascertain how these activities and games related to their individual language objectives. Questions in the integrativeness and instrumental orientation clusters in some respect measure the motivation of the students to learn English for general life-related purposes. Could it be that instruction modeled after the Communicative Approach (CA) helped increase motivation in these areas? The content of the units presented in the *Northstar* series text include job skills and interests, women's rights, healthy eating, money, and many more high interest topics. Instruction modeled after this approach includes the use of realia, role play, and information gap activities which all seem to be adaptable to real life situations outside the classroom due to the interesting unit topics (Mills & Frazier, 2004). If so, perhaps the communicative activities the control class took part in had a more motivating effect, and this effect was reflected in responses to questions in the integrativeness and instrumental orientation clusters. It is possible that the small and specific gains made by the experimental class in the areas of integrativeness and instrumental orientations are related to the emphasis on warm-up games and community-building activities. Conversely, it is unknown whether the gains in the areas of motivational effort, language anxiety, and

attitude towards the learning situation would have been made without the use of these games and activities which comprised 25% of total class time.

The intervention lesson plan log noted that approximately 15% of class time was dedicated towards formal student performances or the observation of professional theater performances. Approximately 24% of the observations recorded in the teacher reflective log concerned positive student responses to these performances. It is important to note that while the final performance of the student-created play for the general community had perhaps the most observable impact on the learners, the performance element of the intervention was on-going. Though responses to questions in all cluster areas might have been affected by the performance aspect of the intervention, the most natural correlation seems to be the change in student responses in the language anxiety cluster. The experimental class clearly reported a meaningful positive change in at least some areas of language anxiety while the control class indicated no growth in this area. Because of the emphasis on performance and on speaking for a general audience of both fellow ESL learners and native speakers, it is possible that students became more calm and comfortable when speaking English. The experimental class spent more time on performance activities while the control class only experienced some performance activities such as role play performed for peers in class. In the control class, these performance activities focused more on the individual than on the group. Group performance, on the other hand, was an element intrinsic to the classroom theater intervention. This is an interesting thought as often one reason given for not including performance aspects in a communicative classroom context is the possible increase of

language anxiety on the part of the students. Again, no attempt is being made to show that the amount of time spent on performance caused a positive decrease in language anxiety, but there is a possible correlation between the two as observed in the lesson plans, the teacher reflective logs, and the reported results on the AMTB.

Finally, the intervention lesson plans noted that approximately 5% of class time was used for pronunciation practice or homework and assignment collection. These activities are routine tasks and mirrored the amount of time spent on these tasks in the control class as well. As these activities took place in both classes, no possible correlation between the time spent on these activities and the reported AMTB results will be attempted here. Any positive change that occurred due to these activities would have been measured equally by the AMTB results in each class. Furthermore, no mention was made of these routine activities in the teacher reflective logs.

In summary, the lesson plans and teacher reflective logs help to elicit possible correlations between the results reported on the AMTB and time spent on specific intervention activities. There is the possibility that the theater intervention activities might have influenced the areas of motivational effort and attitude towards the learning situation. Second, it may be that the small and specific gains made in the areas of integrativeness and instrumental orientations are related to the emphasis on warm-up games and community-building activities. Thirdly, it may be that the performance aspect of the theater intervention affected language anxiety as reported by the experimental class respondents to the AMTB. Finally, no observations can be made about certain routine aspects of the classroom. These are possible correlations as observed by the teacher-

researcher. What is known more concretely is that the theater intervention in the experimental class affected L2 motivation differently from the communicative instruction in the control class. The following section contains an analysis of student note card responses about aspects of the intervention they found most beneficial.

Analysis of Student Note Card Responses

As reported earlier, the areas of motivation most clearly affected by the theater intervention are motivational effort, language anxiety, and attitude toward the learning situation. Whether the theater intervention affected the areas of integrativeness and instrumental orientation is less apparent. A related question is whether the students themselves can articulate what impact intervention activities had on their language learning or more specifically on their motivation to learn English. In Chapter Four, the results for both the control class and experimental class were provided. This analysis will address both classes, but greater emphasis will be placed on responses from the experimental class. Responses from the control class simply help form a basis for contextualizing experimental class responses which may specifically address elements of the intervention. In examining the student response data, it is important to note when the data was collected. The final performance activity as well as other instances of group work, play-creation, and performance did not and indeed could not occur frequently in student responses because they were activities which only occurred at a specific point in the intervention. The note cards as well as daily journals in which they recorded their perceptions of the theater intervention activities were collected throughout the course of the intervention and may not mention these specific activities in an on-going manner.

The analysis is therefore more complete when the note cards and journals are added to the student responses to Q42 on the AMTB questionnaire. The responses to Q42 were only collected twice, once during the pretest and once during the post-test. Q42 was an open-ended question in response to the general statement, “Which activities from our class did you find most helpful?” The responses, therefore, could include any activity which made a significant memorable impact on the learner. The note card and journal responses are included so that the impact of elements that were perhaps of a “smaller” scale but were on-going (such as warm-up games) could be looked at in relation to elements of a “larger” scale which may have occurred at the end of the intervention (such as the final performance). That said, while the previous paragraphs analyzed the intervention results through the lens of the researcher, the following paragraphs attempt to convey reasons students articulated about the impact of the theater intervention.

Experimental class responses changed over time in regard to what activities students mentioned as having the most positive impact on their communicative competency. During the first week, half of the responses included references to warm-up games and community-building activities. This was expected because these activities took up a majority of class time during the beginning weeks of the intervention. These references to games and community-building activities were not sustained throughout the rest of the intervention, and so an assumption can be made that students found warm-up games and community-building activities important at first but not as novel later even though these activities continued throughout the intervention. In the responses collected at the beginning of the intervention, 25% of students in the experimental class stated that

they enjoyed interacting with other students. This increased to 60% by the mid-point of the intervention and was similar at the end of the intervention with 52.2% of the respondents including interacting with other students as the most important element of the communicative class. From this, it can be stated that at least half of the experimental class grew to appreciate the community interaction and group work inherent in the play-creation and performance process. With over half the class including interaction with peers as important, ESL teachers should not hesitate to include this kind of interaction either as part of a theater intervention or as part of instruction which uses the Communicative Approach.

