

# **Enhanced Input in LCTL Pedagogy**

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## **Abstract**

Language materials for the more-commonly-taught languages (MCTLs) often include visual input enhancement (Sharwood Smith 1991, 1993) which makes use of typographical cues like bolding and underlining to enhance the saliency of targeted forms. For a variety of reasons, this paper argues that the use of enhanced input, both visual and oral, is especially important as a tool for the less-commonly-taught languages (LCTLs). As there continues to be a scarcity of teaching resources for the LCTLs, individual teachers must take it upon themselves to incorporate enhanced input into their own self-made materials. Specific examples of how to incorporate both visual and oral enhanced input into language teaching are drawn from the author's own experiences teaching Cuzco Quechua. Additionally, survey results are presented from the author's Fall 2010 semester Cuzco Quechua language students, supporting the use of both visual and oral enhanced input.

## **Introduction**

Sharwood Smith's input enhancement hypothesis (1991, 1993) responds to why it is that L2 learners often seem to ignore target language norms present in the linguistic input they have received, resulting in non-target-like output. According to Sharwood Smith (1991, 1993), these learners may not be noticing, and therefore not consequently learning, particular target language forms due to the fact that they lack perceptual salience in the linguistic input. Therefore, in order to stimulate the intake of form as well as meaning, Sharwood Smith (1991, 1993) proposes improving the quality of language input through input enhancement, involving increasing the saliency of linguistic features for both visual input (ex. using boldface) and oral input (ex. using spoken repetition).

Since Sharwood Smith (1991, 1993) proposed his input enhancement hypothesis, numerous studies have sought to test the effectiveness of input enhancement for SLA. Han et. al. (2008) reviewed 21 empirical studies of textual (visual) enhancement published since the 1990s. The majority of input enhancement studies to date have examined visual rather than oral input (Han et. al., 2008, p.597). While the 21 studies reviewed by Han et. al. present incongruous results largely due to methodological idiosyncrasies, these works offer some important insights, including: (1) “Simple enhancement is capable of inducing learner noticing of externally enhanced forms in meaning-bearing input” and (2) “Simple enhancement of a meaningful form contributes to comprehension” (Han et. al., 2008, p.612). According to Leeman et. al. (1995, p.222), “Noticing a form is a prerequisite for its acquisition.” Besides the work of Leeman et. al. (1995), among the 21 studies reviewed by Han et. al. (2008), the following also support the efficacy of textual input enhancement for SLA: Shook (1999), Williams (1999), Jourdenais et. al. (1995), Alanen (1995), and Doughty (1991).

In the sections that follow, firstly, an explanation is provided regarding the impetus and importance of the type of work that this paper represents for the LCTLs in general. Second, arguments are presented as to why enhanced input strategies are particularly necessary in the case of LCTL pedagogy. Third, a few significant caveats are outlined with regard to the use of enhanced input. To continue, examples of oral and visual input are offered from the author’s own experience teaching Cuzco Quechua at the university level<sup>1</sup>. Lastly, results are presented from a survey carried out by the author with her Fall 2010 semester Cuzco Quechua language students, supporting the use of both visual and oral enhanced input.

### **The Impetus for this Kind of Work**

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<sup>1</sup> Quechua, once spoken by the citizens of the Incan Empire, is the most-widely spoken Native American language today, with the number of speakers estimated at over 10 million living throughout regions of Peru, Ecuador, Bolivia, northern Chile, northern Argentina, southern Colombia, and Brazil (Cerrón-Palomino 1987, p.72; Lee 1997, pp. 25-26).

### **1. *Teachers learn best from each other***

According to Johnston and Janus in their report, *Teacher professional development for the less commonly taught languages* (2003, p.12), “Research in teacher development has shown that teachers learn most effectively from each other and from themselves”. Johnston and Janus’ (2003, p.3) report presents the results of a questionnaire that was administered to LCTL teachers working in higher education in 1999; a total of 234 responses were received from teachers of 84 different languages at 154 different institutions. Following a review of the professional development needs identified by the LCTL teacher respondents, Johnston and Janus conclude, “...research such as case studies of actual LCTL classrooms would be particularly useful” (2003, p.14). The present work responds to this call for case studies, as specific examples of oral and visual input enhancement presented below are drawn from the author’s own experience teaching Cuzco Quechua.

