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Hello, Teacher: A Study on the Pedagogy of Forms of Address in the Intensive English Center, and the Proficiency and Confidence of Its Students

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**Hello, Teacher: A Study on the Pedagogy of Forms of Address in the IEC, and the
Proficiency and Confidence of Its Students**

by

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Abstract

This thesis studies the effectiveness of teaching regarding forms of address in the Intensive English Center at Saint Cloud State University. By using quantitative and qualitative surveys, this project observes and analyzes English learners' proficiency at using forms of address based on social context, as well as inquires upon students' confidence level at using these forms. This project looks at how forms of address are taught and if the current pedagogy is effective. The results of the project show that students' proficiency and confidence regarding forms of address is lower than the team of English language teachers expected. 80% of students were expected to pass the cutoff score, but only 32% actually passed. Even the most proficient group of students only had half of their students pass. Though the current pedagogy of the Intensive English Center does not focus on forms of address, the teachers feel confident in their ability to teach them and report to have taught the forms in their time at the Intensive English Center. The students, in fact, have a high level of trust in their teachers and mostly consider them better than their teachers from previous institutions. The results show that minor changes are necessary to Intensive English Center practices to better prepare students for using and understanding forms of address.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Being able to use a language requires a range of skills, including vocabulary, reading and writing, and listening and speaking. The pragmatic application of language use, that is, knowing when to use different forms of language based on interlocutors in various social contexts, is just as important. One particular application occurs at the beginning of nearly every conversation: being able to address another person based on the person one is address and the context within which it occurs. While using English, speakers often use titles or other forms of addresses based on relative levels of authority, levels of intimacy, levels of formality, gender, and age. Many researchers refer to these titles as “Forms of address” (Brown & Ford, 1961; Dickey, 1997; Liebscher & Dailey-O’Cain, 2013; Taavittainen & Tucker, 2016, among others). Examples include ‘professor’, ‘sir’, ‘miss’, ‘doctor’, etc. These terms can be used alone: “Professor, may I...,” (referred to as T) as title plus last name “Professor Jones, may I...,” (T+LN) or as a combination of first and/or last name only: “Jane, may I...”, “Jones, may I...” (FN and LN, respectively). Each use tends to have a different level of formality and appropriate time and place of use. Students learning English will need to learn the pragmatic use of forms of address as they learn to navigate social situations in English-speaking regions of the United States and the world.

This thesis looks at how students use and are taught forms of address and to what degree the teaching at Saint Cloud State University’s Intensive English Center (IEC) effectively helps them achieve high levels of proficiency in a variety of social situations and

achieving high levels of confidence in using forms of address. Proficiency is measured by an Angoff Procedure¹ of test calibration, which will be described later in this thesis.

The participating English learners are in Levels 3, 4, and 5 of the IEC. I used the first of three surveys to assess students' ability to correctly use forms of address within specific contexts that include a variety of addressees and social situations. I used the second survey to gauge students' level of confidence while using forms of address and whether or not they are nervous about using forms of address when speaking to other people, including native and non-native speakers, instructors, and classmates between the two. Survey 2 also asked for students' academic history and to what extent they have been taught or seek information regarding the use of forms of address. Using these two surveys I compared students' performance with their confidence to determine if there is a correlation, and if changes to pedagogy are required. If students answered questions about forms of address that match what a native speaker would choose AND have high confidence in using them, it is deduced that forms of address are being learned effectively and current pedagogical approaches are sufficient. However, if there is room for students to improve and also gain more confidence with the forms, it is recommended that we examine the current teaching strategies at IEC. While, the first two surveys are for student subjects, the third survey is for English teachers.

The third survey seeks information about whether or not teachers teach forms of address and to what extent teachers believe them to be necessary for proficiency in English. This survey gives teachers the opportunity to show how they teach forms of address and to

¹ The Angoff Procedure is a procedure conducted by experts in the field to determine how many minimal qualified candidates would get questions correct, resulting in a cutoff score to determine whether or not an applicant's test would be considered proficient or not (Livingston & Zieky, 1982). The Angoff Procedure will be discussed in more depth in the methodology section of this thesis.

answer if they feel like the IEC gives them the support in regards to the teaching of forms of address.

I also hypothesized that teachers may think forms of address are important but, in reality, rarely teach them. One reason for this, I imagine, is that students will acquire forms of address through interaction with native speakers and through English TV and movies. Thus it is seen as less important as other topics to teach to students. To a degree, this project has confirmed this last hypothesis. Almost all students indicated that they learn how to address people through listening to native speakers and watching TV and movies.

Teachers unanimously report that forms of address are important, but also report that IEC could do better by supplying instructors with teaching material to better help them teach forms of address.

Despite the presence of forms of address in everyday situations, I also suggest that forms of address should be taught explicitly, even if it is only the focus for one or two class hours a semester, and then taught implicitly to give students chances to see them in use, giving them more opportunities to emulate and learn them. Students may acquire the fundamental pragmatics of using titles, but without instruction, they may be less confident about how to address a wide range of addressees. Because forms of address are the first thing (other than “hello”) to be said to people one meets for the first time, they are an integral part of creating a good first impression. By teaching form of address, students will be better equipped to present themselves in academic and professional settings.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Learning language involves a variety of accumulated experiences, including formal and informal settings, all which contribute to and complement each other (Colley, Hodkinson, & Malcolm, 2003; Lai, Zhu, & Gong, 2015). Thus, the literature review will encompass many key components of second language acquisition and second language teaching as well as literature on forms of address. Few researchers have studied forms of address and those who have, have not combined confidence or teaching practices within their study. As such, this section considers a variety of related topics.

The following concepts are germane to this study: student pragmatic competence, use and awareness, forms of address, student confidence and anxiety, student motivation, effects of home culture and language, gender differences in language acquisition, and teacher confidence and beliefs.

Pragmatic Competence

Naoko Taguchi (2011) is a noted researcher on pragmatic competence. She writes “To become able to communicate intentions appropriately in a situation or to comprehend meaning that is not explicitly stated, one needs a refined knowledge of linguistic systems as well as target language skills to mobilize the knowledge in real-time interaction” (p. 906), which means that proficient speakers of English must understand both the language and the context in which it is spoken. Stephen Levinson (1983) makes the distinction between grammar and pragmatics as grammar relating to the accuracy of structure, including morphology and syntax; pragmatics refers to language use and is concerned with the

appropriateness of utterances within specific situations, among various speakers, and different contexts.

Learning pragmatics is an important concept when learning to use another language. It is possible for L2 learners to grasp grammar without pragmatic knowledge (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993). However, Kasper (2001) contends that “grammatical development may require already established pragmatic knowledge” (p. 503), suggesting that pragmatics and grammar are closely linked. Pragmatic knowledge is vital to communication and J. Cesar Felix-Brasdefer and Andrew Cohen (2012) write that pragmatics can be taught from the beginning levels of language instruction. Ishihara and Cohen (2010) encourage teaching pragmatics in both second language and foreign language contexts.

Learning pragmatics, however, is far more complicated than simple classroom learning. Dell Hymes (1972) puts an emphasis on sociocultural competence as being necessary for pragmatic competence, a model that other researchers have followed². Dell Hymes (1972) finds Chomsky’s distinction between competence and performance too narrow to describe language as a whole because Chomsky’s view is too idealistic and that it does not accurately describe situations involving a variety of speakers. Dell Hymes (1972) makes a useful distinction between linguistic competence that deals with producing and understanding grammatically correct sentences, and communicative competence that deals with producing and understanding sentences that are appropriate and acceptable in a particular situation. Hymes (1972) also maintains that one’s social life affects inner competence as well as outward performance.

² See (Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Canale & Swain, 1980).

Gabriele Kasper's 2001 work on pragmatic development assesses English learners' ability to recognize mistakes in pragmatics. He finds that error recognition varied considerably based on context: ESL learners identified more pragmatic errors and rated them as more severe than the grammar errors, but EFL learners recognized more grammatical errors and rated as more severe than the pragmatic errors. Kasper (2001) also found that higher level learners (ESL and EFL) rated pragmatic errors with more severity than the lower-proficiency subjects, showing that students were aware of pragmatic differences and that they consider the context in which something is spoken is more important than the actual words spoken.

Since Dell Hymes's original research, other researchers have engaged heavily with pragmatic competence that has compared learners across proficiency levels or living arrangements (such as study abroad vs. domestic, formal instruction) on select aspects of pragmatic competence.

Taguchi (2011) was critical of previous researchers because they tended to only look at proficiency levels *or* living arrangements. Taguchi (2011) researched both. In her study, she asked "Do L2 proficiency and study-abroad experience affect pragmatic comprehension in L2 English?" (p. 917). To answer this question, she studies 25 native-speakers of English (who were used as a baseline) and 64 Japanese students of English in Japan. The Japanese students were split roughly in half, separating those who had studied abroad and those who had not. Using listening tests, she found that study abroad experience did not have a noticeable impact on comprehension.

Use and Awareness

Andrea Ender (2014) writes about language awareness and incidental vocabulary acquisition. She reports that vocabulary items can be learned through a wide range of language input, and notes that much of learning is incidental, which Hulstijn (2005) characterizes as “unintentional picking up of information” (pp. 131-132). Incidental learning differs from implicit learning in that incidental learning occurs “without intending to do so” (Ender, 2014, p. 537). While forms of address may be learned and taught explicitly and implicitly, students will also absorb language through incidental exposure, such as observing and mimicking how they observe native speakers act and interact. It, then, becomes a question of how capable students are at contextualizing and bringing incidentally-learned material into the conscious mind.

Ellis (2011) notes that “the degree of novelty” influences vocabulary acquisition (p. 41). Though I do not have any solid proof, I believe that forms of address are heard commonly and that the novelty has worn off, whether the learner has acquired them properly or not. This lack of novelty will likely contribute to an increase level of confidence because the students recognize the words and think they know how to use them properly within specific contexts (Ellis, 2011).

Forms of Address

While “forms of address” is the most common term used to refer to titles, other variations occur. Researchers, such as Finnegan and Rickard (2004), use the name “terms of address.” Joanna Thornborrow (1999) is one of many researchers who use “address terms.” Yang (2007) and others use the term “address forms.” These terms refer to the same concept.

Indeed, even in their seminal studies, Brown and Ford (1961), and Brown and Gilman (1968) primarily use “address forms” interchangeably with “forms of address.” Most researchers use “forms of address,” so this paper will adopt the term as well. This adoption will also offer more continuity while looking at and comparing existing literature, but the project will keep original terms when quoting respective authors.

Forms of address can be described in a number of ways. Gerard Van Herk (2012) describes forms of address as including “the way[s] in which conversation participants call (or address) each other” (p. 121). Thornborrow (1999) uses address terms, and describes it as “not only the name that you have, but the way that people use it in different contexts” (p. 162). She adds “The way speakers refer to you can depend on the degree of formality, or intimacy and of relative status of all the participants involved in the interaction” (p. 162). Forms of address are also conceptualized in terms of levels of power (which includes occupational status), age, and solidarity (Brown & Ford, 1961; Ervin-Tripp, 1972; Yang, 2007).

Dialectical variations, which vary based on geographical region, socioeconomic class, gender, etc., affect the use of forms of address used within levels of formality. Finnegan and Rickard (2004) give examples of generic forms of address such as “buddy,” “miss,” “folks,” “guys,” and “you guys,” and note that they vary by location (p. 31). The British equivalents to “buddy” and “miss” are “mate,” and “madam,” which is salient in the case that students learn English from a British English teacher. Established news sources demonstrate variation as well. Finnegan and Rickard (2004) also note that after introducing an individual by full name “(Andrew Beckis)” (p. 31), the New York Times refers to individuals with title plus surname

(Mr. Beckis). However, Time magazine and the Los Angeles Times prefer bare surnames (Beckis) (p. 31). Brown and Ford's 1961 study found similar results, and cite first name (FN) and title with last name (TLN) to be the most common way to refer to individuals. Brown and Ford (1961) write that titles (T) without names commonly include sir, madam, ma'am, and miss. Like TLN, these forms are used reciprocally between new acquaintances or nonreciprocal by a person of lower status to a person of higher status. Brown and Ford (1961) also note that bare titles are less intimate than TLN and are often used when the last name is unknown or in military situations. Last name alone (LN) are rarer and appear as a substitute for FN (Brown and Ford, 1961). LN occurs most often in the military (Brown & Ford, 1961) as well as sports events and referring to individuals who are absent from the conversation. In this study, I will use a hybrid of these descriptions: forms of address are used by participants in a conversation and chosen based on the context of the conversation. Context is determined based on age, gender, social status (including levels of perceived power), and intimacy.

