

DIMENSION 2015

Laurel Abreu
LeAnn Derby
Vicki Galloway
Carolyn Gascoigne
Christopher J. Jochum

Jean W. LeLoup
Lynne McClendon
Aleidine J. Moeller
Jared R. Rawlings
Joan Rubin

Lauren Scharff
Sheri Spaine Long
Ana Maria Tejada
Daniel Uribe
Fei Yu

EDITOR

Pete Swanson
Georgia State University

Dimension is the annual volume of peer-reviewed articles sponsored by 2015 Joint Conference of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching, the Foreign Language Association of Georgia, and the Southeastern Association of Language Learning Technology.



[sahn·ah·koh] n.

1. the global leader in language labs and language teaching solutions, with a solution to fit every need 2. offering all encompassing products: practice speaking, listening, pronunciation; for use at home, in the classroom, campus wide, on mobile devices 3 .powers **The LanguagePoint** global teachers' community 4. publishes **Tea & Teaching** blog, focusing on how technology enhances teaching and language lessons

.....

Examples

1. Sanako solutions can be found in over 100 countries and 50,000 classroom installations.

2. Close relations with our customers and our pedagogical approach have made Sanako the global leader in teacher-led language labs and next gen virtual language learning environments.

.....

Variations



Sanako Study 1200
Advanced language lab software with classroom management



Sanako Lab 100
A hardware solution for small spaces and mobile needs



Sanako Pronounce
An easy solution for improving oral skills in a foreign language



Sanako Sign Lab
An effective tool for learning sign languages

.....

For More Information: Sanako, Inc. US Office

Sanako Inc.

US Head Office
18662 MacArthur Boulevard
Suite 200
Irvine, CA 92612



Toll Free: 888-611-4785



info-us@sanako.com



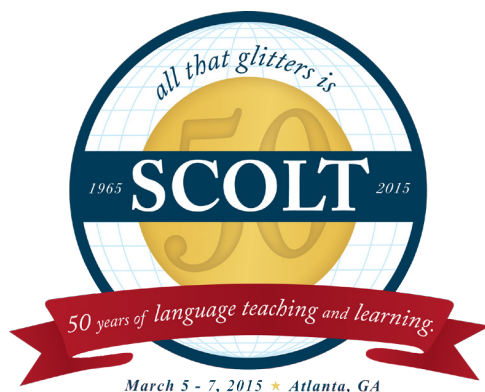
www.sanako-us.com



/SanakoUS



@SanakoUS



DIMENSION 2015

Laurel Abreu
LeAnn Derby
Vicki Galloway
Carolyn Gascoigne
Christopher J. Jochum

Jean W. LeLoup
Lynne McClendon
Aleidine J. Moeller
Jared R. Rawlings
Joan Rubin

Lauren Scharff
Sheri Spaine Long
Ana Maria Tejada
Daniel Uribe
Fei Yu

EDITOR

Pete Swanson
Georgia State University

Dimension is the annual volume of peer-reviewed articles sponsored by 2015 Joint Conference of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching, the Foreign Language Association of Georgia, and the Southeastern Association of Language Learning Technology.

© 2015 Southern Conference on Language Teaching

David Jahner, Executive Director

P.O. Box 33615

Decatur GA 30033

Phone: 678-301-7027

<http://www.scolt.org>

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced,
in any form or by any means, without written permission
from the Executive Director.

ISBN 1-883640-29-6

Table of Contents

Review and Acceptance Procedures	iv
2015 SCOLT Editorial Board	v
Introduction	vi
Congratulations from ACTFL, <i>Martha Abbott</i>	ix
1 Those Were Some of the Hottest Days of My Life: The Genesis of SCOLT	11
<i>Pete Swanson</i>	
2 SCOLT History 1990s–2012	26
<i>Lynne McClendon</i>	
3 Leadership Development and Language Learning: A Foundational Framework	33
<i>Sheri Spaine Long, LeAnn Derby, Lauren Scharff, Jean W. LeLoup, and Daniel Uribe</i>	
4 NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements: An Effective Tool for Improving Language Learning Within and Outside the Classroom Strategies.	50
<i>Aleidine J. Moeller, Fei Yu</i>	
5 Using Goal Setting and Task Analysis to Enhance Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching	70
<i>Joan Rubin</i>	
6 Exploring Homework Completion and Non-Completion in Post-Secondary Language Study.	83
<i>Carolyn Gascoigne</i>	
7 Culture and Sustainability: Lessons from the Oyster and Other Metaphors.	94
<i>Vicki Galloway</i>	
8 Study Abroad as Professional Development: Voices of In-Service Spanish Teachers	121
<i>Christopher J. Jochum, Jared R. Rawlings, and Ana Maria Tejada</i>	
9 Changes in Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching by Foreign Language Teachers in an Applied Linguistics Course	136
<i>Laurel Abreu</i>	
SCOLT Board of Directors	164
2014 SCOLT Sponsors: Individuals	165
2014 SCOLT Patrons: Individuals and Organizations	167