### **2. *Responding to LCTL instructors’ need for training***

In addition to a call for more case studies of successful LCTL classrooms, Johnston and Janus (2003, p.1) also report that LCTL educators perceive a need for increased opportunities to participate in teacher preparation and training activities. While the LCTL instructors who responded to the 1999 questionnaire were found to be highly qualified, with many being tenured or tenure-track, they generally hadn’t received much training in LCTL pedagogy and had limited means available to pursue professional development, due to the fact that they were often under-supported and under-appreciated (Johnston & Janus, 2003, pp.10,12). Those who did receive pedagogical training reported having taken single courses or occasionally participating in workshops (Johnston & Janus, 2003, p.8).

In general, Johnston and Janus’ (2003) report echoes the realities described in the earlier *Report of the Less Commonly Taught Languages Summit: September 20-21, 1996* (Stenson et. al., 1998). This report on the summit also found LCTL instructors to have had mostly informal teacher training experiences, including TA orientations, mentoring relationships and occasional workshops at teacher conferences (Stenson et. al., 1998, p.18). Additionally, this summit report

found LCTL educators' pursuit of professional development opportunities to be limited; in contrast with Johnston and Janus' report (2003), Stenson et. al. (1998, pp.18-20) found that many summit participants were part-time, non-tenured/non-tenurable, and had a high rate of turnover. Stenson et. al. (1998, p.20) conclude, "Administrative units might be averse to spending a lot of money to train teachers who might not remain teachers for a long period. Thus the cycle of underprepared teachers and high turnover is perpetuated".

The present article grew from a conference presentation at the 12<sup>th</sup> Annual National Council of Less Commonly Taught Languages (NCOLCTL) Conference, held in Madison, Wisconsin in April of 2009. In its conference presentation form, this work responded to the above-described need for LCTL teacher training. As a journal article, this work may continue to assist LCTL educators in their professional development.

### ***3. LCTLs are a special case***

Beyond case studies of LCTL classrooms and teacher training, both Johnston and Janus' report (2003, p.9) and the report on the LCTL Summit (Stenson et. al., 1998, p.19), found LCTL educators to perceive a need for greater opportunities to learn of SLA theories. According to Stenson et. al. (1998, p.19), "Many participants felt that they were not making use of research on how learners acquire language". Since the LCTLs are generally more complex and difficult to learn than the MCTLs and since the LCTLs are "...united by a certain marginality, lack of resources and visibility, and clout" (Johnston and Janus, 2003, p.2), LCTL educators would also benefit from more exposure to SLA research that is specifically applied to the case of LCTLs.

While it is true that many studies to date have investigated the use of enhanced input in language teaching in general, the present work argues that input enhancement is especially important in the case of LCTL pedagogy. The following sections provide explanations as to why this is the case.

## Enhanced Input Strategies are of Special Importance for the LCTLs

### ***1. LCTLs tend to be morphologically complex***

One reason why the use of input enhancement is proposed here as being especially important for the LCTLs is that they more often have complex morphology, consisting of bound, contracted and unstressed morphemes which are by nature not as salient as free morphemes. Therefore, in the case of the LCTLs, for example with agglutinative and polysynthetic morphology, many bound morphemes are less likely to be noticed and ultimately processed by language learners. Through the use of input enhancement, such less salient LCTL language forms may be made more prominent, thereby increasing the chance that they will be noticed and ultimately processed by L2 learners.

### ***2. LCTLs tend to be more difficult to learn***

Another reason why enhanced input strategies are of special importance for the LCTLs is that LCTLs, often with relatively more complex morphology, are generally more difficult to learn than the MCTLs. According to the *ACTFL proficiency guidelines for the less commonly taught languages*, students of the LCTLs require more time than students of the MCTLs to reach a similar proficiency level: "...in less commonly taught languages...students can expect to invest more time in learning the target language than students in commonly taught languages in order to arrive at the Intermediate level" (Stansfield & Harman, 1987, p. 39). Furthermore, "...the School of Language Studies of the Foreign Service Institute estimates that students may require twice as much time to attain S-1 proficiency in Arabic, Chinese and Japanese as to attain the same level of proficiency in Spanish or French" (Stansfield & Harman, 1987, pp. 39-40). According to Walker and McGinnis (1995, p.20):

As part of their management of the instruction of various languages, the Foreign Service Institute and the Defense Language Institute have ranked languages into four levels of difficulty for achieving specified levels of

proficiency by their American students...The vast majority of less commonly taught languages constitutes the higher levels of difficulty in these groupings, whereas the most commonly taught languages are found in the ranks of the least difficult.