It is also important to note that there is a range of variation in acceptable use of forms of address. One person might call a professor by FN only, but another person in the exact same situation who has the same social relationship with the professor, may not feel comfortable with the intimacy (and casual nature) of FN only. It is also common for people to prefer using only T³ to address others, which is also commonly accepted. There may be more than one appropriate form of address in each particular context. Variation, known as style shifting, also occurs within individuals' idiolects. Style shifting is a broad category pertaining

³ T refers to Title only, not the 'tu' and 'vos' commonly found in sociolinguistics to differentiate between languages that have formal and informal forms.

to language variation based on context and medium. As Hernández-Campoy and Cutillas-Espinosa (2013) explain “intra-speaker variation is increasingly seen as a proactive phenomenon in which speakers strategically make use of variants and varieties to achieve particular effects” (p. 80).⁴ These effects are often linked to positions of authority and identity. Cook (2008) found that students and teachers negotiate the social identities through the use of shifting their style in conversations. Through studying the use of Japanese forms of address, she found that students act like students and teachers act like teachers.

Confidence and Anxiety

MacIntyre, Noels, and Clement (1997) conducted a study to determine if there was any correlation between confidence, perception of competence, and actual competence. This study was composed of performance tasks, which were related to questions of confidence. MacIntyre et al. (1997) found that confidence and competence were significantly correlated. Their findings show that students who perceive themselves as competent were more willing to communicate. They also found that students with high self-perception of competence communicated willingly, suggesting that confidence is more important than actual competence.

Anxiety can be a serious problem in language learning. Research has shown that, when the stakes are high, language users’ anxiety and motivation are “significant cognitive factors” in performance (Cheng et al., 2014, p. 302). This research is supported by Horwitz (2001), MacIntyre (2002), and Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand (2000). This thesis is not particularly interested in test performance, but the aspect of anxiety in high stakes learning

⁴ Also see Coupland 1985, 1996, 2001a, 2001b, 2007.

environments is a key factor. Many of the IEC students are under visas and/or scholarships and are required to maintain a certain level of academic progress. With this pressure, comes a level of anxiety that may affect how students perform, motivate themselves, or adjust to a new culture and learning experience.

Jones (1999) writes that 66% of teachers noted problematic reticence in non-native English speakers, specifically those from Asia, and notes that the reason for this hesitation and anxiety likely stems from perfectionism (p. 245). Liu (2005) describes perfectionism as stifling learning: "...the students in the present study also wanted to speak perfect English to others in class. This pursuit of perfection, in return, forced many students to be reluctant to respond to the teacher and remain silent in class" (p. 12). Such a situation will not breed a productive learning environment.

Motivation

Motivation is a key component of learning a second language and, without motivation, students will be far less likely to learn about the pragmatic uses of English. Zoltan Dornyei (2014) describes motivation as a complex issue and that motivation might actually be "a rather obsolete umbrella term for a wide range of variables that have little to do with each other" (p. 519), meaning that it can be difficult to classify what affects motivation or what motivation affects. He also writes that the only thing that researchers agree on is that "motivation is responsible for why people decide to do something, how long people are willing to sustain the activity, and how hard they are going to pursue it" (p. 519). Additionally, R. C. Gardner (1985) describes motivation as "the combination of efforts plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the

language” (p. 10). Both Gardner and Dornyei’s definitions are salient to this thesis. Forms of address, will likely be learned over a fairly long period of time through implicit exposure, which means that students must be consistently motivated to notice these forms when they appear in conversations, television, and passages in reading. One must also note that motivation is not a constant drive; many students’ motivation rises and falls (Dornyei, 2014, p. 519). Ushioda (2009) writes that students’ motivation often wavers after the initial thrill of learning a new language passes. One reason for the decline in motivation can be attributed to negative experiences with the culture in which they are studying (Suleiman, 1993). Students may encounter people or events that leave a negative impression on them, resulting in a decline in motivation.

Motivation is important in this project because it affects language learning. If a student struggles in a learning environment, they will be less likely to retain information and less willing to actively seek out knowledge and experience related to learning English.

Additionally, forms of address may be used around and towards the subjects, but if the subject is uninterested in paying them attention, there will be negative impact on their proficiency level of English.

Student and Teacher Background Cultures

While background culture does not account for all students’ beliefs and progress, it does have a significant influence on the acquisition and use of forms of address. Though students in SCSU’s IEC courses come from all over the world, most come from certain areas of the world. The three largest demographics are the Eastern Asian countries (China and

Korea), Saudi Arabia (though these numbers are falling due to scholarship defunding) and West African French-speaking countries (Burkina Faso, Burundi, Guinea, and others).

East Asia

As Kevin Manley (2015) writes, Asian cultures have a reputation as being reticent to communicate. He notes that this reticence is often overgeneralized and that most English learners from Korea and China differ little from students of other regions. Though overgeneralized, Asian reticence exists. Cortazzi and Jin (1996) offer reasons why Chinese students appear to be reluctant to engage: saving face, collectivism, and modesty.

Saving face is the idea that individuals must protect their own reputation, which can be done by avoiding mistakes in public settings and avoiding calling attention to the mistakes of other individuals. Jane Jackson (2006) found that students in Hong Kong preferred to remain silent if they disagreed with other students or teachers in class discussions. This is worsened when students must disagree with other students (Chen, 2003).

The idea of modesty is also important for Asian students. Liu (2005) finds that Chinese students prefer to let others have a chance to speak; not doing this is rude. Liu (2005), however, also found that Chinese students who spoke out in class were considered brave and skilled by their classmates. It appeared that students were more critical of themselves speaking out but regarded other students who speak out positively.

Modesty can also be confused with anxiety. Many students do not speak because they have not had practice and become fearful of using English. Liu and Littlewood (1997) found that Asian students often fall into passive learning roles. This causes negative learning in which students are both passive and lack the opportunities to practice spoken English directly.

Liu and Littlewood (1997) note that this leads to a lack of confidence and “cannot perform without feeling of anxiety” (p. 377). Jackson (2006) and Chen (2003) support Liu and Littlewood’s findings and confirm that many Asian schools fail to teach speaking in class.

Levinson (1983) writes that Korean, Japanese, and Javanese speakers often use honorifics⁵ with special care. While using a phrase like “The soup is hot,” they will use an alternate word for “soup” than encodes more respect, even without using a specific pronoun to refer to the individual (p. 90). In such languages, it is nearly impossible to say anything without thinking about honorifics, thus it is highly likely that way of thinking will transfer into using English.

Saudi Arabia

Since 1929, Saudi Arabia has undergone changes to improve the quality and quantity of English in the country (Alkaabi, 2016). These changes include starting English instruction in fourth grade and increasing the number of classes for educated individuals. Like much of the world, students of English in Saudi Arabia may have limited opportunities to practice English because of the monolingual society (Alkaabi, 2016). However, private EFL institutions have become popular with students who wish to spend more time studying English (Alkaabi, 2016).

Aslam (2014) notes a common issue with learning English in Saudi Arabia: the lack of target culture. Textbooks in the past were often old and only teach basic English, so students may lack the pragmatic skills necessary for effective communication. Aslam (2014) does mention that these old textbooks teach basic English skills, such as greetings, ordering from

⁵ Honorifics are “A form of address expressing respect and esteem” (Van Herk, 2012, p. 205).

menus, visiting a doctor, and so on, but does not give details about the way in which these textbooks do so—which is of particular interest to this thesis.

New, more challenging, textbooks were introduced wherever possible (Alkaabi, 2016). It is difficult to know with certainty whether the students taking part in this project have learned from the older or newer textbooks, and to know their level of instruction. Thus, it is important to realize that Saudi students will likely come from a variety of backgrounds and learning experiences.

In a study by Malallah (2000), it was found that undergraduate Saudi students were motivated to learn English and had positive attitudes towards native English speakers as well. This study also showed that students' motivation and attitudes toward native English speakers positively correlated with their language acquisition. In a study of 100 high school students and a number of additional interviews, Qashoa (2006) found similar results of positive attitudes towards the target culture correlated with learning the target language. Alkaabi (2016) found that Saudi students studying at SCSU were highly motivated to learn English, but found that some students developed negative feelings for America during their stay.

While these studies show that generally students from Arabic speaking counties are favorable to English speaking countries, it is important to note that there will be variation. Students' attitudes may change while in America, effectively altering their levels of confidence.

West Africa

Africa is a massive continent with many regions, native languages, and cultures. Because most of IEC from Africa come from West Africa, this section of the literature review

will focus on this and other applicable regions. West Africa, like Saudi Arabia has seen a huge improvement in English instruction. Much of West Africa has adopted French as an official language, and many have also adopted English, Spanish, and Portuguese as well. Kofi Yakpo (2016) writes that many African constitutions encourage indigenous African language (some of which are designated as “national languages”) to be spoken in the territory. The presence of many languages can lead to competition. Mueybaa (2009) and other linguists argues that the indigenous languages should be used as the medium of education, and English as a foreign language. Other linguists, however, warn that many of the national languages are in danger of extinction, which is due to the massive influx from European-based languages, such as English (Mazrui, 2004). There may be mixed feelings from students learning English. English is becoming the most common lingua franca, but it is endangering their familial languages. Students may feel hesitancy or even hostility towards learning English. Brenzinger, Heine, and Sommer (1991) argue, however, argue that English is not actually the omnivorous killing machine that is destroying national languages and that it is actually the more prestigious African languages that are engulfing the less prestigious languages (p. 40).

Another characteristic of Africa is that it was heavily colonized. Alamin Mazrui (2004) points out that people commonly refer to areas of Africa in relation to the country that colonized them, such as “Francophone Africa” or “Anglophone Africa.” The regions are classified by the names of their colonizers. Mazrui (2004) also notes that these labels are not as quickly applied to other counties and regions, such as the colonized areas of Asia. He argues that the labelling of Africa in terms of it colonizer stems from a lack of linguistic

nationality, referring to the idea that African nations do not in many cases treat their language as part of their identity, though he warns that there are exceptions, such as Somalia.

These factors may lead to anxiety in learners of English. It is something to pay attention to as the project progresses.

Gender and Language Learning

Studies in the gender of students in a second language learning environment show that women, in general, score higher on tests than men. Cindy James (2010) writes “gender studies of language proficiency tests have revealed stronger performances by females compared with males,” but notes that “these differences in general tend to be quite small” (p. 388).

According to information provided by the University of Cambridge (2006), female students score slightly higher on the International English Language Testing System. The test included listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In each topic, female students score higher than their male counterparts. Relevant percentages include 1.44% difference in reading, 1.56% in listening and speaking, and 1.78% in the writing section, which is an overall average of 1.67% higher than men’s scores.

A study from the Educational Testing Service (2007) found that women score marginally higher on internet-based Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) tests than men did. This study found that women outscored men on three of the four sections: listening, speaking, and writing. Men, however, scored higher on the reading section. The relevant percentages are 1% in listening, 3.7% in speaking, 1.7% in writing, but -1.3% in reading, which is an overall average of .8% higher than men’s scores.

James (2010) conducted a study of 494 students over a 2-year period. These students ranged from 16 to 54 years of age and came from 47 different countries. James (2010) found that women consistently scored higher than men in the listening, language use, reading skills, sentence meaning, and WritePlacer ESL test. The relevant percentages is that women scored 1.42% higher than men in listening, 4.67% higher in language usage, 4.08% higher in reading, 4.33% higher in sentence meaning, and 4.5% higher on the WritePlacer test.

For context, women tend to score higher on other studies as well (Goldin, Lawrence, Katz, & Kuziemko, 2006), but they note that women outshine men particularly well on tests that deal with verbal test scores. Unfortunately, there are comparatively few studies conducted in the past five years regarding gender and test scores. It appears the topic has been less popular.