At this point it is important to address the fact that 12-15% of the responses collected at the beginning and at the mid-point of the intervention were unrelated to the question. This answers the question of whether students at the low-intermediate proficiency level could answer the question in this context. About 85% of the students involved in the intervention could attempt to articulate reasons or activities that helped to improve their communication in English. This percentage improved by the end of the six-week intervention. At that time, 100% of students responded with an answer related to the question about what was most helpful for them as language learners. This is evident in their responses to Q42 of the survey.

The final responses to Q42 of the survey were categorized into three groups. It is interesting that 34% of the experimental class responses included references to activities that were specific to the theater intervention. One-third of the students in the experimental class chose a theater activity as important though this was tempered by the

fact that so much of the time spent in class was focused on theater-specific activities. The remaining two categories are (1) general practice communicating in English and (2) working as a group or class community. As reported in Chapter Four, the percentages recorded for each category are almost reversed between the control and experimental classes. This being the case, since 87% of the students in the experimental class included the idea of practicing speaking English, it can be stated that they found this element of practice to be most helpful. The control class reported that working together in a community and sharing ideas was important with 84.2% of responses including a reference to that aspect of a communicative classroom. It seems that the play-creation and performance intervention may have influenced student opinion regarding the most important elements of a communicative classroom context. At the end of the intervention, the experimental students clearly chose practicing English, defined as listening and speaking in English, as the most helpful activity.

Analysis of Performance Evaluation

As reported in Chapter Four, the verbal and nonverbal performance evaluations show no meaningful change within the time frame of the intervention. Neither the control class nor the experimental class showed statistically significant or even meaningful change. Both classes exhibited some positive growth as shown in the increase of the composite scores of 10.2% for the control class and 7.0% for the experimental class. The control class performance raw composite score was 80.5 and increased to 90.7 over the course of the intervention. The experimental class performance raw composite score was 84.8 and increased to 91.8 over the course of the

intervention. The intervention was therefore at least as beneficial for students in the experimental class as the control class communicative activities were for the control group. The three percent difference in the change in performance when comparing the gains made in both the experimental and control classes is small enough not to be meaningful. The 100-point scale system allows for the approximately three-point difference in gain when taken in context of the slightly different class sizes. The control class is slightly smaller than the experimental class. That being said, the relative similarity of the performance growth between the two classes is important for two reasons. The first reason is that as an educator it would have been unfair and extremely negligent to continue the intervention had not equal gains been evident in both groups. The second reason is that both classes showed similar amounts of growth in language performance though they reported different meaningful gains in different cluster areas of motivation. In other words, both classes showed the same relative amount of language growth overall though gains were made in different areas of motivation according to the AMTB results. Therefore, both classes received communicative instruction which enabled ESL students to achieve relatively equal growth. The fact that the control class demonstrated gains similar to the experimental class in both verbal and nonverbal communicative competency without the specific theater intervention activities is a tribute to the general Communicative Approach. And conversely, the fact that the experimental class demonstrated gains similar to those in the control class is an encouragement for educators to attempt theater interventions in the high school ESL communicative classroom context. Indeed, the results of this study seem to correlate with the findings of

Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels (1994) which found that older students tend to be more motivated in learning environments that provide opportunities for peer interaction, creativity, and autonomy as described in the theater intervention used for the purpose of this study. This would then perhaps lead to further growth in the area of Willingness to Communicate. The growth the experimental class demonstrated in the cluster area of language anxiety correlates to the theory that a speaker's perceptions of competence are situationally affected (Baker, et. al., 2003b). Finally, I should add that no significant change was expected in regards to the performance evaluation scores for either group due to the short time frame of the intervention. The fact that there was a small gain by both classes could be seen as a trend indicator of future increases in communicative competency. Indeed, if the increases in motivation measured by the AMTB are sustained, then future increases in communicative competency might be expected (Baker, et. al., 2003b). This leads to possible options for further study, options which will be discussed following the section on limitations of the current study and transferability issues.

Limitations and Transferability

There are several limitations which need to be stated explicitly here due to issues of transferability. Education involves human learners and human educators in an endless variety of contexts. It is to assist any educator who is interested in implementing a theater intervention that this section details limitations that may affect the language instructor's perception of how this particular study could be transferred to his or her learning context. As mentioned in Chapter Three, there were limitations due to the quasi-

experimental nature of this study. The first section below will explicitly describe final limitations of this particular study as they relate to the results and interpretation of the data collected, including issues of reliability.

I must once again draw attention to the quasi-experimental nature of this study. The two ESL classes involved in the study were very similar. However, the sample size was limited. A bigger sample size might have potentially provided more statistically significant data for analysis. The choice of 10% to show meaningful change was a foundational decision for this discussion, and this is a reminder that the reasons for doing so were provided at the beginning of Chapter Four. Using this figure may have affected analysis in such cluster groups as the language anxiety portion of the AMTB where all meaningful language anxiety results are close to the threshold amount. A bigger sample size would increase general reliability regarding statistically significant and meaningful change and would therefore affect both the results and the analysis of this study. A larger sample size which also is completely randomized would perhaps allow a similar study to qualify as experimental instead of quasi-experimental. A study which included a thousand or more participants could potentially yield different results depending on the context.

Three additional limitations include the revising of the AMTB for interpretation by low-intermediate proficiency learners, the length of the study, and the educational backgrounds of the student participants. The revisions made to the AMTB included several vocabulary words which were unfamiliar to the study participants. They are noted in the context of their cluster groups in Chapters Four and Five. Revisions of the

AMTB could have been ongoing. If students had understood each question better, we could have been surer of question reliability. Another aspect is the length of the study. It is uncertain whether the changes in motivation or communicative development noted here would be sustained for more than six weeks. Sustaining the study for a longer period of time might have allowed for more conclusive changes in proficiency levels and post-testing at intervals. One final thing that might have affected the quasi-experimental nature of the study was the degree to which the educational backgrounds of the students differed. As both classes were comprised of students with a variety of language, cultural, and educational backgrounds, it is less certain what impact those factors have on gains made throughout the course of the intervention. If students had been from a homogenous educational background, perhaps the effect of the intervention on motivation and proficiency levels could have been assessed with more certainty. Limitations aside, the results and analysis in this study indicate that the intervention had a positive effect on at least some aspects of motivation. This research was conducted in the context of one classroom; any different context could result in different outcomes. This then, is the issue of transferability. Therefore, ESL educators are encouraged to be innovative in the potential use of play creation and performance for use in their own classroom context.