As the LCTLs are generally more difficult to learn, it is less likely that L2 learners of these languages will notice and acquire specific target language forms on their own. LCTL educators must take special care to continually enhance the visual and oral input provided to their students in order to facilitate their noticing and acquisition of target language forms.

Also, as students of the LCTLs generally require more time than do their peers studying the MCTLs to obtain a particular proficiency level, LCTL educators cannot afford to forego the boost that input enhancement may provide to students' proficiency, especially while considering that LCTL instructors who are compared by administrators with their MCTL instructor colleagues on the basis of student learning outcomes are at a disadvantage from the beginning.

### ***3. LCTL instructors often create their own materials***

A third reason why it is especially important that teachers of the LCTLs make use of input enhancement is the fact that they often choose to create or must create their own teaching materials and therefore cannot rely on published textbooks and ancillaries that would already contain enhanced input, as can their MCTL educator colleagues. In general, available language teaching materials are scarcer for the intermediate and advanced levels than for basic levels of language instruction (Stenson et. al., 1998, p.22). Even when LCTL teaching materials do exist, they may not be adequate or desirable: "A common complaint amongst LCTL teachers is that LCTL materials tend to be out of date" (Johnston & Janus, 2003, p.6). Furthermore, according to Stenson et. al. (1998, p.22), "...in the African languages field...while most available materials are suitable with respect to teaching basic structures...they do not always reflect recent thinking in language teaching methodology...nor are they adequate in imparting crucial cultural information."

There are a variety of reasons why teaching materials themselves and access to appropriate teaching materials are lacking for the LCTLs. Fewer teaching texts exist for the LCTLs simply because they are less commonly taught. In addition, it is often the case that appropriate teaching texts are not sold within an LCTL educator's country of origin. For example, the author of this work must routinely serve as an intermediary/translator between her university bookstore and a Peruvian bookstore in order to acquire Cuzco Quechua language textbooks for her students. In general, acquiring foreign texts can be time-consuming and quite difficult.

Moreover, would-be authors of LCTL teaching texts often lack the support and motivation necessary to undertake the authorship of such materials as these are generally not valued as highly as other types of scholarly work. In support of this point, according to Stenson et. al. (1998, p.26), "Several participants argued that our lack of materials can be blamed on a lack of strong institutional support for materials development". Without a fundamental change in the way that scholarship is evaluated for language teachers, LCTL educators will have to shoulder the burden of creating their own language materials for years to come.

### **Caveats Regarding the Use of Enhanced Input**

#### ***1. Sequential processing***

As mentioned in the Introduction, numerous studies of input enhancement have been carried out since Sharwood Smith (1991, 1993) proposed his input enhancement hypothesis. Despite some incongruous results due mostly to methodological idiosyncrasies, the review of 21 empirical studies by Han et. al. (2008), described above, presents strong support for the value of input enhancement as well as some caveats. For example, while input may not become intake without noticing, "noticing is not a guarantee for acquisition" (Han et. al., 2008, p.602).

L2 learners may notice but not acquire enhanced input features when they are tasked with the simultaneous processing of meaning and form. According to the cognitive theory of information processing, sequential processing is more effective than simultaneous processing of meaning and form; with sequential processing, learners

may first focus their attention on meaning and then on decoding grammatical features rather than attempting to accomplish both tasks at the same time (Han et. al., 2008, p.604). In other words, "...with the processing of input for meaning happening first, attentional resources could be freed up and reallocated to the processing of form..." (Han et. al., 2008, p.605). Han et. al. (2008, p.612) present the following general insight gained from their review of the relevant research: "Simple enhancement is more likely to induce learner noticing of the target form when sequential to comprehension than when it is concurrent with comprehension".

## ***2. Compound enhancement***

Another caveat regarding the use of enhanced input is that compound enhancement, the use of more than one type of input enhancement at a time, "...is more effective than simple enhancement in inducing noticing, and further processing of, the target form..." (Han et. al., 2008, p.609). This point is also supported by the work of Doughty (1991), Leeman et al. (1995), and Williams (1999). Examples are presented below of possible ways in which to combine input enhancement strategies.