Teacher Beliefs and Practices

There is literature exploring the similarities and differences between what teachers believe and what teachers actually teach. In a qualitative study, Phipps and Borg (2009) looked at tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. Much like Karavas-Doukas (1996) writes, Phipps and Borg (2009) found that there is often a difference between the two facets and that the two do not always coincide. They highlight the idea that teachers' beliefs have a profound impact on teachers' pedagogy, but also note that many teachers perform tasks and lessons in the classroom that do not align with their beliefs (which they stated in questionnaires). Phipps and Borg (2009) and Karavas-Doukas (1996) show that teachers do not always follow their beliefs and do what they say they do. Teachers even admitted practicing class room activities whose primary function was to manage the students

rather than motivate them. The teachers knew this was wrong but had not realized they were doing it until questioned. This practice will not teach students; in the case of forms of address, Survey 3⁶ will poll teachers to see how they teach. Phipps and Borg (2009) conclude that studies like theirs are valuable because teachers come to an awareness of their own teacher practices (and failings) and, because of it, can improve as teachers. This will be salient on Survey 3. Teachers may say they teach forms of address, but without constant observation, it will be impossible to prove, thus the responses must be taken with a grain of salt.

Teacher Confidence

Teachers also have differing levels of confidence in their own practice. Because my project, in part, studies Non-native English-speaking teachers' (NNEST) confidence at teaching, it is important to note that NNESTs can have both good and bad experiences with teaching, which leads to positive or negative confidence in using and teaching English (Park, 2012). Many of the experiences are rewarding because of exposure to (and acceptance into) an English academic community, which allows them to reconstruct their identity as an authentic user and teacher of English (Kachru & Nelson, 2006). However, many NNESTs doubt their abilities, which may be perceived as in competition with native speakers' abilities and that they do not speak like native speakers (Jenkins, 2009; Kamhi-Stein, 2004). One of the goals for NNESTs, then, is to gain a high level of English proficiency (Lin, 1999; Park, 2009). Much like students' confidence, teachers need confidence to engage with students, which is necessary for effective teaching.

⁶ Survey 3 will establish IEC pedagogy regarding the teaching of forms of address by asking teachers about their practices and beliefs.

Survey 3 polls teachers, most of whom are NNESTs, about their confidence in teaching English in general and teaching forms of address. As will be seen in the data, the teachers have great confidence in their teaching abilities. However, not all IEC teachers were polled, which could potentially mean there are likely some teachers who are not confident and may fail to effectively motivate and educate students.

Research Questions

The literature review has summarized the salient issues regarding my project, however there are areas that this thesis will pursue further. I have designed several research questions that will guide this thesis.

The primary question is to what extent, if any, does SCSU IEC need to alter its pedagogy regarding the teaching of forms of address? In order to answer this question, this thesis needed to establish the teaching pedagogy itself. The information was gathered from Surveys 2 and 3, the former being from the students' point of view and the latter being the teacher's observations and practices.

This thesis also looked at proficiency and confidence of students to determine if IEC needs to change any areas of its pedagogy. The following questions are relevant to this research:

- 1) How proficient are IEC students at using forms of address based on context?
- 2) How confident are IEC students at using forms of address based on context?

Based on the results of this thesis, it is clear that students struggle with using forms of address and are not overly confident, which brings us to the next question: How should IEC change its

pedagogy regarding the instruction of forms of address? In the conclusion, I have given suggestions.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The primary goal of this project is to determine, to what degree, if any, SCSU IEC needs to supplement its pedagogy regarding forms of address. I studied IEC students in Level 3 through Level 5, and IEC teachers, collecting both quantitative and qualitative data.

I distributed a set of surveys to 34 students in order to assess the extent of each student's understanding of forms of address. The first survey is composed of questions regarding appropriate use of forms of address to determine student proficiency and their ability to make acceptability judgements based on context. These questions are multiple choice questions and fill-in-the-blank questions.

A second survey ascertained the level of confidence students felt towards using forms of address, allowing me to compare their performance on the first survey with the level of confidence they reported on the second survey. The third survey was used to gain information from teachers regarding their perspectives on the importance of teaching forms of address.

In learning where students gain the most information regarding forms of address, the second survey asks where student knowledge of forms of address originated: SCSU IEC, previous schools, or elsewhere?

Subjects

The subjects are English language learners who have come to St. Cloud State University for education and are or have recently been enrolled in Intensive English Center courses to improve their English proficiency. The following chart offers a visual to the region and native languages of the subjects.

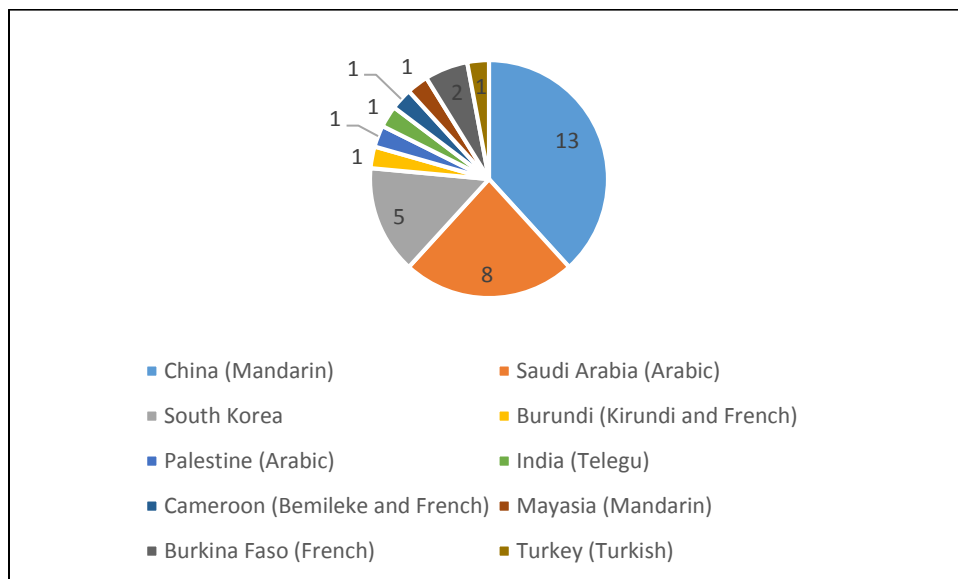


Figure 1. Region and Native Language of Subjects

There were 34 students total, 10 from Level 3, 18 from Level 4, and 6 from Level 5.

The largest groups were the 13 students from China (Mandarin), the 8 from Saudi Arabia (Arabic), and the 5 from South Korea (Korean).

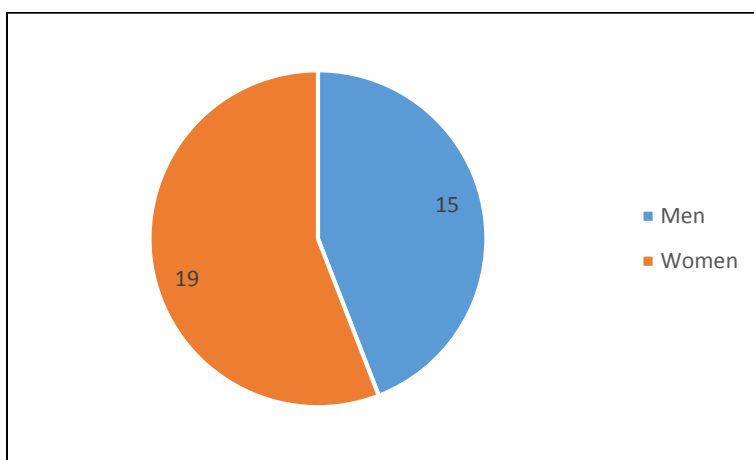


Figure 2. Number of Female and Male Students

There were 19 women and 15 men, ranging from 18-30 years old. Because the age range is fairly small, all subjects could be considered young adults, this thesis does not focus on age as a main factor in forms of address acquisition.

For reference, at SCSU, students who pass IEC Level 4 are considered ready for freshman-level college courses. In order to be admitted into graduate studies, students must pass IEC Level 5.

The 10 instructors I surveyed are English teachers, all of whom are graduate students working towards a Master's degree in TESL, ranging in age from 22-35 years old and with varying degrees of experience. Six of the teachers come from Latin America, 2 from Eastern Europe, 1 from China, and 1 from Central United States.

Information Pertaining to the Surveys

The first survey has been calibrated by ten native-English-speaking IEC teachers. They decided which form of address is appropriate to each situation, so the student responses are not graded against the researcher's opinion but rather a group of native English teachers.

Angoff Procedure

An additional group of teachers performed an Angoff Procedure of test calibration to determine appropriate cutoff scores for students to be considered "proficient." Livingston and Zieky (1982) describe the Angoff Procedure as a procedure of to determine the initial passing score for an examination use the term "cutoff score" to describe how many of a group of 100 minimally competent practitioners (MCP) are likely to answer correctly. The process begins by selecting a group of job experts to serve as judges, which, in this case, are English teachers. This thesis took additional care to ensure that the judges were not part of the calibrating committee. In the Angoff Procedure, the judges are shown an item on the exam and asked to consider how many of the MCPs would be able to accurately respond to the item; in this case, it using the form of address that the survey calibrators chose. For example,

if each unique question is rated at 50%, the expert believes that only 50% of minimally qualified candidates would answer the question correctly. Each question can, then, be based on the average each expert gives. An exam that consists of 50 questions with average rating of 65% would require a score of at least 65% to be passed. Easier exams will have higher percentages, more difficult exams will have lower percentages, and so forth.

The judges reviewed Survey 1 and found that the MCPs (Level 3 students) should answer the questions with 81% accuracy. The Angoff Procedure judges provided the following cutoff scores from lowest to highest 62%, 75%, 79%, 81%, 82%, 83%, 84%, 87%, 88%, 89%, resulting in an average of 81%. The spread of 27 degrees is cause for concern; the 62% outlier brought the average down. The median is 75.5%.

For sake of clarity, they agreed that rounding down to 80% is acceptable. If 80% of students' answers are the same as the calibrators', this project will consider them proficient. If a student scores less than 80%, they will be considered non-proficient.

The second student survey is a mixture of quantitative and qualitative questions designed to gather data on students' previous learning experiences, biographical information, sex/gender, and their confidence with forms of address. This survey also aimed at students' confidence at using forms of address in their native language and culture, for comparison to their L2. Survey 2 also seeks to gain information about whether or not students have been explicitly taught forms of address, and if so how often that instruction took place. The questions also look at whether or not the instruction came at SCSU, and in which ways instructors taught forms of address. Additional questions seek to glean if students actively

sought resources on forms of address and/or learned them through exposure to native speakers, TV and movies, or reading outside of class.

The third survey is for teachers. This survey collected similar information about teachers, such as how often, if at all, teachers teach forms of address, whether or not they use the class textbook, and whether or not they even think forms of address are worth taking time in class to teach. In this survey I have allowed the teachers to answer open-ended questions to further describe why they do or do not teach forms of address and, if they do, how. Campbell, McNamara, and Gilroy (2004) writes that open-ended questions are useful at allowing respondents to develop their responses “in ways which the interviewer might not have foreseen” (p. 99). With this approach, I gained more natural and fuller explanations into how teachers instruct and the beliefs behind their decisions.

Procedure of the Research

I worked closely with my thesis advisor to create research questions based on the literature that I have read in preparation for this thesis. The literature and research questions led to the creation of the instruments: the three surveys. After crafting the surveys, to effectively answer my research questions, I performed a pilot test to work out as many unforeseen issues as possible. I had former IEC students take this test and they averaged 67% accuracy, but this number is not comparable to the real test because the pilot subjects are far more advanced than most of the subjects in the official study.

The first and second surveys were distributed in early December to Level 3 Structure, Level 4 Writing, and Level 5 Cultural Orientation. I distributed the consent forms and when,

students had read, understood, and consented, I distributed Survey 1, giving a short but on point summary of what they needed to do on the surveys.