Review and Acceptance Procedures

SCOLT *Dimension*

The procedures through which articles are reviewed and accepted for publication in *Dimension* begin by the authors emailing manuscripts to the editor at SCOLT. Dimension@gmail.com.

The editor then uses a double blind review process to review the manuscripts. That is, the names and academic affiliations of the authors and information identifying schools and colleges cited in articles are removed from the manuscripts prior to review by members of the Editorial Board, all of whom are professionals committed to second language education. Neither the author(s) nor the reviewers know the identity of one another during the review process.

Each manuscript is reviewed by at least two members of the Editorial Board of Reviewers, and one of the following recommendations is made: “accept as is,” “request a second draft with minor revisions,” “request a second draft with major revisions,” or “do not publish.” The editor then requests second drafts of manuscripts that receive favorable ratings on the initial draft. These revised manuscripts are reviewed a second time before a final decision to publish is made.

The editor of *Dimension 2015* invited prospective authors at all levels of language teaching to submit original work for publication consideration without having to commit to presenting a paper at the 2015 annual meeting of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching.

SCOLT Editorial Review Board 2015

Robin Huff (Senior Reviewer)
Georgia State University
Atlanta, GA

Gillian Lord
University of Florida
Gainesville, FL

Rosalie Cheatham
University of Arkansas
Little Rock, AR

Cherice Montgomery
Brigham Young University
Provo, UT

Diana Frantzen
University of Wisconsin
Madison, WI

Oscar Moreno
Georgia State University
Atlanta, GA

Vicki Galloway
Georgia Institute of Technology
Atlanta, GA

Kathryn Murphy-Judy
Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, VA

Susan Hildebrandt
Illinois State University
Normal, IL

John Storm
Ithaca College
Ithaca, NY

Todd F. Hughes
Vanderbilt University
Nashville, TN

Paul D. Toth
Temple University
Philadelphia, PA

Raul Llorente
Georgia State University
Atlanta, GA

Carol Wilkerson
Washington State University Tri-Cities
Richland, WA

Introduction

All that Glitters is SCOLT: 50 Years of Language Teaching and Learning

The Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) held its annual conference March 5-7, 2015, at the Renaissance Concourse Hotel in Atlanta, Georgia, in collaboration with the Southeastern Association of Language Learning Technology (SEALLT), and the Foreign Language Association of Georgia (FLAG) in order to celebrate SCOLT's 50th anniversary. Starting as a proceedings publication, *Dimension* has now become the official peer-reviewed journal of SCOLT and is published once annually in the spring. In this year's volume, there are nine articles that provide readers insight into a variety of research on the teaching and learning of languages and culture.

This year's volume begins with an article in which the founding of SCOLT is described in the words of one of the organization's founders, Dr. Herman Bostick. The research comes from a series of interviews that I began with Dr. Bostick during the 2014 conference in Memphis, Tennessee, and continued for several months over the phone. The happenings are contextualized in the Civil Rights Movement that was taking place in the United States, especially in the South, and how Dr. Bostick and others chose to unite language teachers in the spirit of improving teaching and learning for all. While the article focuses on the conceptualization and creation of SCOLT and the organization's early years, more research is called for because only a fraction of the story can be told in such little space.

In Chapter 2, former Executive Director of SCOLT, Lynne McClendon, continues to narrate the history of SCOLT from the 1990s to 2012 when she retired. In her article she adds insight into the national educational movements and how SCOLT members and the Board of Directors responded to numerous new challenges. It is recommended that readers also retrieve a copy of the first 25 years of SCOLT from the webpage¹, Perspectives and Horizons *Dimension: Languages '89*, in order to get a more thorough understanding of SCOLT's impact on our profession over the past 50 years.