### **Course context for the teaching of Cuzco Quechua**

The examples presented below are drawn from the author's experience teaching Cuzco Quechua language within the context of an interdisciplinary, team-taught Honors Program course at Rowan University, titled "Linguistics and Cultures of Native South America". The author has had the pleasure of teaching this course during the Fall 2005 and Fall 2008 semesters and is currently, at the time of this writing, teaching the course once again during the Fall 2010 semester. The three principal objectives for "Linguistics and Cultures of Native South America" are for students (1) to gain a basic command of the Quechua language, (2) to learn about the cultural diversity of South America's native peoples via the use of anthropological concepts and the exploration of linguistics, sociolinguistics, and archaeology, and (3) to attain the first two objectives through the means of the English, Spanish and Quechua languages. This course affords both the students and the team-teachers a highly-stimulating

intellectual environment. The author is an expert in the Quechua language and Hispanic sociolinguistics while her co-teacher colleague, Dr. Maria Rosado, is a specialist in South American anthropology and archaeology. As specialists in separate but related fields, the author and her co-teacher share in-class time and bring different perspectives to the study of indigenous South Americans. Also, as both the author and her colleague have carried out original fieldwork in South America, the sharing of first-hand research with the students adds to the vibrant nature of this team-taught course.

### Cuzco Quechua Language Examples

#### 1. *Taytanchis kutichipusunki*

Quechua, like Basque, Turkish, Japanese, Finnish, Hungarian, Swahili, Persian, and other American Indian languages, has agglutinating morphology. As such, Quechua, like other LCTLs with complex morphology, is generally more challenging for L2 learners than are the MCTLs, with most of its words containing several bound, unstressed morphemes which, by nature, are not as salient as free morphemes<sup>2</sup>. Therefore, these bound morphemes are less likely to be noticed and ultimately processed by language learners. While teaching basic Cuzco Quechua within the course context described above, the author continuously works to enhance these morphemes in the visual and oral input provided to her students. In this way, the author is able to make less salient morphemes more prominent, thereby increasing the chance that they are noticed and ultimately processed by her students.

In order to illustrate the various input enhancement strategies utilized by the author, a particular expression, “*Taytanchis kutichipusunki*”, is used as an example below. This expression may be used by speakers to express gratitude and literally translates into English as “Our God will make (it) return back to you”. This two-word expression consists of six morphemes as follows: Tayta-nchis kuti-chi-pu-sunki

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<sup>2</sup> In Quechua, word stress usually falls on the penultimate syllable.

1. *Tayta* (“God”, free morpheme)
2. *-nchis* (“our”, bound morpheme, first person plural inclusive possessive)
3. *kuti-* (“return”, bound morpheme, verb stem)
4. *-chi* (“to make do something”, bound morpheme, causative)
5. *-pu* (“back”, bound morpheme, regressive)
6. *-sunki* (“to you”, bound morpheme, pronominal, third person subject to second person object, future tense)

## 2. Simple visual input enhancement examples

With the two-word expression, *Taytanchis kutichipusunki*, in order to draw learners’ attention to the unstressed, bound, causative morpheme, *-chi*, (“to make something happen”/“to make someone do something”), it is possible to employ simple visual input enhancement in a variety of ways in order to enhance learners’ awareness of this particular targeted language form. The following simple typographical visual input enhancement strategies, presented in Table 1, may be used in online resources created for students, handouts provided to students, readings, worksheets, PowerPoint presentations, transparencies, and with document projectors. Some of the following strategies may also be used while writing by hand on the blackboard/whiteboard.