Two students opted out of the survey—one from Level 3 and one from Level 4—and they politely did not interfere with the survey administration in any way.

I slowly walked around the classroom, ensuring students that they could take as much time as they needed and answering any questions students had, but there were no questions asked. The students were engaged and willing to complete the surveys. There were no disruptions.

When each student was finished with Survey 1, I collected the first survey and gave them Survey 2. I continued walking around the classroom to see if students needed any help. When students were finished with Survey 2, I collected it and thanked them for helping.

Because some students finished quickly and some students took extensive time, not all students finished both surveys and I decided it would be awkward (even rude) to keep everyone waiting while one or two students begin Survey 2, when everyone was already finished. Except for several very careful students, each survey was completed in approximately twenty minutes.

When the surveys were collected, I thanked everyone and exited. The surveys and consent forms were placed in a folder and held in a secure desk drawer that locks with a key. There is little danger of the data being taken and distributed.

The third survey was distributed in January and early February through email or paper copy to IEC teachers whom I had contacted earlier to see if they were willing to complete the

survey. These surveys were completed and sent back to me within a week of being sent to each teacher.

Limitations

The main limitation with the surveys is trying to get accurate data. Students and teachers are only able to answer what they *say* they know. Additionally, due to the halo effect, students and teachers may have answered the questions in a way they think I want to hear. I have taken precautions to avoid this by making the surveys 100% anonymous, but the limitation still exists and note that this limitation is not restricted to the current study. Another issue with survey questions that seek to identify where students learned forms of address is that students might not necessarily know or remember; all they are able to say is where they *think* they learned them. A third potential problem is that the surveys only test book knowledge and that high proficiency on the test questions does not automatically translate to success outside of the classroom; a student may answer all of the survey questions appropriately but fail to use forms of address properly in the real world.

We must also keep in mind that the surveys allow students time to think, which contrasts verbal interactions where participants must speak and reply extemporaneously. While this is a potential issue, it did not appear to be a problem in my study.

Graham Hall (2011) warns that establishing beliefs is “extremely challenging,” because it involves a high level of unconscious knowledge (p. 5). The questions asked in the surveys may not be something that students and teachers have thought about and may have been unprepared to give well-thought-out answers. As mentioned in the literature review, Phipps and Borg (2009) found that there were differences between what teachers say they

teach and what they actually teach, so we must take the teachers' answers with a bit of caution.

Chapter 4: Analysis

In order to determine if SCSU IEC pedagogy regarding forms of address need improvement, I aggregated the scores of Survey 1 and Survey 2. Student answers on Survey 1 were compared to the native-speaking calibrators' answers to determine if students used language in a way consistent with native speakers of English.

As noted earlier, this instrument was designed to be a natural and accurate method to test students' proficiency at using forms of address. Though not perfect, this instrument offers a strong guide to student proficiency and the scores acquired are a strong clue to students' ability at the time of the survey.

My calibration team comprised of 10 Native-English-speaking IEC instructors; they took Survey 1 and answered the questions in the way they thought was most appropriate. I compiled their answers and found that the calibrators agreed on all but four of the answers to the survey questions. In these four questions, the calibrators responded with different answers and were able to defend their answers, so both answers will be considered acceptable. This variation is to be expected. Brown and Ford (1961) found that most native English speakers tend to use FN only and title plus LN, and their results have been corroborated by other researchers. Indeed, the calibrators tended to follow this observation as well.

Another note is that not all students had time to complete both Survey 1 and 2. One Level 3 and one Level 4 student chose to pass on the surveys, compared to the 34 willing subjects. The scores and averages that are recorded in this project are based on the material the students were able to complete.

Additionally, there were several surveys in which students choose their own answer (I gave them that option) and they answered with bare titles. Usually bare titles are considered appropriate and acceptable, but because there is no way to operationalize bare titles, I omitted scoring those particular answers, resulting in survey scores of 17/19, 12/18, etc., rather than scores out of 20, and the scores were put into percentages.

There were also answers that students choose, such “Hey, Justin,” instead of the option on the survey “Hello, Justin.” Though I paid attention to the differences in the greetings, this project does not care if a student says “hi,” “hello,” or “howdy.” The form of address is the main concern. In situations of alternate greetings, as long as the subject chooses the appropriate form (in this case, Justin (FN)), it will be considered appropriate.

Survey 2 asked students about their confidence, based on a 5-point Likert scale. The calibration team agreed that, when students marked their confidence at an average of below 4, the students have indicated that they had little confidence. Oppositely, if students marked their confidence at an average of 4 or higher, the student had great confidence.

As will be seen in the results, the majority of students indicated an average below 4, which is evidence that students have low confidence. Though this does not automatically indicate a lack of understanding forms of address, the proficiency was low as well.

This thesis relied on Survey 3 to establish what was currently being taught primarily during the Fall of 2016 and the early Spring of 2017. As expanded in the results section, teachers believe that forms of address are important and have methods to teach them, but believe that IEC could adopt better pedagogy regarding the instruction of the forms.

Chapter 5: Results–Proficiency and Confidence

Proficiency Results

Overall results. When the surveys were operationalized, it became clear that the students knew what forms of address were, but struggled to use them. The overall results can be found below:

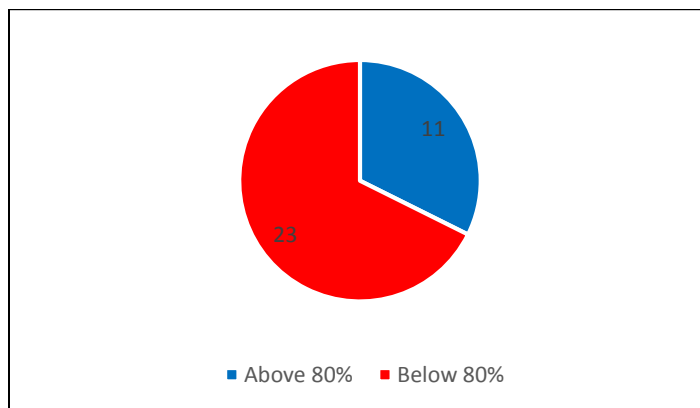


Figure 3. Overall Proficiency

Of the 34 students who took Survey 1, 11 passed the 80% cut score and 23 fell below. This is a passing rate of 32%. Of the highest IEC level, the six Level 5 students achieved a 50-50 split. Note that these numbers are far below the 80% that the Angoff committee predicted.

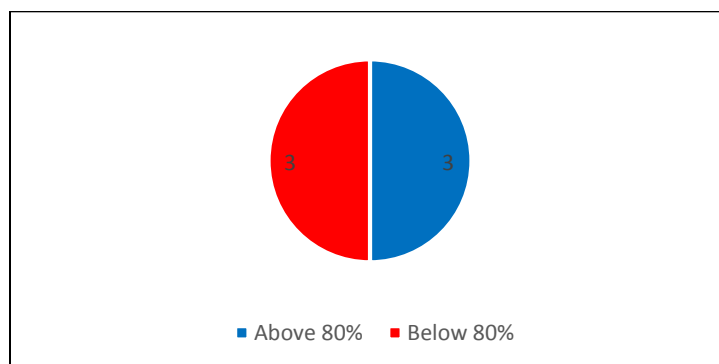


Figure 4. Level 5

Level 4 had 18 students, 7 of whom passed and 11 who fell below the cut score, resulting in 39%.

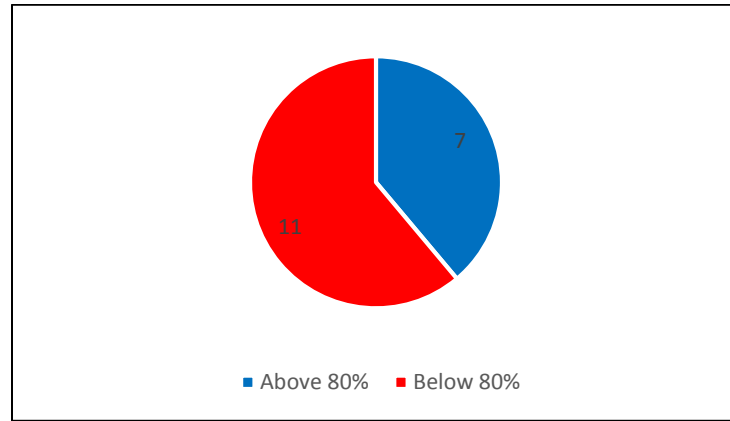


Figure 5. Level 4

Level 3 had 10 students, 1 of whom passed and 9 who fell below the cut score, resulting in 10%.

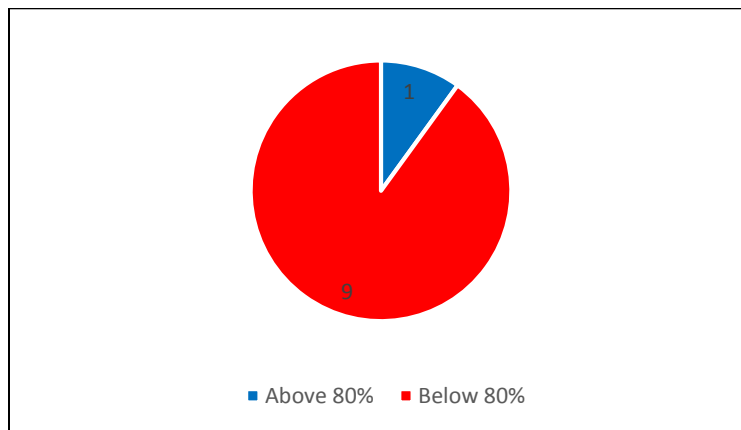


Figure 6. Level 3

A brief look at the results suggests that student were less ready that I hypothesized. As will be seen in the in depth look at the data, the students show steady improvement as they progress through levels, so it appears the forms of address can be learned and mastered with exposed and practice.

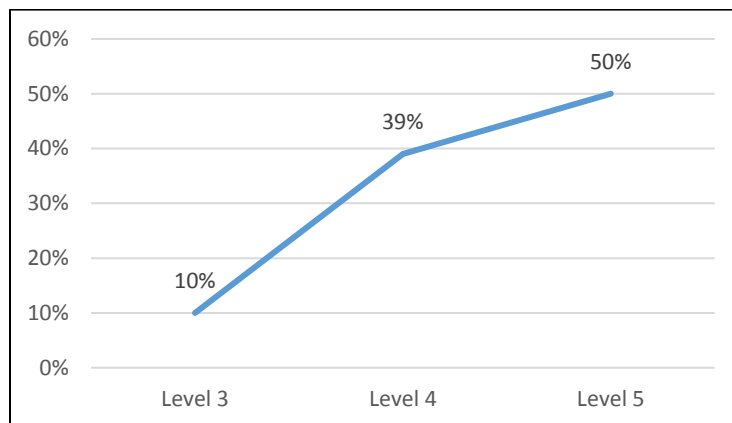


Figure 7. Student Progression through Levels

This upwards progression is useful because it shows a strong correlation between the proficiency of using forms of address compared to proficiency in using English, and that the learners can improve with exposure and practice.

Difficulty with T+LN vs T+FN

Students showed difficulty when addressing people with titles and names. This problem was most notable on Question 6 of Survey 1, in which students are asked to refer to a male professor. Of the 33 subjects who indicated an answer, only 13, 39%, chose T+LN. 15, or 45%, chose T+FN, which is deemed inappropriate by the calibrators.

This issue arose on Question 2 of Survey 1, in which there is a similar situation but with a female professor. Of the 32 subject who indicated an answer, 21, or 64%, chose T+LN. Only 3, or 9%, chose T+FN.

It is curious that the subjects answered more in line with the native speakers when it came to addressing a woman. In some situations, speakers are more comfortable addressing women by first name, so this seems counterintuitive.

Granted, the subjects only scored 64%, which is still below the Angoff Procedure's established cutoff, so there is still an issue. The issue of T+FN actually could be from the IEC. It is possible, but unproven, that students apply the habits they learned in IEC. Typically, students call their teachers "teacher" and less commonly "teacher+FN." Because it is not necessarily part of a lesson, teachers do not correct these addresses, or it becomes habitualized and teachers do not notice. Language teachers have a lot to think about in the few weeks of class and correcting an innocent mistake is not high on the list of priorities and by the time classes have settled into a rhythm, the form of address is not noticed. Teachers at IEC should be more aware of this and teach students more universally accepted forms.