Areas for Further Study

Though the question of what effect theater intervention activities have on L2 motivation was answered in this context, as with any field of study, the information provided here can lead to additional questions. Additional study is needed within the

context of ESL instruction to see whether play-creation and performance activities could be useful. This section will describe areas in which further study is needed.

Because of the limitations discussed in the previous section, an additional study in a somewhat similar context would be helpful to improve some aspects of reliability. An additional longitudinal study involving a larger sample size is needed to more concretely answer the question of what effect play-creation and performance activities have on L2 motivation. As there is limited research in this area, additional studies with results that correlate positively to this one would be most beneficial in allowing ESL educators a clearer picture of how theater interventions such as the one detailed in this study impact ESL learners. As Mandell and Wolf (2003) have outlined the five essential steps in allowing students to create a play, further study might enable teachers to know at which point change is evident in student L2 motivation. This study merely measured students' self-perceptions of motivation pre- and post-intervention. A study measuring motivation throughout the intervention, perhaps specifically during the creating original work step as well as the rehearsal step could provide interesting results.

Additional questions in this field are varied. Increasing certain aspects of L2 motivation in secondary learners is interesting relative to the impact it has on language learning in ESL and EFL contexts. The positive changes in motivation in the cluster areas of motivational effort, language anxiety, and attitude toward the learning situation are important for any ESL educator to note. Whether these changes are maintained across different ages and language contexts is an area with potential for further study. Also, relative to this study of the positive growth in motivation is the issue of

demotivation. Research by Dörnyei (1998), Gardner (2001), and others has already suggested that motivation in the context of language learning is a constantly changing factor based on a variety of elements related to the language learner. Again, there is so much that happens in language learner motivation and attitude that is internal and therefore unobservable that differences are not always possible to document well within the scope of a single study (Dörnyei, 2001b). A second study investigating possible negative effects on motivation as a result of a theater intervention or related communicative activity would be beneficial for gaining a more complete perspective. This would allow for observations of any possible de-energizing factors such as those observed in studies mentioned earlier such as Oxford (1998), Ushida (1998) and Dörnyei (1998). As the AMTB is able to measure both positive and negative change, a similar study into demotivation could provide useful information. Finally, questions as to exactly what aspect of the theater intervention impacts motivation could be useful for educators unwilling to commit to using such a large block of time for the play-creation and performance experience.

Reflections

This section includes personal reflections on the classroom context, the collaboration in relation to the intervention, the data collection tools, and finally the process of the study. The purpose of sharing these reflections is to better explain the personal revelations of the researcher-teacher given the possible influence these reflections may have on educators.

The classroom context involved in this study is ideal in numerous ways. The recent immigrants involved were predominantly from cultures in which the needs of the collective are often valued over those of the individual. Therefore, the pre-existing community orientation of the group and the effortlessness of the community-building activities need to be mentioned. It would be inaccurate to credit the theater intervention alone for the family-like mindset evident in the classes involved. Students were helpful and willing participants in the study which was invaluable given the somewhat untraditional communicative activities involved. The students were able to perform for other ESL learners instead of just for native speakers as the whole school is made up of secondary ESL learners. These recent immigrants and refugees exhibited an almost palpably positive attitude toward academics in general and specifically toward language learning. They were supportive of one another and began working as a team far more easily and quickly than could have been accounted for by team-building activities in this study. Rather than presenting this as a cautionary note, I present it as an advantage to other ESL educators who work with cultures with a similar collectivist orientation. There is a potential benefit in using such a theater intervention with groups of students who are already predisposed to working together in such a way to communicate topics of mutual interest.

The collaboration with an artist-in-residence in this intervention needs to be mentioned. The scope of the intervention would have been much smaller without the added guidance and instruction of the artist-in-residence throughout the theater intervention. While this type of play-creation and performance project could be done by

a single classroom teacher, I have found that the dynamic created when an outside teaching artist collaborates with a classroom teacher is very beneficial. Clear communication between the artist-in-residence and the cooperating teacher is imperative, of course. In this case the collaboration allowed for so much more ground to be covered in the brief amount of time set aside for this project. With on-going, multi-faceted curriculum demands such as standards and benchmarks, either the scope of the project or the time-frame involved would have had to be modified without the collaboration piece. I think the impact of the project toward motivating students would have been different without the help of the artist-in-residence.

Thirdly, I have several reflections on the data collection tools used in this study as well as on the methods for collecting data. The AMTB used was modified to be more easily understood by English learners with low-intermediate proficiency skills in English. Most were recent immigrants to the United States. The survey was originally designed for college students from Hungary with advanced skills in English. Some of the vocabulary used in the study, therefore, needed to be modified. In addition, the length of the questionnaire was reduced by about 50%. Both modifications are acceptable; however, further change could have been made in order to clarify questions for my student population. That said, the method of gathering information through an on-line survey site was excellent, and I would highly recommend it for any future studies involving the use of a questionnaire. The AMTB was sensitive enough to show the change needed to demonstrate the effect of the theater intervention, and so I would recommend it in that regard as well. The only note of caution is in regard to the use of mean scores. Keeping

only positively phrased questions or only negatively phrased questions in the adaptation from the original would have led to a more useful mean score in terms of changes in motivation.

I would also recommend the use of the other data collection tools such as the teacher reflective logs, lesson plans, and student reflective note cards. The lesson plans proved to be most helpful when looked at together with the teacher reflective logs. The student reflective note cards were helpful and fairly easy to categorize. The use of these qualitative components allowed for the triangulation of data and therefore allowed for a more reliable answer to the research questions. Additional research collection tools which were not used in this study but could be used in further studies would be documenting student attendance and participation in active learning. Though there was some reflective evidence of increases in student attendance and participation in this current study, future studies could make further use of these components in analysis.