**Table 1. Simple visual enhancement and accompanying Quechua examples**

	Simple visual enhancement strategy	Quechua example, enhancing <i>-chi</i>
1.	<u>Underlining</u>	Taytanchis kuti <u>ch</u> ipusunki
2.	<b>Boldface</b>	Taytanchis kuti <b>ch</b> ipusunki
3.	<i>Italics</i>	Taytanchis kuti <i>ch</i> ipusunki
4.	Highlighting	Taytanchis kuti <i>ch</i> ipusunki
5.	Shading	Taytanchis kuti <i>ch</i> ipusunki
6.	UPPER CASE LETTERS	Taytanchis kutiCHIpusunki
7.	Different font style	Taytanchis kuti <i>ch</i> ipusunki
8.	Different color font	Taytanchis kuti <i>ch</i> ipusunki
9.	Different font size	Taytanchis kuti <i>ch</i> ipusunki

In addition to the strategies presented in Table 1, LCTL instructors may provide additional simple visual input enhancement to their students through the use of written instructions, written explicit rule presentation, written metalinguistic description, or written explicit error correction (Han et. al., 2008, pp.598-9). Similar to typographical visual input enhancement, these methods also serve to draw learners' attention to specific target language forms, promoting their further processing and intake. For example, in the case of drawing Quechua learners' attention to the *-chi* causative morpheme, it would be possible to include written instructions on a handout, stating that students should attend to the use of *-chi* in a reading passage. On a PowerPoint presentation projected for Quechua learners, explicit grammatical rules for using *-chi* or a metalinguistic description of the way in which *-chi* is used may be presented visually. Additionally, simple visual input enhancement may be achieved through explicit written error correction of learners' use or lack of use of the *-chi* morpheme, for example by drawing a circle around a learner's mistaken realization of *-chi*.

### 3. Simple oral input enhancement examples

Also, in order to draw learners' attention to the unstressed, bound, causative morpheme, *-chi*, in the expression, *Taytanchis kutichipusunki*, it is possible to employ a variety of simple oral input enhancement strategies. The following simple oral input enhancement strategies, presented in Table 2, may be used while lecturing students, during class discussion, and in audio or video recordings.

**Table 2. Simple oral enhancement and accompanying Quechua examples**

	Simple oral enhancement strategy	Quechua example, enhancing <i>-chi</i>
1.	Differentiated stress (volume)	<i>-chi</i> (pronounced more loudly)
2.	Differentiated intonation (pitch)	<i>-chi</i> (pronounced with a higher pitch)
3.	Differentiated pace (speed)	<i>-chi</i> (pronounced at a slower pace)
4.	Inserting short pauses	<i>-chi</i> (pronounced following a short pause)
5.	Repetition of morphemes	<i>-chi</i> (repeated)

Other simple oral input enhancement techniques include providing explicit oral instructions, explicit oral rule presentation, oral metalinguistic description, or explicit oral error correction (Han et. al., 2008, pp.598-9). Similar to those enhanced input strategies presented above in Table 2, these additional methods also serve to draw learners' attention to specific target language forms, promoting their acquisition. For example, in order to draw Quechua learners' attention to the *-chi* causative morpheme, it would be possible to orally instruct students to attend to the use of *-chi* in an audio recording. Explicit grammatical rules for using *-chi* or a metalinguistic description of the way in which *-chi* is used may also be presented orally to students during a class lecture. Additionally, simple oral input enhancement may be achieved through explicit oral error correction of learners' use or lack of use of the *-chi* morpheme, for example by orally correcting a student who forgot to include the *-chi* morpheme in his/her spoken sentence.

#### **4. Compound input enhancement examples**

As mentioned above, compound enhancement, the use of more than one type of input enhancement at a time, "...is more effective than simple enhancement in inducing noticing, and further processing of, the target form..." (Han et. al., 2008, p.609). Compound input enhancement may be achieved through the combination of visual input enhancement strategies as in the use of both underlining and boldface in *Taytanchis kuti**chi**pusunki*. Another option is the combination of oral input enhancement strategies as in the use of differentiated stress and differentiated pace (i.e. pronouncing the *-chi* slower and with a higher degree of stress). Finally, simple visual input enhancement and simple oral input enhancement may be combined to form compound input enhancement while writing the morpheme, *-chi*, on the classroom whiteboard with a red marker and simultaneously pronouncing "*-chi*" with a louder volume within the context of the expression, *Taytanchis kuti**chi**pusunki*.

### Survey Results in Support of Using Visual and Oral Enhanced Input

As of this writing, the author has taught basic Cuzco Quechua language for one month to the thirteen, Fall 2010 semester students of her team-taught, interdisciplinary Honors Program course described above, “Linguistics and Cultures of Native South America”. As this course is interdisciplinary, only a portion of class time is devoted to the teaching and learning of Cuzco Quechua; however, despite the limited in-class time allotted to language study, the author has already had an opportunity to use most of the visual and oral input enhancement strategies described above with her students.