Certainly, T+FN could be acceptable, and some professors may prefer it, but Brown and Ford (1961) and the calibrators agreed that T+LN is more appropriate and should be used as the default address.

Male and Female Addressees

Mostly students did not have trouble using forms of address on people of different genders.

There were three questions with specifically male addressees and five with specifically female addressees. Overall, when addressing males, students indicated appropriate answers 71% (69 out of 97 total responses). When addressing females, students indicated appropriate answers 66% (105 out of 158 total responses). With only a 5% difference, it does not appear that addressing different genders is a problematic issue.

In casual settings, the accuracy was relatively high. When referring to a male best friend, the overall accuracy was 91%, and when referring to a cousin (female), the overall

accuracy was 90%. These are comparable levels of intimacy, age, and level of formality. As we can see, the scores are nearly identical, so it does not appear that gender in this situation confuses students.

Similarly, when addressing a female neighbor, the accuracy was 87%. Several of the unacceptable answers came from negative transfers from Korean and Chinese students who used LN. Without the negative transfers, the accuracy is a proficient 93%. These are all high numbers.

The only area that was cause for concern was Questions 2 and 6 in which students use Title+LN with different addressees. In this context, students performed poorer when addressing the man (39%) than addressing the woman (64%).

Addressing Professors

Again, Questions 2 and 6 are important. When referring to professors, the accuracy falls. When referring to a male professor, students achieved an accuracy of 39%. 15 of the 33 answers came in the form of T+FN, which is very rare in English and counted as wrong by this project. When addressing a female professor under similar circumstances, students achieved an accuracy of 64%.

Questions 9 and 10 offer different data points. These questions look at how students change their forms of address based on who enters a conversation. Question 9 involves the subject speaking with a professor who they know well (and refer to each other by FN) and another professor (who you are on a T+LN relationship with) joins the conversation; the student must decide how, if at all, they should change their forms of address.

On Question 9, students achieved 93%. Nine students chose to continue using FN and 23 chose to switch to T+LN. 4 of the calibrators chose FN and 6 chose T+LN.

Question 10 is identical to Question 9, except that the professor who joins the conversation is also on a FN basis with the student. Students achieved 85%. Ten students chose to continue with FN and 19 chose to switch to T+LN. Again, four of the calibrators chose FN and six chose T+LN.

In these two cases, students show striking similarities to the calibrators in knowing when and when not to use certain forms of address based on context.

For reference, several students still chose unacceptable answers. All of those students chose T+FN, which is likely a negative transfer from Chinese and Korean languages.

Addressing Employees

When addressing employees, the accuracy is also less than stellar. When referring to male workers (in this case a letter carrier), the accuracy is 81%. It is worth noting that no competent English speaker will refer to letter carriers as “officer,” ruling out the possibility that IEC teachers taught this form. It is likely that several students guessed it because they thought it sounded good. This example shows that there is an absence of instruction in the IEC classrooms.

In a similar situation involving a female desk worker, the accuracy is 58%. Most of the errors centered around the distinction between “miss” and “ma’am.” Seventeen students indicated “miss” and 9 indicated “ma’am.” A competent English speaker will know that using “ma’am” towards a young woman is inappropriate, and, in some situations, might prompt a rude response.

Proficiency of Male and Female Students

The proficiency of male and female students was similar to the previously mentioned studies, but found that men outscored the women by 1.5%. There were 19 women and 15 men. Of the 19 women, 6 passed the cut score, resulting in 31.5% passing rate. Of the 15 men, 5 passed the cut score, resulting in a 33% passing rate.

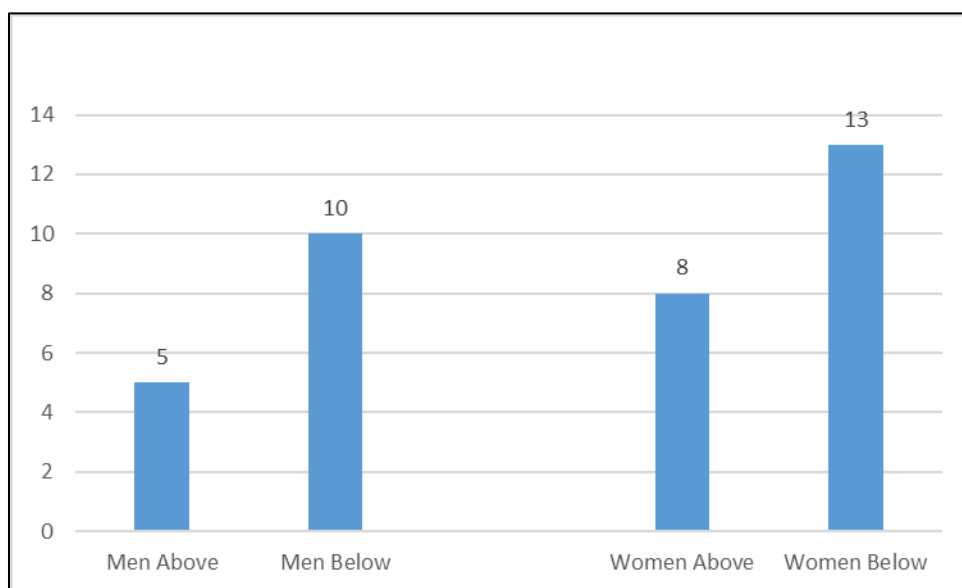


Figure 8. Number of Students Who Passed Cut Score Based

Unlike earlier tests, this thesis found that slightly more men were slightly more proficiency according to the Angoff procedure.

As noted earlier, the University of Cambridge (2006) found that women students scored higher than men: 1.44% difference in reading, 1.56% in listening and speaking, and 1.78% in the writing section, which is an average of 1.67% higher than men's scores. The Educational Testing Service (2007) report that women score 1-3% higher than men in listening, speaking, and writing, but 1.3% lower in reading.

While this thesis found that men scored slightly higher, the difference is still within 2%, which is not far from previous findings. As The Educational Testing Service found, men were slightly better at reading, and, because this thesis's instruments were based on reading, reading is likely how men gained the advantage. Further tests would need to be made to confirm this observation though.

This thesis did not, however, look at gender proficiency across levels because there would have been too small a sample size. In Level 5, there were only two men, as compared to the four women. One man passed and one did not, resulting in an average that does not likely reflect the real world. Any comparison, then, would be suspect, so I have decided to leave this for future studies.

Angoff Procedure Limitations

According to the Angoff method judges, 80% of the students should have passed the cutoff score, but only 35% did. A likely reason for this discrepancy is in the judges who had an unrealistic expectation of what the students were capable of. As will be seen in answers from Survey 3, it is likely that because teachers only cover the basics, the students were not as prepared or practiced as the judges hoped. This phenomenon would be little different than teaching students a new concept but not practicing it later, thus students forget the material. Though students may hear, and even use, the forms outside of class, it might not be enough to produce proficiency.

The judges might think are better teachers than they are. As will be seen in the following sections, IEC students believe that IEC teachers are effective, but one would need to do more research to determine just how effective the teachers are in this specific topic.

Ironically, the 62% outlier was closest to the students' 35% proficiency.

Confidence Results

The student confidence fluctuated by level but did not show a consistent growth through levels as the proficiency shows show. As a reminder, the confidence questions were graded on a 5-point Likert scale and an average of 4+ is considered confident.

Confidence of using English in general. Twenty-nine students took Survey 2 and 12 indicated they were confident using general English; that is 41%.

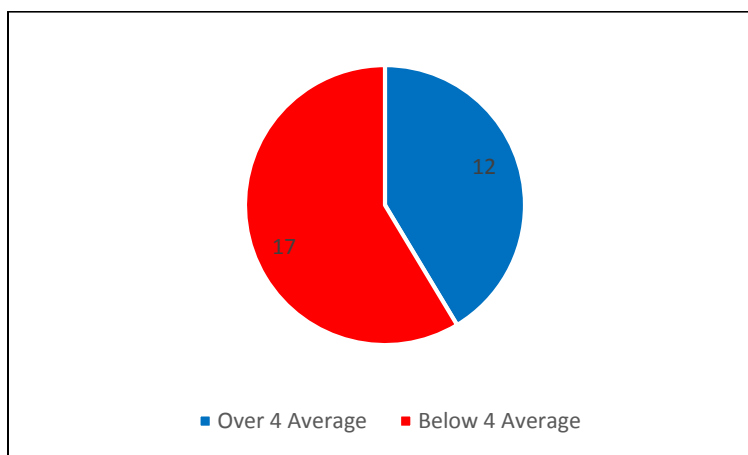


Figure 9. Overall Confidence (English in General)

If only 41% of students consider themselves confident in using common forms of English, it is a sign that, though IEC is doing a good job, more progress can be made. The reason only 29 students took the survey, as compared to 34 on Survey 1, is that some students ran out of time and could only complete the first survey.

Further, confidence does not necessarily increase with level. Four of the nine Level 3 students indicated confidence in using English in general, which is 44%. Five of the 14 Level 4 students indicated confidence in using English in general, which is 35%. Three of the six Level 5 students indicated confidence in using English in general, which is 50%.

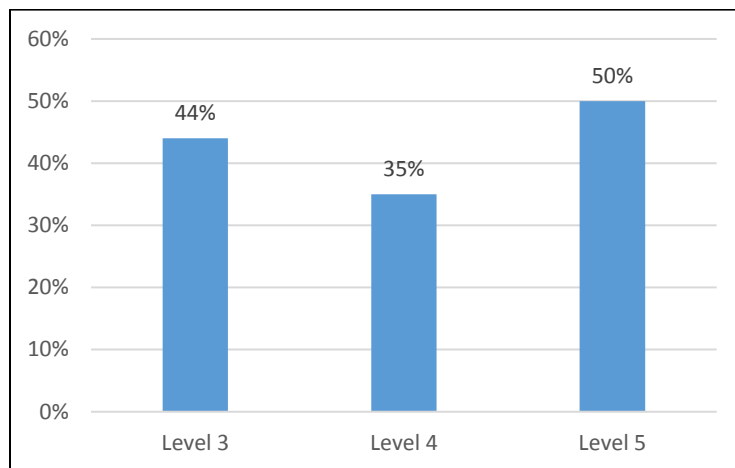


Figure 10. General Confidence in English

As the data shows, confidence does not seem to correlate to proficiency of level of study.

Confidence with forms of address. When it comes to using forms of address, only 10 of the 29 students indicated a high level of confidence, resulting in 34%.

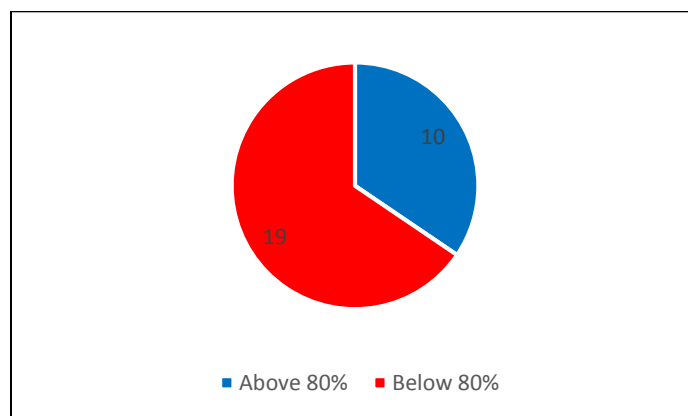


Figure 11. Overall Confidence (Forms of Address)

As we can see, fewer subjects indicated confidence towards levels of confidence than they did towards using English in general. Forty-one percent of students feel comfortable using general English, but 34% feel comfortable using forms of address.