Finally, the process of conducting the research was an educational experience at the very least and pedagogically inspiring at best. By this, I mean that I have grown to have a greater appreciation for the work of fellow researchers in the fields of education and second language research. As stated in Chapter One, I decided on the research question because I had already observed the positive effect play-creation and performance activities had on my ESL students. Upon researching this topic, I found many sources which corroborate positive teacher reflections on the use of drama in the ESL classroom (Bernal, 2007; Dodson, 2000; Ernst-Slavit & Wenger, 1998; Song, 2000; Via, 1981). After reading these reflections, my hope was to be able to qualify and

quantify this experience in order to share it more concretely with others. I believe I have done this, and I hope to inspire other educators in similar instructional endeavors. To this end, I will be making presentations at regional conferences over the next year in an effort to disseminate the results of this study and encourage ESL educators to perhaps try interactive theater in their own secondary classroom.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter discussed the possible implications of the data collected in relation to L2 motivation and the use of play creation and performance in the ESL high school classroom. After carefully examining the data collected, this study concludes that the play-creation and performance intervention did affect L2 motivation in secondary ESL students. As expected, the control class also reported some effect on L2 motivation. Communicative activities were used in both classes, and so the fact that L2 motivation was affected in both classes could have been predicted. The communicative activities used in the control class were most likely not new for the student participants as all the teachers in this school were trained in the use of the communicative approach. The students most likely experienced many communicative style activities throughout the school day due to the specialized and extensive training of the general school staff. The drama intervention as a communicative activity was new, however. What is interesting about the results of this project is what they say about how the effect on L2 motivation for the control and experimental class differed due to the added communicative activity or dramatic intervention. The initial section of Chapter Five describes in detail the possible reasons for meaningful change that respondents reported in the Attitude and

Motivation Test Battery, or AMTB. In general, the control class reported meaningful positive growth in areas of integrativeness and instrumental orientation. Possible reasons for this include control class students responding to the importance of group work and authentic communication tasks. The experimental class results differed from those of the control class in that the experimental class reported meaningful positive growth in the areas of motivational effort, language anxiety, and attitude toward the learning situation. Possible reasons for this include experimental class students responding to the theater warm-up games and community-building activities. Students in the experimental class also worked in groups and did multiple performances, including a final performance for a larger community. The final difference experienced by the experimental class, which may have influenced L2 motivation, was the fact that they were able to choose what they communicated to their audience as the students wrote their own play. This choice about what to communicate might have been motivating, as found by Mandell and Wolf (2003). Students from the experimental class were able to articulate reasons why the intervention worked. An example of this are students who stated the following:

“During this residency, I felt upbeat and learned how to speak more English. I learned how to speak in front of people”- Somali (Somalia), Female.

“What did I learn that I can use in my life? I can work with many different people and share ideas. It is important to work with different people.”- Karen (Burma), Male.

Based on these answers as well as on answers from the control class, it seems possible that students from both classes experienced change. This change seemed to stem from two key components. The first was general practice communicating in English

which included performance. The second component was working as a group or a class community. Both the control and experimental class responses included these two components, but the experimental class indicated an emphasis on practice in speaking English. Since both components are present in both sets of student responses, it seems that both areas are important. However, the intervention may have placed more emphasis on practice. The continued use of interventions such as the play-creation and performance process described here appears to be justified based on the results in this context. ESL students in both classes made similar gains in proficiency over the course of the study. Finally, individual reflection is encouraged as to whether or not this type of theater intervention could be of use in another L2 educational context.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Checklist Evaluation of Verbal and Nonverbal Communication Behaviors

Checklist Evaluation of Verbal and Nonverbal Communication Behaviors

Learning Objectives	1-Needs Improvement	2-Developing	3-Adequate	4-Good	5-Excellent
Verbal Communication Behaviors					
(A) Identifies purpose for speaking					
(B) Uses correct vocabulary					
(C) Uses correct grammar					
(D) Uses correct pronunciation					
(E) Modulates tone/voice appropriately					
Nonverbal Communication Behaviors					
(F) Manages anxiety and apprehension					
(G) Makes eye contact appropriately					
(H) Uses facial expression appropriately					
(I) Uses gestures appropriately					
(J) Maintains good body posture					

Note. Adapted from Ananda, S. (2000). *Equipped for the future assessment report: How instructors can support adult learners through performance-based assessment.*

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APPENDIX B

Student Feedback Note Card Questions

Student Feedback Note Card Questions

These note cards were filled out by students following drama instruction 2-3 times per week.

Responses can be structured or unstructured.

Sometimes students wrote on both sides to answer converse questions

Here are example structured questions for feedback.

- What did you like about today?
- What didn't you like about today?
- What did you learn today that you will remember forever?
- What words will you take away with you?
- What did you learn about yourself today?
- What did you learn about working with others today?
- What activities helped you to be a better English speaker?
- What activities didn't help you?
- Tomorrow, I will...
- Today, I learned...
- In this class so far, I have learned...
- I want my English class to be...
- I want my English speaking to be...

APPENDIX C

Teacher Log

Teacher Log

This daily journal is a metacognitive activity to be done at the end of 2-3 instructional days per week.

It can be structured or unstructured.

Here is an example of a structured daily journal.

Instructional Day #1

Today, we _____

My impression of activities that went poorly today is _____

My impression of activities that went well today is _____

Students _____

Notes for tomorrow include _____

APPENDIX D

Teacher Drama-based Intervention Lesson Plan Examples

Drama-Based Intervention Lesson Plans

Instructional Day # Date

Remember to have fun!

- Important object speaking and listening activity
- Freeze frame: story telling and interpreting visual elements
- Weekly Tongue Twister: “Aluminum Linoleum”.

Instructional Day # Date

- Important object speaking and listening activity
- Freeze frame: story telling and interpreting visual elements
- Community building discussion

Instructional Day # Date

- Journal creation
- Reflections on learning (three sentences each day)

Instructional Day # Date

- “I am what I remember” essay writing assignment for homework
- Freeze Frames (Tableaux): five pictures: winning a soccer tournament, admiring a new baby, passing the BST, a surprise party for a friend, eating too much
- Focus and group building activity: numbering 1-5.