After one month of language study, a survey was administered to these students, listing the visual and oral input enhancement strategies presented to them thus far along with examples of these (see Appendix A). All of the input enhancement examples presented to the students on the survey focus on the use of the evidential suffix/validator (*-mi/-n*), which is used in Quechua in order to confirm or take responsibility for what is said, among other uses. This suffix was chosen for these examples as the students had already encountered this morpheme in class and therefore could understand the examples. The visual examples in the survey make use of the expression, *Imaynallan kashanki* (“How are you?”), while the oral examples are focused on the expression, *allinmi* (“well”, as in “I’m doing well”). On the survey, the students were asked to answer “yes” or “no” to the question of whether they found each enhancement strategy to contribute to their learning. Additionally, the students were asked whether, in general, visual or oral enhancement strategies contribute more to their learning.

The survey results are presented in Table 3 below. Each visual and oral input enhancement strategy is listed along with the number of students who responded “yes” to each (Yes Freq), the number of students who responded “no” to each (No Freq), the percentage of the total number of students that is represented by those who responded “yes” (Yes %), the percentage of the total number of students that is represented by those who responded “no” (No %), and the *p* value for Pearson Chi Square tests of each strategy. The *p* values that appear along with an asterisk were statistically significant.

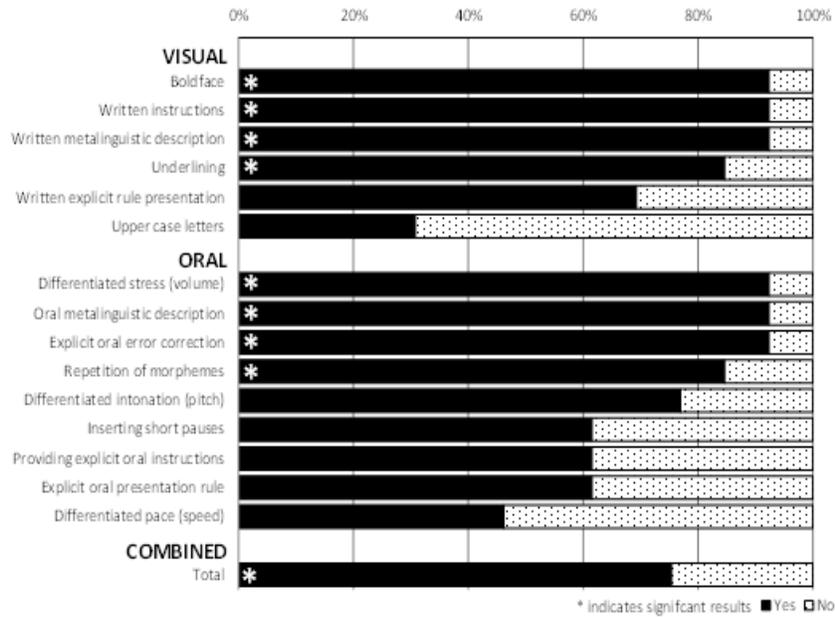
Also, in Table 3, the strategies are listed in both the visual and the oral categories from the most “yes” answers to the fewest answers of “yes”.

**Table 3. Survey Results: “Do these approaches contribute to your learning?”**

Input Enhancement Strategy	Yes Freq	No Freq	Yes %	No %	<i>p</i> value
<b>VISUAL:</b>					
Boldface	12	1	92.31	7.69	0.0023*
Written instructions	12	1	92.31	7.69	0.0023*
Written metalinguistic description	12	1	92.31	7.69	0.0023*
Underlining	11	2	84.62	15.38	0.0126*
Written explicit rule presentation	9	4	69.23	30.77	0.1655
Upper case letters	4	9	30.77	69.23	0.1655
<b>ORAL:</b>					
Differentiated stress (volume)	12	1	92.31	7.69	0.0023*
Oral metalinguistic description	12	1	92.31	7.69	0.0023*
Explicit oral error correction	12	1	92.31	7.69	0.0023*
Repetition of morphemes	11	2	84.62	15.38	0.0126*
Differentiated intonation (pitch)	10	3	76.92	23.08	0.0522
Inserting short pauses	8	5	61.54	38.46	0.4054
Providing explicit oral instructions	8	5	61.54	38.46	0.4054
Explicit oral presentation rule	8	5	61.54	38.46	0.4054
Differentiated pace (speed)	6	7	46.15	53.85	0.7815
<b>Combined Total</b>	<b>147</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>75.38</b>	<b>24.62</b>	<b>0.0006*</b>

Figure 1, below, presents the same results as Table 3 above in the form of a bar graph, which makes for easier visual comparison of the results.