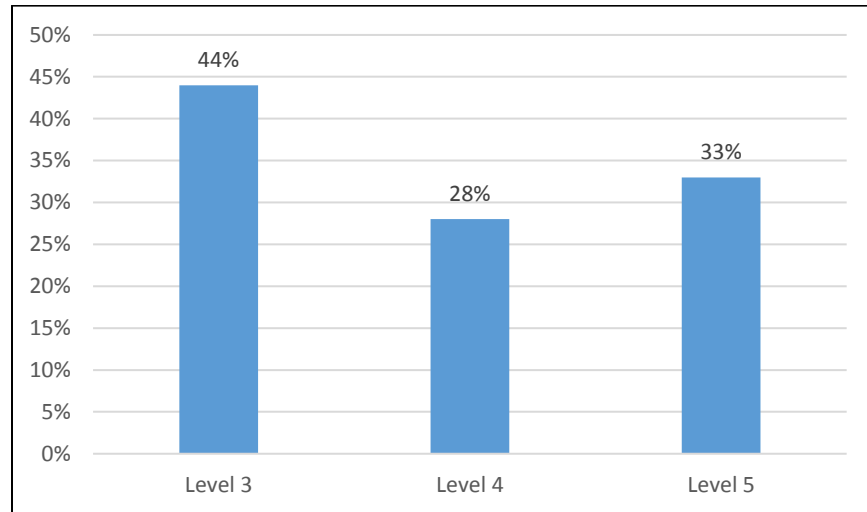


Figure 12. Forms of Address Confidence

As with the confidence with English in general, there does not seem to be a correlation between level and confidence in using forms of address. Level 5 indicated most confidence with using English in general but Level 3 indicated most confidence with using forms of address. Keep in mind that Level 3 scored poorest on Survey 1 with only 10% (1 student out of 10) scoring over 80%.

Comparing the proficiency scores to the confidence scores yields useful results.

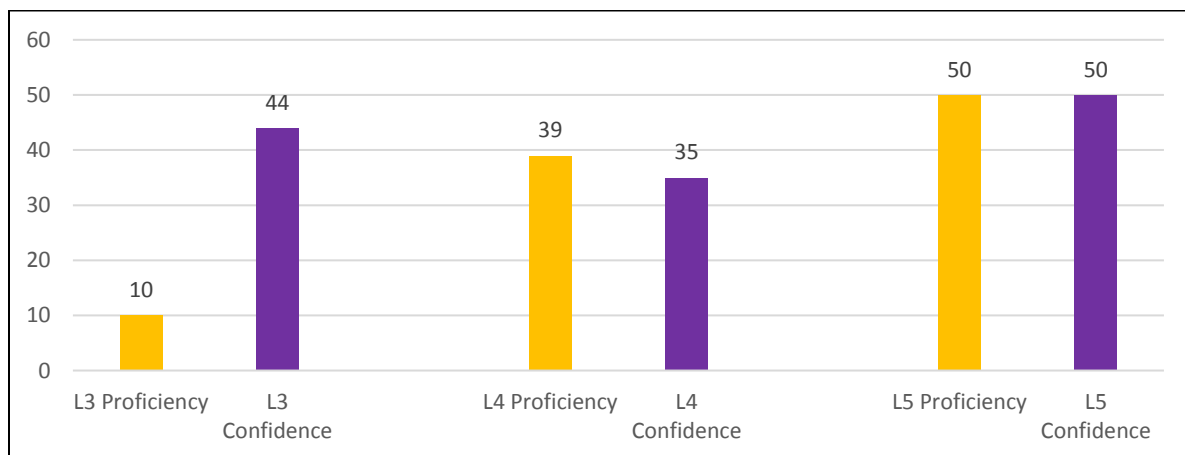


Figure 13. IEC Proficiency vs. Confidence

In Levels 4 and 5, proficiency and confidence overlap, but Level 3 students are more confident than their current abilities. In Level 5, the proficiency and confidence scores are identical; 50% passed and 50% consider themselves confident. In Level 4, the difference between the two scores is 4%. In Level 3, the scores are lopsided. Forty-four percent consider themselves confident in using forms of address, but only 10% pass the cutoff score. This instance could be an example of students thinking they are better than they are, and only through exposure and time in practice do they realize that there is much more to know. When students achieve Level 4 and 5, they appear to be more aware of their abilities.

Results—IEC Pedagogy and Teacher Practices

Survey 2 and Survey 3 were designed to investigate what is occurring in the IEC when it comes to teaching forms of address. After surveying the IEC instructors, several things became clear.

First, all IEC teachers believe that forms of address are important to teach. Every teacher indicated 5. It is worth noting, however, that this may be a case of the halo effect in which subjects answer questions in a way that they think the interviewer (the author) wants to hear. This may or may not be the case. It is still a valid conclusion that all subjects believe forms of address are worth being taught.

Second, all IEC teachers have high confidence in their proficiency of using and teaching English. Of the # subjects, all but 1 indicated 5. This shows that teachers are not shying away from teaching forms of address because of a lack of confidence. If anything, they simply do not have enough time to teach the concepts, or do not know they should.

Third, the IEC teachers indicated that the IEC program does not pay much attention to the instruction of forms of address and there is little support in their instruction, leaving instructors to find their own resources.

Teacher's general thought reading forms of address. Of the 10 IEC teachers, all 10 believe forms of address are important for IEC students to learn. All 10 indicated 5 out of 5 on the survey.

Teacher awareness and confidence. The responses on Survey 3 indicate the teachers consider themselves confident in their teaching ability and knowledge of English. The average confidence for using forms of address in conversations is 4.62 out of 5. The average confidence for using forms of address in compositions is 5 out of 5. The average confidence for teaching forms of address is 4.5 out of 5. These are high numbers, and it might be unrealistic to expect all teachers to have 5 out of 5 confidence. Many great teachers might feel insecure about their teaching ability. The numbers gleaned in Survey 3 show that IEC teachers believe they are ready to teach forms of address. Additionally, their survey responses indicate that they are knowledgeable as well.

In response to the question "How do you teach forms of address?" the teachers were able to show that they both understood how forms of address function and how they should be taught.

One teacher writes, "I explained to them by means of examples. I try to emphasize the influence of situational context and appropriateness." Clearly, she understands levels of formality.

Another teacher writes “I explicitly show them the different forms of address in writing, I play videos that simulate the protocol. I have them role play as an activity in class,” showing that she has a strong grasp on how to teach forms of address and how to put them within a context that the students will learn from.

Yet another teacher writes “When I was teaching Cultural Orientation, the students learned forms of address through reading and writing emails to professor, friends, etc.” Again, this teacher is aware of the important of teaching forms of address and takes time to teach them in class.

One teacher writes “I probably give them context to learn address, such as reading video, or conversation. They would better understand how to use forms of address appropriately in different situations.” This teacher understands that forms of address must be learned within context.

Another teacher writes “First [I] would show them [a] few examples of properly addressed emails and some very incorrect. Students find the differences and discuss with their peers why. Then they try their best to fix the wrong one and explain what changes they made and why. So after that I will provide them with more material on how to properly do it so then they produce a final task.”

One teacher gave an approximate lesson plan to demonstrate her knowledge and process of teaching forms of address:

1. Introduce a full form, e.g. MISTER, MISS, etc.
2. Introduce gender associated with a specific form of address.
3. Introduce abbreviations.

4. Practice the standard forms of address.
5. Introduce a variety of social situations where the students might need to use a certain form of address. Then I help them to recognize and apply the appropriate form of address based on certain clues and conversational/social rules.

In addition to having a system for teaching forms of address, she even includes the abbreviated versions of the forms. Though this was concerned with spoken forms of address, her response indicates a good knowledge of the forms.

It would appear that the teachers have little problem teaching forms of address. Naturally, the biggest note in this topic is that these responses are what teachers say they do. There is little reason to doubt them, but one must remember that the responses may not be an accurate description of what actually happens in the classroom.

Intensive English Center's attention to forms of address. Teachers were asked "How effective do you think IEC is at encouraging and supporting teachers with the instructions of forms of address?" Of the eight teachers, the average score was 3, which is not particularly high.

A teacher who gave a response of 4/5 explains "They would provide us with advice on how to teach this, if need be. Our supervisors (as professors themselves) encourage that our students learn the proper way to address a professor in an academic environment." Another teacher was less optimistic and reports "the teacher has to figure it out to accomplish it as good as possible."

While several IEC teachers mention that the IEC department would likely give them support in teaching forms of address, it does not appear to be a pressing issue. One evidence

of how forms of address are not treated with importance is that they are hidden in the IEC Students Learning Outcomes (SLOs).

A teacher who gave a response of 3/5 explains “I think teachers explain this informally in their class but there is not a systematic way to teaching it and it is not emphasized by advisors.”

Another teacher who gave a response of 3/5 explains:

I never taught oral skills (listening and speaking/conversation class). I’m not sure about it. But when I was teaching reading, the IEC guide book encouraged me to pay more attention to students’ academic study. Forms of address wasn’t mentioned, at least in reading/structure/vocabulary guideline.

One teacher who gave a response of 3/5 explains “The SLOs do not include the instruction of forms of address specifically, however, they do require teachers to teach their students the norms of a conversation in English, as well as how to write emails.”

A teacher who gave a response of 3/5 agrees:

As for the IEC I believe it is up to the teacher to plan some instructions of forms of address. It is not explicitly stated in Student learning outcomes and some textbooks barely touch on the topic. The most obvious outcome is when the student(-s) address teachers or the director of the program, and/or sends an e-mail that does not have any or has inappropriate form of address.

Another teacher who gave a response of 2/5 explains “I think it is not a topic or objective for any level/class but somehow it is expected that students learn it.”

The SLOs they are referencing are found the Cultural Orientation section in which students will be able to “Demonstrate various aspects of the culture of the U.S. classrooms and act accordingly” and “Describe acceptable and unacceptable topics for conversation (small talk)” (Intensive English Center, 2016, p. 30). These two descriptions are the only reference to forms of address specifically, and these are located within 11 other topics. A

teacher who gave IEC a support a score of 4/5 warns “The SLOs also give a brief reference to [forms of address], although it is listed among many others and can easily be overlooked if not careful.” As the teacher points out, forms of address is nestled in the SLOs but not clearly listed.

One possible explanation for the withdrawn presence of forms of address in the SLOs is that they are too specific and that the cited descriptions fulfill this role. This is an area in which researching textbooks would garner some valuable insight into whether or not English textbooks include the instruction of forms of address.

While the SCSU IEC does not focus on the teaching of forms of address and the teachers indicate receiving relatively low support, the students are mostly happy with what they learned from the program.

Student’s response to the effectiveness of IEC’s treatment of teaching forms of address. The students’ overwhelmingly approved of their IEC teachers. Of the 29 students who took Survey 2, 12 indicated that IEC teachers are better than previous teachers, though this could be a halo effect or because it is easier to remember current instruction. Sixteen indicated gave IEC and previous instruction the same score. Only 2 indicate that previous instruction was better than IEC.

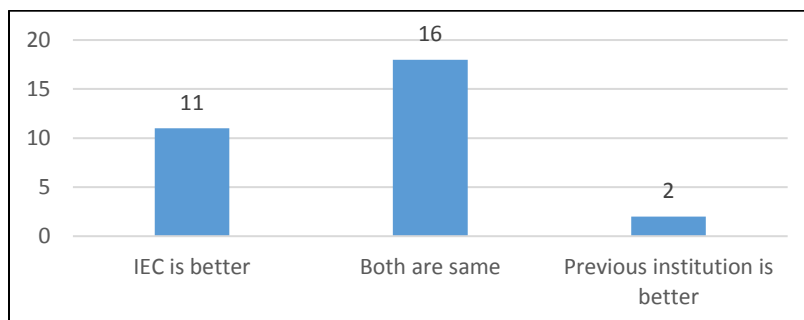


Figure 14. Comparing IEC to Previous Institutions

Comparing the data in an IEC versus Previous Institution also shows that IEC is considered more effective. The average score for IEC teaching is 4.31 out of 5. The average score for previous institutions is 3.75 out of 5. Clearly, SCSU’s IEC is holding its ground against international institutions, at least in the minds of the students who attended both. Though most students compared both IEC and their previous institutions as comparable, the students who believe IEC to be superior believe it to be far superior.