Instructional Day # Date

- Tongue Twister “Aluminum Linoleum” exit ticket.
- Freeze Frames (Tableaux): Beginning, Middle, and End story telling added to yesterday’s pictures with class interpretation

APPENDIX E

Scoring Rationale for Items A-E Verbal Communication

	Scoring Rationale for Items A-E: Verbal Communication
1 Needs Improvement	Student is unable or unwilling to complete the speech for assessment.
2 Developing	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Very limited understanding of the purpose for speaking. 2. Vocabulary is very limited. 3. There are numerous syntactical errors. 4. Pronunciation interferes with communication. 5. Voice modulation (volume, intensity, pitch, or rate of speech) is generally (70+%) inappropriate and/or interferes with communication.
3 Adequate	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Student's response does not clearly identify the purpose for speaking. 2. Response displays some of the necessary vocabulary, but the student often cannot find the right word. 3. Response shows control of basic syntactical (grammatical) structures but includes numerous errors. 4. Pronunciation sometimes interferes with communication. 5. Voice modulation (volume, intensity, pitch, or rate of speech) is sometimes (50%) inappropriate and/or interferes with communication
4 Good	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Student's response clearly identifies the purpose for speaking but does not provide explanations of details and content. 2. Vocabulary is generally (80%) adequate. 3. Response is generally (80%) adequate syntactically (grammatically) 4. Student makes some errors in pronunciation. 5. Voice modulation (volume, intensity, pitch, or rate of speech) is generally (80%) appropriate and does not interfere with communication
5 Excellent	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Student's response clearly identifies the purpose for speaking; student provides much elaboration of details and content. 2. Vocabulary is precise and varied. 3. Response contains few syntactical (grammatical) errors and contains varied sentence structures. Errors are minor. 4. Pronunciation is accurate with only minor lapses. 5. Voice modulation (volume, intensity, pitch, or rate of speech) is appropriate with only minor lapses.

Note. Adapted from Ananda, S. (2000). *Equipped for the future assessment report: How instructors can support adult learners through performance-based assessment.* Washington, DC: National Institute for Literacy

APPENDIX F

Scoring Rationale for Items F-J Nonverbal Communication

	Scoring Rationale for Items F-J: Nonverbal Communication
1 Needs Improvement	Student is unable or unwilling to complete the speech for assessment.
2 Developing	6. Extremely anxious and/or apprehensive. 7. Eye contact is very limited (≤ 1 contacts at 3 seconds each). 8. There are numerous displays of inappropriate facial expression. 9. There are numerous displays of inappropriate gesturing. 10. Posture: very closed (arms folded, head down, head and/or body turned away from listener/s).
3 Adequate	6. Somewhat anxious and/or apprehensive. 7. Eye contact is somewhat limited (2 contacts of 3 seconds each). 8. There are some displays of inappropriate facial expression. 9. There are some displays of inappropriate gesturing. 10. Posture: mostly closed (arms folded, head down, head and/or body turned away from listener/s).
4 Good	6. Occasionally anxious and/or apprehensive. 7. Eye contact is good (3 contacts at 3 seconds each). 8. There are occasional displays of inappropriate facial expression. 9. There are occasional displays of inappropriate gesturing. 10. Posture: occasionally closed (arms folded, head down, head and/or body turned away from listener/s).
5 Excellent	6. Rarely anxious and/or apprehensive. 7. Eye contact is excellent (≥ 4 contacts at 3 seconds each). 8. There are numerous displays of appropriate facial expression. 9. There are numerous displays of appropriate gesturing. 10. Posture: completely open (arms open/relaxed, head up, head and/or body turned towards from listener/s).

Note. Adapted from Ananda, S. (2000). *Equipped for the future assessment report: How instructors can support adult learners through performance-based assessment.*

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APPENDIX G

Sample Script of the Student Created Play

We Are All Different, Yet We Are All the Same

Note: This is a short scene from the student written play created as part of the intervention for this study. The focus of this scene is the relationship between the family members here who are recent immigrants and refugees. The family is trying to negotiate and adjust previously held cultural expectations with the new demands and social system of the United States. It is one way that recent immigrants and refugees are different, yet the same.

Student B

Please, can you tell me what this word, pretty means?

Student M

Yes, I can tell you. It means, beautiful. Do you understand?

Student B

Yes, I think so. I think I understand it now.

Student M

I don't understand, "strange". Can you tell me what it means?

Student B

Yes. Strange means you don't know that person. Maybe the strange person is dangerous.

Student M

Oh, I understand now. This story is exciting.

Student MV

Okay. The food is ready. Who wants to eat? Who wants to drink?

(Everybody talks at once...)

GROUP

Yes. I do. Me. Give it to me.

Student MV

Stop! Slow down. It's not polite.

GROUP

Okay. Sorry.

Student MV

Here you are.

Student B

Hey, can you be quiet?

(Her two brothers continue talking and playing their video game).

BOTH BOYS

No! You be quiet!

(One of the brothers puts his game console down while the other brother continues playing the video game).

Student C

I win! Yeah!

Student CH

No! You cheat!

(Upset, they begin to FIGHT).

Student CH

You cheat!

Student CH

No, I won!

Student C

Because you cheat!

Student CH

No, because I won!

Student C

You won because you cheated!

Student CH

No, because I am better than you!

Student M

Please, stop! Don't fight! What happened?

Student MV

Ger, come here. Come quickly! Why are they fighting? What happened? Oh, I'm going to get a headache if you don't stop right now.

Student G

They were playing a game and then they started fighting. I think Chia Pao was cheating.

Student C

Oh no, I wasn't cheating.

Student C

Yes, you were cheating. I saw you. I was eating and you didn't stop playing. That is cheating.

Student CH

Oh, you saw me! You are right. I am sorry. I won't do it again.

Student B

Good, my brother, Chia Pao. You apologized. This is not a good reason to fight.

Student M

I think my head will get better now.

Student B

I'm happy and this is the right way. We don't need to fight for a small problem like that.

APPENDIX H

The Informed Consent Document Stipulations

The Informed Consent Document Stipulations

1. This is a study of how drama affects motivation to acquire a target language and participation in the study is completely voluntary.
2. The participants had the right to withdraw from the study at any time, with no negative ramifications of any kind.
3. No reward was offered to the participants.
4. The study was confidential. No names were used to identify the participants' responses. A numbering system was used to collate questionnaires. All documentation which included student hand-writing was destroyed upon completion of the study.
5. No deception of any kind was used in this study.