**Figure 1. Survey Results: “Do these approaches contribute to your learning?”**



As is obvious in both Table 3 and Figure 1 above, in general, these students found both the visual and the oral input enhancement strategies listed to contribute to their learning. The combined total, including all visual and oral input enhancement strategies, indicates a positive result that is statistically significant. It was only in the case of using upper case letters (visual strategy) and differentiated pace of pronunciation (oral strategy), that a larger proportion of the class answered “no” rather than “yes”; however, the results for these two strategies were not found to be statistically significant with Pearson’s Chi Square tests.

Finally, in response to the separate question of whether visual or oral input enhancement strategies contribute more to their learning, ten students stated that visual enhancement strategies contributed more to their learning, two stated that the oral strategies contributed more and one student could not decide between the two. A

Pearson Chi Square test performed on this data reveals that the preference for visual strategies among the students is statistically significant ( $p = 0.0209^*$ ).

### **Conclusion**

Throughout this paper, it has been argued that enhanced input strategies, including visual and oral input enhancement, are particularly important in the case of LCTL pedagogy. The main reason put forth as to why this is the case is that the LCTLs are generally more morphologically complex than the MCTLs and often contain many bound, unstressed morphemes which are by nature less salient than free morphemes. In addition, this work encourages LCTL educators to routinely utilize input enhancement since the LCTLs are generally more difficult to learn than the MCTLs and as LCTL educators more often must create their own language teaching materials.

The survey results from the author's Cuzco Quechua language students also provide support for the positive contribution of both visual and oral input enhancement strategies to students' learning. The author would encourage future LCTL researchers to utilize methods that go beyond those of the present work by testing and comparing the impact of the various strategies with different groups of students.

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### Appendix A

Survey Questions: Do these approaches contribute to your learning?  
(Yes/No)

	Simple visual input enhancement strategy	Quechua example, enhancing the validator ( <i>-mi/-n</i> )
1.	<u>Underlining</u>	Imaynall <u>a</u> n kashanki
2.	<b>Boldface</b>	Imaynall <b>a</b> n kashanki
3.	UPPER CASE LETTERS	Imaynalla <b>N</b> kashanki
4.	Written instructions	Seeing the following written: “Fill in the blank with the appropriate form of the validator, <i>-mi/-n</i> .”
5.	Written explicit rule presentation	Seeing the following written: “Use <i>-mi/-n</i> in order to confirm or take responsibility for what is said.”
6.	Written metalinguistic description	Seeing the following written: “Use <i>-mi</i> following a consonant and <i>-n</i> following a vowel.”

	Simple oral input enhancement strategy	Quechua example, enhancing the validator ( <i>-mi/-n</i> )
1.	Differentiated stress (volume)	<i>-mi</i> of <i>allinmi</i> pronounced more loudly
2.	Differentiated intonation (pitch)	<i>-mi</i> of <i>allinmi</i> pronounced with a higher pitch
3.	Differentiated pace (speed)	<i>-mi</i> of <i>allinmi</i> pronounced at a slower pace
4.	Inserting short pauses	<i>-mi</i> of <i>allinmi</i> pronounced following a short pause
5.	Repetition of morphemes	<i>-mi</i> of <i>allinmi</i> repeated

6.	Providing explicit oral instructions	Hearing the following: "Fill in the blank with the appropriate form of the validator, <i>-mi/-n</i> ."
7.	Explicit oral rule presentation	Hearing the following: "Use <i>-mi/-n</i> in order to confirm or take responsibility for what is said."
8.	Oral metalinguistic description	Hearing the following: "Use <i>-mi</i> following a consonant and <i>-n</i> following a vowel."
9.	Explicit oral error correction	Hearing the following: "You are incorrect; the correct answer is <i>allinmi</i> , not <i>allinn</i> ."