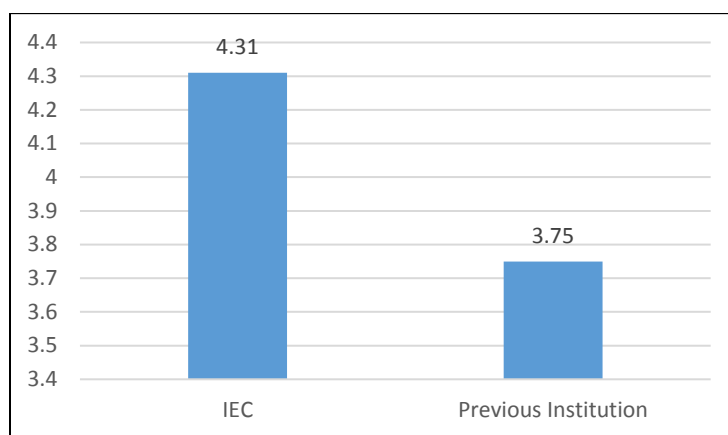


Figure 15. Comparing IEC and Previous Institutions

Again, the survey data shows that students consider IEC to be an effective school.

Students’ awareness of forms of address. The students mostly understood the use of forms of address. In fact, many students were even able to acknowledge and reflect on their knowledge. Several students explain the function of forms of address. One student who indicated 5/5 on SCSU teacher’s effectiveness writes “At SCSU I learned how to talk with teachers or professor, etc.” Another explains “In school in my home country [Saudi Arabia]. They gave us list to learn it. To respect other people.” A third students adds “In my school at home country [Saudi Arabia], my English teacher taught me how to speak to others politely. And she first taught us the different between formal and informal words. But I don’t know

what is mister mean. It is new for me.” From the students’ responses, many knew what forms of address are and have been them in the past, but not all. Other students were quick to admit they had not been explicitly taught forms of address. One student wrote, “To be honest, I don’t know how to use the title.” There is variation in the amount of time teachers spent teaching students forms of address.

Where do students learn forms of address? Students report learning forms of address from a variety of places. The most common places are SCSU IEC, watching TV and movies, and listening to native speakers. The numbers can be seen in the following figure.

	SCSU Teachers and classes	Previous school’s teachers and instructors	Reading outside of class	Watching TV and movies in English	Listening to native English speakers
Level 3 (9 Ss)	4.4	4.1	3.6	4.4	4.7
Level 4 (14 Ss)	4.14	3.78	4.6	3.9	4.2
Level 5 (6 Ss)	4.5	3.16	3	4	4.67
Total	4.31	3.75	4.1	4.24	4.51

Figure 16. Places Where Students Learn Forms of Address

A few interesting patterns emerge from the data.

First, students indicated that they nearly unanimously learned more about forms of address from SCSU IEC than their previous institution.

Second, the data indicates that students learn forms of address more from listening than reading; students learned the most from listening to native English speakers, next most from watching TV, and learned the least from reading outside of class. Except for Level 4 students find listening to native English speakers to be the most useful way of learning forms

of address. This follows intuition because it is likely that the students will hear how people address each other on a frequent basis, especially on a busy SCSU campus. It is also fairly obvious that TV and movies would include verbal exchanges between individuals that would include forms of address.

The outlier in this data set is Level 4, who learned more from outside reading materials. In fact, no student indicated a response lower than a 4 out of 5. Clearly, they found reading to be beneficial. However, the other two levels did not agree as reading outside of class was considered the least useful way to learn forms of address. It should be noted that even though Level 4 found reading to be most useful, they preferred listening to native-English speakers to TV and movies.

One might wonder if a way to help IEC students learn is to increase the time they spend with native-English speakers. Much of IEC instruction includes reading (for homework or during class) and listening to audio clips and videos. Mostly, the only time the students can observe two fluent English speakers interact live is during the ten-minute break in which one teacher leaves and the teacher of the next class arrives, but these interactions are short, consist almost entirely of Greeting+FN, and occur when the students are hurrying to use the rest room or smoke. Perhaps watching native or fluent speakers of English interact with each other more often would be a great benefit to IEC students. Clearly, the survey scores indicate that it is helpful. Other possibilities are homework that involves [casually] observing native-English speakers. These suggestions will be expanded on in the conclusion.

When asked about how teachers at SCSU or previous school taught forms of address, students generally focused on SCSU teachers. In response to the question: “How did your

teachers, at SCSU or at other schools, teach how to use titles such as ‘mister, miss, professor, etc.’?” Describe you experience, and be sure to indicate if you are describing SCSU or another school,” students answered in a variety of ways.

One student admitted that his past teachers did not teach forms of address and only corrected mistakes: “I just use it, if I have mistakes, they will tell me that and teach me to use the right one.” This particular student also indicated that previous teaching was ineffective and learned forms of address from TV and movies.

The lack of instruction was fairly common, and left students with only a basic understanding of how to address people. One student wrote “To be honest, I didn’t learn a lot that how to use titles appropriately. I didn’t take any class that about teaching me to use appropriate titles. I think time and native speaker affected me a lot. I wish I could learn more about the using of titles.”

Other schools gave lists of words and expected students to learn them themselves. A level 5 student answered “The school in my native country [Burundi], the teacher will give a list of titles and explain how to use it, and we need to take notes and do some practice or test.”

Students’ answers confirmed the results of the data, that much of forms of address are learned outside of classes. A student from Brazil wrote “I learned them from video games, tv shows, and movies.” Another student agreed: “I like watch TV dramas, TV shows and many movies to practice listening skill and know how native people use language.” A third did as well: “I think I learned by myself by reading, listing, and watching movies (sic).”

Based on how students’ responded to the survey questions, it appears that students learn a great deal from outside-of-the-classroom. Whether it is TV shows, reading, or

listening to native speakers, it is clear that students benefit from this kind of learning. This thesis does not argue that IEC instruction is less useful than simply interacting with English, but there are clear patterns in the data that suggest students want and need out-of-the-classroom learning. As language teachers, perhaps we should find ways to maximize learning done outside the classroom.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

As seen in the results, part of my hypothesis was proven to be correct, but part of it was proven to be false.

I initially hypothesized that 80% of students would pass Survey 1 with 80% or higher, but this number was far lower than expected. Only 32% of minimally qualified candidates passed the 80% threshold set by the Angoff Procedure. Though the scores were lower than expected, the results show an upward trend across levels. Level 3 had 10% of students pass, Level 4 had 39% of students pass, and Level 5 had 50% of students pass. This, of course, shows that proficiency in forms of address rises with proficiency in general English and increases as students learn more about English.

There were notable difficulties that this project found. Students struggled with T+LN vs. T+FN, often confusing T+FN as appropriate for a professor. As noted earlier this form could be acceptable, but the native-English calibrators and I consider it to be informal based on the context of the exchange. Students also struggled with addressing professors in general, which is corroborated in Survey 2, in which students admit they are less confident about address people in positions of authority.

In this project, I also hypothesized that students would rate their confidence low and the results show that students indeed to doubt their abilities to a point. Overall, only 41% of the students indicated above an average of 4.0 out of 5 on the Likert scale questions regarding confidence.

Unlike the proficiency scores, there is no trend between levels. Level 3 had 44% of students indicating above a 4.0 average, Level 4 had 35% of students indicating above a 4.0 average, and Level 5 had 50% indicating above a 4.0 average.

Survey 2 also found that students are less confident with using forms of address than English in general: 34%, compared to 41% of students who indicated above 4.0 on the Likert scale. There was no trend with forms of address confidence either. Level 3 had 34% of students indicating above a 4.0 average, Level 4 had 28% of students indicating above a 4.0 average, and Level 5 had 33% of students indicating above a 4.0 average.

The numbers show that students could be more proficient and more confident and that is where SCSU's IEC needs to step in.

In regards to teachers, I hypothesized that, though teachers think forms of address are important, they rarely teach them; this was proven accurate. All eight of the surveyed teachers indicated 5 out of 5 on Survey 3; they all believe forms of address are important for students of English and should be taught.

Survey 3 also found that teachers have high confidence in their teaching abilities. The average number for confidence in using forms of address is 4.62 out of 5. The average confidence for teaching forms of address in composition is 5 out of 5 and the average for teaching forms of address in conversation is 4.5 out of 5. These are all good numbers and show that the teachers feel comfortable teaching the material. As seen in the qualitative responses, the teachers are adept at explaining how their knowledge and ability to teach.

An area for concern, however, is how most of the teachers do not believe that SCSU IEC supports the teachers and students with forms of address. The teachers indicated an average of 3 out of 5 and no one indicated over 4.

Though the teachers do not believe that IEC focuses enough on teaching forms of address, the IEC students are very pleased with IEC and the teachers. The average score for the effectiveness of IEC at teaching forms of address is 4.31 out of 5, which is strong number, especially when compared to how students gave their previous institutions an average of 3.75. Clearly, the students appreciate what IEC is doing in this regard. When looking at the 29 individual student surveys, 11 indicated that the IEC is better than their previous institution and 16 indicated that IEC and previous institutions are the same. Only two indicated that their previous institution was better than IEC.

As seen in this project, students are coming out of the IEC with less proficiency and confidence than they could when it comes to addressing others. The teachers are willing and able to teach forms of address and students say they are happy to be here. So, the question becomes “How does IEC better equip students to proficiently use forms of address?” This, of course, is a big question, but I propose several ideas that will help support teachers and give students more opportunities to absorb and practice using forms of address.

Possible Solutions for Improving Address Form Instruction

There are several ways for IEC to improve the teaching of forms of address, most notably more workshops focus on pragmatics of English teaching, developing more effective lesson plans, and creating databases of useful TV shows and movies that would assist in English acquisition.

To better equip teachers with resources regarding the instruction of forms of address, handouts and workshops could be developed. IEC currently has weekly workshops that help keep teachers updated and help train them in new techniques and strategies that are aimed at making them become better teachers.

During one, or part of one, of these workshops, it would be beneficial to focus on giving teachers suggestions for highlighting material that students can look for. Commonly, especially in pre-task activities, a teacher will highlight a concept so that students know what to look for in the main activities (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Snow, 2014, p. 125). Such highlighting will be beneficial for learning forms of address. On the surveys, students already indicated that they learn forms of address through exposure to English. By highlighting the specific concepts, students will be able to focus their energy on the concept and notice it more often in the future, while also requiring little guidance from the instructor.

In class, teachers could use lesson plans and activities based on using forms of address and understanding levels of formality. These lessons could be in the form of creating conversations, greetings, and could be worked into role playing games in which students must address each other as though they are individuals with differing levels of authority. As mentioned earlier, this has been done, but the results of the surveys indicate that more lessons would be effective.

Based on the answers from Survey 2, in which students cite TV/movies and listening to native speakers as most useful in learning forms of address, I propose to include these mediums in the class more often. In my observations, TV and movies are often looked down upon because they are unacademic, which is true to a point, but it is helping students learn.

Because it appears to be effective, IEC teachers could lean more heavily on media as a form of learning. When it comes to forms of address, TV and movies offer many opportunities to see natural interactions between characters who are often of different levels of authority, gender and intimacy. By watching how characters interact, students will be able to acquire more understanding of the forms.

Creating a database of TV shows and movies for students to watch would greatly assist language development. Instructors could add movies and TV episodes to the database that focus on English-speaking situations. A database such as this should be available to all IEC teachers and, possibly, even students so they can have more resources to listen to English and observe natural interactions. As the surveys show, students consider this one of the best ways to learn English.

Future Studies

This thesis is far from conclusive. There are many avenues that scholars could follow to augment this thesis's findings. Unfortunately, these avenues were too large for the scope and timeline of this thesis, but they would be useful additions for future research.

Textbook research. Textbook research would add useful information about what language experts think about forms of address and how they are taught. This research would primarily look at language-learning textbooks aimed at IEC Levels 3, 4, and 5, and, possibly, textbooks for English for Applied Purposes courses. For a continuation of this thesis, the most viable topics would include vocabulary, cultural orientation, and academic discussion courses, but others may prove fruitful as well. The primary goal would be to determine what and how textbooks are facilitating the teaching of forms of address, especially in the form of explicit

and implicit instruction. Because forms of address are an important part of learning English pragmatics, textbooks should make an effort to teach these forms, giving numerous instances of implicit instruction and provisions and opportunities for explicit teaching.