APPENDIX I

The Attitude and Motivation Battery Test (AMTB)

The Attitude and Motivation Battery Test (AMTB)

Section 1: Questions 1-6 collected background information on participants.

Section 2 : Questions 7-35 can be answered using the four-part Likert scale.

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4
(YES, YES!!!)	(Yes.)	(No.)	(NO, NO!!!)

7. Studying English is important to me because I want to meet Americans.
8. Studying English is important to me because it will help me to get to know different cultures.
9. Studying English is important to me because I would like to learn as many languages as possible.
10. Studying English is important to me so I can be a smarter person.
11. Studying English is important to me because I may need it later for work or school.
12. Studying English is important to me so that I can understand American movies, TV, or radio.
13. Studying English is important to me so that I can read English books, newspapers, or magazines.
14. It is important for me to know English in order to think and act like the Americans do.
15. I do not like learning English. I do it only because I need it.
16. I want to spend my time on subjects other than English.
17. I really like learning English.
18. Americans are friendly and kind.
19. I enjoy hard work.
20. I don't finish things that are too difficult.
21. In my work, I don't usually do more than I have to.
22. I frequently think over what we have learned in my English class.
23. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.
24. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.
25. It embarrasses me to give answers in our class.
26. I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.
27. I usually get uneasy when I have to speak in English.
28. I feel calm and confident when I am together with English-speaking people.
29. It is not embarrassing to give directions in English to Americans.
30. When I have to speak English on the phone I am easily confused.
31. This group is made of people who work well together and fit together.
32. There are some people in this group who do not really like each other.
33. I am not happy with this group.
34. I am happy with this English class.

35. I am happy with how much English I speak now.

Section 3: Questions 36-41 Multiple Choice

36. Please tell me how much English you would like to speak.

- a. Level 5
- b. Level 4
- c. Level 3
- d. Level 2

37. Our English class is

- a. all the same
- b. same
- c. different
- d. all different

38. Our English class is

- a. very interesting
- b. interesting
- c. boring
- d. very boring

39. Our English class is

- a. very easy
- b. easy
- c. difficult
- d. very difficult

40. Our English class is

- a. very useful
- b. useful
- c. useless
- d. very useless

41. Our English class is

- a. very meaningful
- b. meaningful
- c. meaningless
- d. very meaningless

Section 4: Question 42 Short Answer

42. What activities in this class have you found most helpful? Write your answer below.

Note. Adapted from Dörnyei, Z. (2001b). *Teaching and researching motivation* (pp. 264-267). Harlow, England: Longman-Pearson Education Limited.

Note. Survey was randomized and administered on-line using a different format.

APPENDIX J:

Attitude and Motivation Battery Test Results: Control Class

Control Class: Attitude and Motivation Battery Test Results

Control Integrativeness Orientation		Pre	Post	Change
Studying English is important to me because I want to meet Americans (Question 7, SA).	SA	18.2	55.6	37.4
	a	63.6	27.8	-35.8
	d	18.2	11.1	- 7.1
	SD	0.0	5.6%	5.6
Studying English is important to me because it will help me to get to know different cultures (Q8, SA).	SA	13.6	38.9	25.3
	a	81.8	55.6	-26.2
	d	4.5	5.6	1.1
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0
Studying English is important to me because I would like to learn as many languages as I can (Q 9, SA).	SA	27.3	50.0	22.7
	a	68.2	44.4	-23.8
	d	4.5	5.6	1.1
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0
It is important for me to know English in order to think and act like the Americans (Q14, SA).	SA	27.3	22.2	- 5.1
	a	63.3	61.1	- 2.2
	d	9.1	11.1	2.0
	SD	0.0	5.6	5.6
Americans are friendly and kind (Q18, SA).	SA	18.2	38.9	20.7
	a	59.1	44.4	-14.7
	d	13.6	11.1	-2.5
	SD	9.1	5.6	-3.5

Control Instrumental Orientation		Pre	Post	Change
Studying English is important to me so I can be a smarter person (Q10, SA).	SA	45.5	44.4	- 1.1
	a	50.0	50.0	0.0
	d	4.5	5.6	1.1
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0
Studying English is important to me because I may need it later for work or school (Q11, SA).	SA	36.4	77.8	41.4
	a	59.1	16.7	- 42.4
	d	4.5	5.6	1.1
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0
Studying English is important to me so that I can understand American movies, TV, or radio (Q 12, SA).	SA	36.4	50.0	13.6
	a	59.1	50.0	- 9.1
	d	4.5	0.0	- 4.5
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0
Studying English is important to me so that I can read English books, newspapers, or magazines (Q13, SA).	SA	36.4	72.2	35.8
	a	59.1	27.8	-31.3
	d	4.5	0.0	- 4.5
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0

Control Motivational Effort		Pre	Post	Change
I do not like learning English. I do it only because I need it (Q15, SD).	SA	9.1	11.1	2.0
	a	4.5	11.1	6.6
	d	63.6	55.6	- 8.0
	SD	22.7	22.2	- 0.5
I want o spend my time on subjects other than English (Q16, SD).	SA	9.1	5.6	- 3.5
	a	27.3	33.3	6.0
	d	50.0	55.6	5.6
	SD	13.6	5.6	-8.0
I really like learning English (Q17, SA).	SA	59.1	66.7	7.6
	a	40.9	27.8	-13.1
	d	0.0	5.6	5.6
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0
I enjoy hard work (Q19, SA).	SA	31.8	50.0	18.2
	a	59.1	44.4	-14.7
	d	9.1	5.6	-3.5
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0
I don't finish things that are too difficult (Q20, SA and SD).	SA	0.0	5.6	5.6
	a	50.0	50.0	0.0
	d	40.9	38.9	-2.0
	SD	9.1	5.6	- 3.5
In my work, I don't usually do more than I have to (Q21, SD).	SA	9.1	11.1	2.0
	a	50.0	44.4	- 5.6
	d	36.4	38.9	2.5
	SD	4.5	5.6	1.1
I frequently think over what we have learned in my English classes (Q22, SA).	SA	19.0	33.3	14.3
	a	71.4	66.7	- 4.7
	d	9.5	0.0	- 9.5
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0
I am happy with how much English I speak now (Q35, SA).	SA	54.5	61.1	6.6
	a	45.5	38.9	- 6.6
	d	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0