Next, Sheri Spaine Long (UNC Charlotte), LeAnn Derby (United States Air Force Academy), Lauren Scharff (United States Air Force Academy), Jean W. LeLoup (United States Air Force Academy), and Daniel Uribe (United States Air Force Academy) continue their thought-provoking research by providing a foundational framework for leadership development and language learning. In their study, they document and evaluate the presence of leadership development and the teaching of leadership within the language curriculum and its courses at the United States Air Force Academy in Colorado. The authors note that "language educators are positioned to be in the vanguard by reframing the FL curricula with the systematic and intentional intertwining of language, culture, and leadership" (p. 47). While this research was conducted with undergraduate military students, it has implications for programs outside the U.S. armed forces. Readers are urged to refer to the lead article in *Dimension* 2014² to gain additional information regarding the researchers' work in this area.

In Chapter 4, Dr. Aleidine Moeller and Fei Yu (University of Nebraska-Lincoln) explore the theoretical foundation of the NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-do statements

and discuss how the statements can be a useful tool for improving language learning in and out of the formal classroom. The authors note that the Can-Do statements are SMART goals and that they can be personalized in order to “make the learning process more relevant and meaningful to individual learners” (p. 56). Following a discussion of the development of the Can-do statements and the benefits of integrating the statements into instruction, the authors show how the statements can be integrated into instruction by using a first-year Chinese high school language class as an example for building oral communication skills.

In the next chapter, Joan Rubin (Joan Rubin Associates), author of a seminal work entitled, *What the ‘Good Language Learner’ Can Teach Us*, discusses how to enhance task-based language learning and teaching by using goal setting and task analysis. In her article she stresses that instructional focus must be placed on real life tasks and authentic language. She states that “if teachers take the time to help learners understand how to plan their individual approaches to a task, the results can be quite rewarding for both teacher and student” (p. 70) because learners show improvements in multiple areas such as motivation, self-esteem, and self-efficacy.

Next, in Chapter 6, Carolyn Gascoigne (University of Nebraska-Omaha) uses survey research to examine students’ perceptions of homework completion and study habits. Based on the paucity of research on homework, Dr. Gascoigne investigates not only what students are doing, but also what they are not doing in terms of written and online homework at the postsecondary level. While questions such as how much homework should be given, what type, and where it should be graded or not arise, a critical question remains: “who is completing or not completing it, and why?” (p. 83). She debunks the notion that serious students are the ones who complete homework and those disaffected do not by framing her research in self-efficacy theory, which provides new insight into the topic.

In Chapter 7, Vicki Galloway (Georgia Institute of Technology) uses the metaphor of an oyster to help readers grasp the abstract concept of culture in more concrete terms. She argues that the metaphor can “guide us to look back at how we have mapped culture and perceived our culture-teaching mission in order to look ahead to the construction of new cultural metaphors from the intercultural construct of Sustainable Development” (p. 94). In her article, Dr. Galloway discusses the early years of culture pedagogy and how the teaching of culture has been seen as a fifth skill of language learning alongside the teaching of reading, writing, listening, and speaking in the target language.

In Chapter 8, Christopher J. Jochum (University of Nebraska – Kearney), Jared R. Rawlings (Stetson University), and Ana Maria Tejada (University of Nebraska – Kearney) present their findings from a qualitative study focusing on four in-service Spanish teachers who participated in a study abroad program in Costa Rica and how the program contributed to their on-going professional development and language proficiency. In the article, the participants’ voices can be heard as they describe the experience in their own words. Among their findings, they report that the participants expressed a commitment to further develop their language skills outside the classroom and that the “traditional model of in-service professional development for all teachers—the workshop—may fail to address the complex needs of foreign language teachers” (p. 130).

In the final chapter, Laurel Abreu (University of Southern Mississippi) discusses the results of a mixed methods study focusing on the beliefs of 10 graduate students enrolled in an applied linguistics course in a language teacher preparation program. Among the results, Dr. Abreu reports that these pre-service language teachers' perceptions about the complexity of the new language changed after taking the class, indicating that the participants better understood some of the challenges faced by language learners. Additionally, the majority of the participants would "strongly recommend the [applied linguistics] course" (p. 156) to other pre-service teachers.