Classroom observations. Classroom observations would add critical information as well. The observation section could be two-fold: observe students' learning and teachers' instruction within IEC classes. Observations will allow a researcher to collect large amounts of data on the participants' actions and behavior in a particular context (Mackey & Gass, 2016, p. 227). The benefit of observations is that the researcher will be immersed in the research setting where he or she can make observations within it (Mason, 1996, p. 60), gaining a large amount of information to observe, which can be compared to the data collected in this project's surveys. I recommend at least 10 hours of observations in the vocabulary, cultural orientation, and academic discussion classes; these classes should be a balanced mix of IEC levels 3-5.

This thesis has discovered that IEC students struggle with using forms of address correctly, and much of this is due to the lack of material found in the applicable IEC's current pedagogy. The teachers believe the forms are important and are prepared to teach them, but it is not done nearly as much as needed to bring students to a proficient level. As this thesis has argued, minor changes will add improvements to student proficiency and confidence in regards to forms of address, which will, in turn, produce students who are better able to navigate social situations and handle themselves more deftly while interviewing for jobs and making everyday interactions using English.

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Appendix A: Survey 1

Thank you for taking this survey. This survey is designed for Chris Reigstad's thesis project and will not impact your classes or grades in any way. Answer the questions as best as you can. Try to answer all questions, but you can skip questions if they make you uncomfortable.

DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME

Home country: _____

Native language: _____

Male or Female? _____

Age: _____

Year at SCSU: _____

What levels of Intensive English Center (IEC) or English for Academic Purposes (EAP) have you already completed? _____

Are you in IEC or EAP now? If yes, which level? _____

What do you call your instructor? Professor? Teacher? Mister? This survey is looking at interactions and what people call each other. Answer the following questions the best you can.

Questions:

Pretend you are a native English speaking American, and answer the question in a way that is most appropriate for the situation.

What kinds of titles do you give to people? Consider the following scenarios and circle the most appropriate response. If you have a different answer, fill in the blank

- 1) While walking to school, you see your **best friend**, Justin Jackson, who is taking a casual walk around town. You and he are great friends. How do you greet him?
 - a. Hello, you person
 - b. Hello, Justin [highlighted indicates appropriate response as chosen by the calibration committee]
 - c. Hello, Mr. Jackson
 - d. Hello, Mister Jackson
 - e. Hello, Mister Justin Jackson
 - f. _____

- 2) While at a school arts festival, you see **your teacher**, Dr. Fiona Kabar. She is strict but helpful. How do you greet her?
 - a. Hello, you person
 - b. Hello, Fiona
 - c. Hello, Missus Kabar
 - d. Hello, Professor Fiona
 - e. Hello, Professor Kabar
 - f. Hello, Professor Fiona Kabar
 - g. _____

- 3) You go to the office of **your advisor**, Mary Johnson. She is kind and friendly, and you have met her many times. How do you greet her?
- Hello, you person
 - Hello, Mary [multiple items were considered appropriate]
 - Hello, Missus Johnson
 - Hello, Doctor Johnson
 - Hello, Doctor Mary Johnson
 - _____
- 4) You see **your neighbor**, Cindy Wu, and you are both leaving your apartments. She is nice but you are not close friends, only acquaintances. How do you greet her?
- Hello, you person
 - Hello, Cindy
 - Hello, Wu
 - Hello, Missus Wu
 - Hello, Missus Cindy Wu
 - _____
- 5) You meet your **cousin and good friend**, Sarah Smith, at a restaurant. She is smart and funny. How do you greet her?
- Hello, you person
 - Hello, Sarah
 - Hello, Miss Smith
 - Hello, Miss Sarah Smith
 - _____
- 6) You see your **professor**, Dr. Robert Peters, at the mall. You took a course with him last semester. He is friendly but you are not close friends. How do you greet him?
- Hello, you person
 - Hello, Robert
 - Hello, Mister Peters
 - Hello, Professor Peters
 - Hello, Professor Robert
 - Hello, Gary Duncan
 - _____
- 7) You need to ask for directions at the SCSU information office. You do not know the **receptionist (office worker)** but she is friendly. She is a native speaker and about twenty years of age. What do you say to get her attention?
- Excuse me, you
 - Excuse me, girl

- c. Excuse me, miss
d. Excuse me, ma'am
e. _____
- 8) You are taking a walk and see your letter carrier (post man). You do not know him well or know his name, but he is friendly. He drops a letter but does not notice, so you call to him so he knows. How do you address him?
a. Excuse me, you
b. Excuse me, sir,
c. Excuse me, officer
d. Excuse me, mister
e. _____
- 9) You are talking with your **professor and good friend**, Dr. Jason Johnson. You have taken two different courses with him and you have been good friends and he has even asked you to call him by first name: "Jason." While in his office, you are talking with him about one of your projects and a professor that you do not know well, Dr. Kathy Willinger, stops by to ask him a question. If Willinger joins your conversation, is it appropriate to keep using the name "Jason," or should you change it? If you should change it, how should you now refer to your professor.
a. It is appropriate to use the name "Jason"
b. Call him "Johnson"
c. Call him "Dr. Johnson"
d. _____
- 10) You are talking with the same **professor and good friend**, Dr. Jason Johnson. While in his office you are talking about a project and a different professor stops by to ask a question. You know this professor very well and have taken three courses with her. Her name is Dr. Rebecca Stark, but she said you can call her "Rebecca." Additionally, Dr. Johnson and Dr. Stark are good friends and call each other by first name but this is the first time you have been part of a conversation with them. If she joins the conversation, what is the appropriate way to address them?
a. It is appropriate to use the names "Jason" and "Rebecca"
b. It is appropriate to call them "Johnson" and "Stark"
c. It is appropriate to call them "Dr. Johnson" and "Dr. Stark"
d. _____

Consider the following scenarios and decide how formal or informal the situation is

- 1) "Hi, Dad. I have a question for you."
Informal 1 2 3 4 5 Formal
- 2) "Mom, when is dinner?"
Informal 1 2 3 4 5 Formal
- 3) "Hi, miss, where can I find the exit?"
Informal 1 2 3 4 5 Formal
- 4) "Professor, what will be on the quiz on Tuesday?"
Informal 1 2 3 4 5 Formal
- 5) "Ma'am, where is the elevator?"
Informal 1 2 3 4 5 Formal
- 6) "Excuse me, sir. Where is the bathroom?"
Informal 1 2 3 4 5 Formal
- 7) Hello, sir. I'll have a cheese burger.
Informal 1 2 3 4 5 Formal
- 8) "Excuse me, where is McDonalds?"
Informal 1 2 3 4 5 Formal
- 9) "Mister Alstott, when are we meeting next week?"
Informal 1 2 3 4 5 Formal
- 10) "Hey, man. I gotta quick question"
Informal 1 2 3 4 5 Formal

Thank you for completing this survey! I appreciate your help very much. If you are able, I need you to complete the second (and last) survey.

Appendix B: Survey 2

Thank you for taking this survey. This survey is designed for Chris Reigstad's thesis project and will not impact your classes or grades in any way. Answer the questions as best as you can.

DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME

Home country: _____

Native language: _____

Male or Female? _____

Age: _____

Year at SCSU: _____

What levels of Intensive English Center (IEC) or English for Academic Purposes (EAP) have you been in? _____

Are you in IEC or EAP now? If yes, which level? _____

English speaking confidence in general

Rate your confidence in using English with native speakers of English

You are very nervous 1 2 3 4 5 No Stress

Rate your confidence in using English with non-native speakers of English

You are very nervous 1 2 3 4 5 No Stress

Rate your confidence in using English with your classmates

You are very nervous 1 2 3 4 5 No Stress

Rate your confidence in using English with professors

You are very nervous 1 2 3 4 5 No Stress

Confidence with forms of address: **Forms of address are titles that we use to call people, such as mister, sir, ma'am, professor, etc.**

Rate your confidence in using forms of address with native speakers of English

You are very nervous 1 2 3 4 5 No Stress

Rate your confidence in using forms of address with non-native speakers of English

You are very nervous 1 2 3 4 5 No Stress

Rate your confidence in using forms of address with your classmates and friends

You are very nervous 1 2 3 4 5 No stress

Rate your confidence in using forms of address with professors and figures of authority

You are very nervous 1 2 3 4 5 No stress

Confidence with forms of address in **your native language**

Rate your confidence in using forms of address with native speakers of your native language in your native country

You are very nervous 1 2 3 4 5 No stress

Rate your confidence in using forms of address with non-native speakers in your country. If you have not spoken with non-native speakers in your country, you may circle "NA"

You are very nervous 1 2 3 4 5 No stress NA

Rate your confidence in using forms of address with classmates and friends of your native language in your native country

You are very nervous 1 2 3 4 5 No stress

Rate your confidence in using forms of address with professors and figures of authority of your native language in your native country

You are very nervous 1 2 3 4 5 No stress

Which things are most helpful in learning to use forms of address in English?

from **SCSU teachers and classes**

Not helpful 1 2 3 4 5 Very helpful

from **previous school's teachers and classes**

Not helpful 1 2 3 4 5 Very helpful

from **reading outside of class**

Not helpful 1 2 3 4 5 Very helpful

from **watching TV and movies in English**

Not helpful 1 2 3 4 5 Very helpful

from **listening to native English speakers**

Not helpful 1 2 3 4 5 Very helpful

How did your teachers, at SCSU or at other schools, teach how to use titles such as "mister, miss, professor, etc."? Describe your experience, and be sure to indicate if you are describing SCSU or another school.

How else have you learned to use titles such as “mister, miss, professor, etc.”? Describe your experience

Appendix C: Survey 3: What do teachers think?

Thank you for taking this survey. This survey is designed for Chris Reigstad's thesis project and will not impact your academic standing in any way. Try to answer all questions, but you may skip questions if they make you uncomfortable.

DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME

Home country: _____

Native language: _____

If non-native, when you first exposed to the English language?

And how long have you been in a country/community where English was the primary language of communication? _____

What classes/levels have you taught? Also, how many years have you been teaching?

Male or Female? _____

Age: _____

General teaching questions

Check all that apply:

- You usually follow the textbook very closely
- You usually use the textbook as a guide but bring in extra resources
- You usually do not find the textbook helpful and mostly must bring in extra resources

Teaching forms of address.

I am looking at how SCSU IEC teachers teach forms of address, such as "Mr., Mrs., Ms., Professor, Sir" etc. to IEC Levels 3, 4, 5, and EAP levels, and if so how.

Forms of address included "the way[s] in which conversation participants call (or address) each other" (Van Herk, 2012, p. 121)

Rate your confidence at using forms of address in English conversation

No confidence 1 2 3 4 5 High confidence

Rate your confidence at using forms of address in English composition

No confidence 1 2 3 4 5 High confidence

<p>If English is NOT your native language, rate your confidence at using forms of address in your native language</p>
--

<p>No confidence 1 2 3 4 5 High confidence</p>
--

Regardless of whether you are non-native or native speaker, rate your confidence at **teaching** forms of address, such as “Mister, professor, doctor, sir, etc.”

No confidence 1 2 3 4 5 High confidence

How important is it that students learn how to use forms of address?

They do not need it at all 1 2 3 4 5 It is needed

Which textbook(s) are you using? _____

Does your textbook **explicitly** teach forms of address by clearly showing students how to use them?

Yes, the textbook clearly teaches forms of address No, it does not

Comments?

Does your textbook **implicitly** teach forms of address, simply by including forms of address within bodies of text?

Yes, the textbook offers texts and passages that contain forms of address

Yes, but only enough to be moderately useful

No, there are few to no instance of forms of address with the textbook

Comments?

If yes, would you teach and/or highlight the topic so students can better learn forms of address?

No 1 2 3 4 5 Definitely

If forms of address are not present, would you bring in extra resources to teach it?

No 1 2 3 4 5 Definitely

How do you teach forms of address?

How effective do you think SCSU IEC/EAP is at encouraging and supporting teachers with the instruction of forms of address?

Poorly 1 2 3 4 5 Very effectively

Explain your reasoning