Control Language Anxiety		Pre	Post	Change
I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class (Q23, SD).	SA	4.5	16.7	12.2
	a	63.6	33.3	-30.3
	d	22.7	38.9	16.2
	SD	9.1	11.1	2.0
I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do (Q24, SD).	SA	0.0	5.6	5.6
	a	42.9	50.0	7.1
	d	42.9	38.9	-4.0
	SD	14.3	5.6	- 8.7
It embarrasses me to give answers in our class (Q 25, SD).	SA	5.0	11.1	6.1
	a	45.0	38.9	- 6.1
	d	45.0	50.0	5.0
	SD	5.0	0.0	- 5.0
I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English (Q26, SD).	SA	0.0	11.1	11.1
	a	47.6	38.9	- 8.7
	d	47.6	50.0	2.4
	SD	4.8	0.0	-4.8
I usually get uneasy when I have to speak in English (Q27, SD).	SA	9.1	5.6	-3.5
	a	40.9	61.1	20.2
	d	45.5	33.3	-12,2
	SD	4.5	0.0	-4.5
I feel calm and confident when together with English-speaking people (Q28, SA).	SA	13.6	11.1	-2.5
	a	68.2	72.2	4.0
	d	18.2	11.1	- 7.1
	SD	0.0	5.6	5.6
It is not embarrassing to give directions in English to Americans(Q29, SA).	SA	9.1	11.1	2.0
	a	59.1	66.7	7.6
	d	31.8	22.2	- 9.6
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0
When I have to speak English on the phone I am easily confused (Q30, SD).	SA	4.5	5.6	1.1
	a	63.6	33.3	-30.3
	d	27.3	55.6	28.3
	SD	4.5	5.6	1.1

Control Attitude		Pre	Post	Change
This group is made of people who work well together and fit together (Q31, SA).	SA	19.0	27.8	8.8
	a	57.1	72.2	15.1
	d	23.8	0.0	-23.8
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0
There are some people in this group who do not really like each other (Q32, SD).	SA	0.0	5.6	5.6
	a	22.7	38.9	16.2
	d	63.6	38.9	-24.7
I am not happy with this group (Q33, SD).	SD	13.6	16.7	3.1
	SA	0.0	5.6	5.6
	a	13.6	16.7	3.1
I am happy with this English class (Q34, SA).	d	50.0	61.1	11.1
	SD	36.4	16.7	-19.7
	SA	40.9	61.1	20.2
	a	54.5	38.9	-15.6
Our English class is...(Q37, other).	d	4.5	0.0	-4.5
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0
	All the same	10.5	5.6	-4.9
	Same	36.8	44.4	7.6
	Different	47.4	27.8	-19.6
	All different	5.3	22.2	16.9
Our English class is...(Q38, other).	Average score	2.47	2.67	0.20
	Very interesting	47.6	33.3	-14.3
	Interesting	52.4	66.7	14.3
	Boring	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Very Boring	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Average Score	1.52	1.67	15
Our English class is...(Q39, other).	Very Easy	4.8	5.6	0.8
	Easy	57.1	61.1	4.0
	Difficult	28.6	33.3	4.7
	Very Difficult	9.5	0.0	-9.5
	Average Score	2.43	2.28	-0.15
	Very Useful	28.6	33.3	4.7
Our English class is...(Q40, other).	Useful	61.9	66.7	4.8
	Useless	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Very Useless	9.5	0.0	-9.5
	Average Score	1.9	1.67	-0.23
	Very Meaningful	28.6	27.8	-0.8
	Meaningful	52.4	61.1	8.7
Our English class is...(Q41, other).	Meaningless	19.0	11.1	-7.9
	Very Meaningless	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Average Score	1.9	1.83	-0.07

- SA= strongly agree, a = agree, d = disagree, and SD = strongly disagree.
- **Bolded score** = the majority, or the highest percentage.

- (SA) or (SD) next to question number indicates whether statement necessitates a SA or SD response to show positive change in language motivational orientation.
- “other” indicates that both responses have potential to show motivational change.

APPENDIX K

Attitude and Motivation Battery Test Results: Experimental Class

Experimental Class: Attitude and Motivation Test Battery Results

Experimental Integrativeness Orientation		Pre	Post	Change
Studying English is important to me because I want to meet Americans (Question 7, SA).	SA	31.0	21.7	- 9.3
	a	62.1	65.2	3.1
	d	6.9	13.0	6.1
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0
Studying English is important to me because it will help me to get to know different cultures (Q8, SA).	SA	22.2	27.3	5.1
	a	63.0	50.0	- 13.0
	d	14.8	18.2	3.4
Studying English is important to me because I would like to learn as many languages as I can (Q9, SA).	SA	22.2	22.7	0.5
	a	77.8	54.5	- 23.3
	d	0.0	18.2	18.2
It is important for me to know English in order to think and act like the Americans (Q14, SA).	SA	7.4	36.4	29.0
	a	66.7	40.9	-25.8
	d	22.2	18.2	4.0
Americans are friendly and kind (Q18, SA).	SA	3.7	9.1	5.4
	a	81.5	63.6	-17.9
	d	11.1	13.6	2.5
	SD	3.7	13.6	9.9

Experimental Instrumental Orientation		Pre	Post	Change
Studying English is important to me so I can be a smarter person (Q10, SA).	SA	25.9	36.4	10.5
	a	63.0	40.9	- 22.1
	d	7.4	18.2	10.8
	SD	3.7	4.5	0.8
Studying English is important to me because I may need it later for work or school (Q11, SA).	SA	37.0	50.0	13.0
	a	55.6	36.4	-19.2
	d	7.4	13.6	6.2
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0
Studying English is important to me so that I can understand American movies, TV, or radio (Q 12, SA).	SA	37.0	36.4	- 0.6
	a	48.1	63.6	15.5
	d	14.8	0.0	- 14.8
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0
Studying English is important to me so that I can read English books, newspapers, or magazines (Q13, SA).	SA	37.0	54.9	17.9
	a	59.3	40.9	- 18.4
	d	3.7	4.5	0.8
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0