This year, as editor I worked collaboratively with the Editorial Review Board in a double blind, peer-review process and I would like to extend my gratitude to them for having shared their knowledge, and expertise reviewing the articles for *Dimension* 2015. These individuals are leaders in their field and I greatly appreciate their time and energy. Additionally, I would like to express my gratitude to Dr. Robin Huff (Georgia State University) for serving as Senior Reviewer for this volume and the others for which I have served as editor or co-editor. While many professionals in the field of language teaching have read these articles individually, Dr. Huff carefully proofread the entire volume. Collectively, the SCOLT Board and I sincerely appreciate the reviewers' commitment to *Dimension*.

To that end, this is my final year serving as editor of *Dimension*. During the summer of 2010 it was a surprise and an honor to be asked by Dr. Carol Wilkerson (Washington State University – Tri Cities) to serve as her co-editor for *Dimension* 2011. It was a great experience collaborating with her as well as Drs. Kristin Hoyt (Kennesaw State University) and Robert Terry (University of Richmond) over the past five years. I thank the SCOLT Board and SCOLT members for this opportunity; I have grown professionally, made many new friends, and look forward to my new duties serving as President-elect of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. The new editor, Dr. Paula Garrett-Rucks (Georgia State University), will work with internationally renowned Dr. Alvino Fantini as her co-editor for *Dimension* 2016.

On behalf of the editorial team, I believe that readers will find the articles in this edition informative and inspiring. During the conference, I hope you will make the time to meet Dr. Herman Bostick. He is an amazing member of our profession. Also, please be sure to thank attending authors for contributing their work to *Dimension*, thank the current and former reviewers for assisting their colleagues in the preparation of the articles, and thank the SCOLT Sponsors and Patrons for their ongoing financial support that makes *Dimension* possible.

The Editor
Pete Swanson
Georgia State University

¹ <http://www.scolt.org/index.php/publications/dimension/26-publications/39-scolt-publications>

² http://www.scolt.org/images/PDFs/dimension/Dimension2014_FINAL.pdf



ACTFL is pleased to congratulate SCOLT on the occasion of its 50th anniversary, a milestone that is cause for celebration to mark the accomplishments of a vibrant regional organization dedicated to promoting high quality language teaching and learning. Throughout its vision and mission statements, SCOLT emphasizes the opportunity for all students to learn other languages and experience other cultures as well as the need to move language education into the central part of curriculum in all schools and universities. During SCOLT's 50 years, it has remained true to these core functions as it has promoted high quality professional learning for the members of its region and celebrated their accomplishments through its award programs. Combining these traditions with current innovations and cutting edge technologies has kept the SCOLT conference a vibrant and inviting professional development experience for language educators of all languages and from all levels of instruction.

In this retrospective on SCOLT's history, one collaborative initiative between ACTFL and SCOLT stands out: the 1985 publication *Research Within Reach* which outlined a novel approach to providing research to the language field. A task force was created at the 1981 ACTFL Meeting in Denver that identified priority areas in our field. Each region collaborated with ACTFL on one of the priority areas and SCOLT selected research. However, the task force led by Thomas C. Cooper, with members Howard B. Altman, Kenneth Chastain, Ernest Frechette, Carol Herron, Elizabeth Joiner, Frank Medley, Genelle Morain, and H. Jarold Weatherford, chose to approach the issue of research from an innovative angle by asking classroom teachers about their top concerns and then basing the research questions around those concerns. The initiative was not limited to the SCOLT region but encompassed all of the regional areas of the U.S. The top 10 concerns for the decade of the 1980s were: (1) Testing and Evaluation; (2) Promoting and Maintaining Interest in Foreign Language Study; (3) Language Learning Theory; (4) Oral Proficiency; (5) Program Development; (6) Multi-Level Classes; (7) Instructional Aids: the Computer, Language Lab, and Video-tapes; (8) Teaching Culture; (9) Student as Learner; (10) Grouping Techniques.