Experimental Motivational Effort		Pre	Post	Change
I do not like learning English. I do it only because I need it (Q15, SD).	SA	3.7	0.0	- 3.7
	a	7.4	4.5	- 2.9
	d	74.1	54.5	- 19.6
	SD	14.8	40.9	26.1
I want o spend my time on subjects other than English (Q16, SD).	SA	7.4	4.5	-2.9
	a	51.9	50.0	- 1.9
	d	33.3	45.5	12.2
I really like learning English (Q17, SA).	SA	7.4	0.0	- 7.4
	a	55.6	72.7	17.1
	d	44.4	27.3	- 17.1
I enjoy hard work (Q19, SA).	d	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SA	18.5	31.8	13.3
	a	66.7	54.5	-12.2
I don't finish things that are too difficult (Q20, SD).	d	11.1	13.6	2.5
	SA	0.0	9.1	9.1
	a	40.7	50.0	9.3
In my work, I don't usually do more than I have to (Q21, SD).	d	55.6	27.3	- 28.3
	SA	3.7	13.6	9.9
	a	44.4	40.9	- 3.5
I frequently think over what we have learned in my English classes (Q22, SA).	d	48.1	40.9	- 7.2
	SA	3.7	18.2	14.5
	a	7.7	27.3	19.6
I am happy with how much English speak now (Q35, SA).	d	7.7	4.5	- 3.2
	SA	7.7	27.3	19.6
	a	84.6	68.2	- 16.4
I am happy with how much English speak now (Q35, SA).	d	7.7	4.5	- 3.2
	SA	0.0	0.0	0.0
	a	57.7	30.0	-27.7
I am happy with how much English speak now (Q35, SA).	d	19.2	50.0	30.8
	SA	11.5	20.0	8.5
	a	11.5	0.0	-11.5

Experimental Language Anxiety		Pre	Post	Change
I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class (Q23, SD).	SA	3.8	4.5	0.7
	a	38.5	40.9	2.4
	d	53.5	40.9	- 12.6
	SD	3.8	13.6	9.8
I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do (Q24, SD).	SA	7.7	9.1	1.4
	a	61.5	31.8	- 29.7
	d	26.9	45.5	18.6
	SD	3.8	13.6	9.8
It embarrasses me to give answers in our class (Q 25, SD).	SA	3.8	4.5	0.7
	a	57.7	45.5	- 12.2
	d	34.5	45.5	11.0
	SD	3.8	4.5	0.7
I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English (Q26, SD).	SA	8.3	9.5	1.2
	a	29.2	19.0	- 10.2
	d	54.2	47.6	- 6.6
	SD	8.3	23.8	15.5
I usually get uneasy when I have to speak in English (Q27, SD).	SA	4.0	5.3	1.3
	a	60.0	57.9	- 2.1
	d	28.0	26.3	-1.7
	SD	8.0	10.5	2.5
I feel calm and confident when together with English-speaking people (Q28, SA).	SA	12.0	21.1	9.1
	a	56.0	52.6	- 3.4
	d	32.0	26.3	- 5.7
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0
It is not embarrassing to give directions in English to Americans(Q29, SA).	SA	8.0	10.0	2.0
	a	64.0	50.0	- 14.0
	d	28.0	25.0	- 3.0
	SD	0.0	15.0	15.0
When I have to speak English on the phone I am easily confused (Q30, SD).	SA	3.8	0.0	- 3.8
	a	69.2	57.1	- 12.1
	d	23.1	33.3	10.2
	SD	3.8	9.5	5.7

Experimental Attitude		Pre	Post	Change
This group is made of people who work well together and fit together (Q31, SA).	SA	7.7	23.8	16.1
	a	73.1	71.4	- 1.7
	d	15.4	4.8	- 10.6
	SD	3.8	0.0	- 3.8
There are some people in this group who do not really like each other (Q32, SD).	SA	3.8	0.0	- 3.8
	a	19.2	4.8	-14.4
	d	53.8	57.1	3.3
	SD	23.1	38.1	15.0
I am <u>not</u> happy with this group (Q33, SD).	SA	3.8	4.8	1.0
	a	11.5	4.8	- 6.7
	d	65.4	57.1	- 8.3
	SD	19.2	33.3	14.1
I am happy with this English class (Q34, SA).	SA	26.9	60.0	33.1
	a	73.1	40.0	- 33.1
	d	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0
Our English class is...(Q37, other).	All the same	3.8	9.5	5.7
	Same	30.8	28.6	- 2.2
	Different	50.0	42.9	- 7.1
	All Different	15.4	19.0	3.6
	Average Score	2.77	2.71	- 0.06
Our English class is...(Q38, other).	Very Interesting	38.5	42.9	4.4
	Interesting	61.5	52.4	-9.1
	Boring	0.0	4.8	4.8
	Very Boring	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Average Score	1.62	1.62	0.0
Our English class is...(Q39, other).	Very Easy	7.7	14.3	6.6
	Easy	34.6	33.3	-1.3
	Difficult	50.0	47.6	- 2.4
	Very Difficult	7.7	4.8	-2.9
	Average Score	2.43	2.43	0.0
Our English class is...(Q40, other).	Very Useful	42.3	47.6	5.3
	Useful	42.3	52.4	10.1
	Useless	11.5	0.0	- 11.5
	Very Useless	3.8	0.0	- 3.8
	Average Score	1.77	1.52	- 0.25
Our English class is...(Q41, other).	Very Meaningful	46.2	14.3	- 31.9
	Meaningful	42.3	81.0	38.7
	Meaningless	7.7	4.8	- 2.9
	Very	3.8	0.0	-3.8
	Meaningless	1.69	1.90	+ 0.21
Average Score				

- SA= strongly agree, a = agree, d = disagree, and SD = strongly disagree.
- **Bolded score** = the majority score, the highest percentage.

- (SA) or (SD) next to question number indicates whether statement necessitates a SA or SD response to show positive change in language motivational orientation.
- “other” indicates that both responses have potential to show motivational change

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