The authors of the volume then set out to provide answers to these issues by citing research that connected the classroom concern with the body of research that answered the teachers' questions. This approach of connecting the body of theoretical knowledge to the very practical classroom application is consistent with SCOLT's vision and mission and why, after 50 years, it continues to meet the needs of the language educators in its region.

We may be able to recognize in all of the 10 areas of concerns from the 1980s, some of the same concerns that we face today. But we can be assured that the vitality that has always been endemic to the SCOLT region will continue to find answers, pose solutions, and issue compelling arguments for keeping language education front and center in the schools and universities of the southern region of the U.S.

Congratulations, SCOLT, on 50 great years—and many more to come! *Ad astra per aspera!*

Martha G. Abbott
Executive Director
ACTFL

Those Were Some of the Hottest Days of My Life: The Genesis of SCOLT

Pete Swanson

Georgia State University

We have inherited a large house, a great 'world house' in which we have to live together—black and white, Easterner and Westerner, Gentile and Jew, Catholic and Protestant, Moslem and Hindu - a family unduly separated in ideas, culture and interest, who, because we can never again live apart, must learn somehow to live with each other in peace.

- Dr. M. L. King Jr.

Abstract

The following article recounts the creation and development of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) through the words of one of its founders, Dr. Herman Bostick. The article is not intended to tell the entire history of the founding of the organization, nor the full story of Dr. Bostick's contributions to the civil rights movement in the SCOLT region. Instead, readers will be privy to specific moments and thoughts surrounding a man and a movement that touch Southern language teachers and students to this day. Pieced together from interviews with Dr. Bostick, it shows the world house that he has helped build through SCOLT, language by language, learner by learner.¹

The Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) has an interesting history coinciding with a tumultuous time in US history, the 1960s. Albeit a decade earlier, civil rights and decolonization movements were prevalent worldwide in less well-known places like Canada, Ireland, and Germany (Berg & Geyer, 2002; Forsythe, 1994), the civil rights movement in the United States (US) was pervasive, with particularly brutal events in the South. In 1954, the US Supreme Court overturned unanimously (9–0) the Plessy vs. Ferguson decision of 1896 with the Brown vs. Board of Education decision. Nevertheless, Jim Crow laws were still in place and segregation efforts vigorously continued. People advocating in favor of civil rights were harassed, hurt, and killed. While the nation was becoming polarized on the issue, President John F. Kennedy had proposed civil rights legislation in June of 1963 (Kennedy, 1963). Even with bipartisan support from Northern Congressmen and Senators, Southern Senators blocked the bill by threatening filibusters (Orfield, 1969).

Following Kennedy's assassination, President Johnson vowed to bring Kennedy's vision to fruition and several pieces of landmark legislation were passed, which brought a "sudden and massive break with tradition" (Orfield, 1969, p. 4). First, on July 2, 1964, Congress had passed the Civil Rights Act (1964) that banned discrimination based on color, race, religion, or national origin. However, politicians and others disregarded the law, and segregation continued. A year later, Johnson worked to pass the Voting Rights Act of 1965 that prohibited discrimination in vot-

ing. Again, politicians and states worked actively against the mandate, especially in the South. Finally, in the same year, the Johnson administration was successful in passing the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). This piece of legislation played a leading role in the emergence of SCOLT and Dr. Bostick's ability to be part of its foundation and growth.

While the 1964 Civil Rights Act prohibited federal subsidies to support segregated programs, and the ESEA provided large new federal grants under a formula favoring poor Southern school districts. The South had the stick of the Civil Rights Act but they also had the carrot of ESEA, resulting in a huge boon to poor Southern school districts. The synergy of such legislation prompted a revolutionary change in Southern schools. Enter Herman Bostick.

SCOLT Founder

Herman Bostick was born in Elmore County in Eclectic, Alabama, under a Wolf moon in the 1920s where he lived on a farm about three miles from town. Dr. Bostick recounts,

Eclectic was a very small town, more of a hamlet really. Most of the people who lived in Eclectic proper also had farms out in the county, where most African Americans lived. My elementary education was received at the Union Branch Rosenwald² Elementary School (grades 1-8). There wasn't a high school in the town for Blacks. There was one for Whites. So I went to the Elmore County Training school, which was located in Wetumpka, Alabama. I always liked school. Unfortunately, there was very little encouragement beyond eighth grade in my community. Largely, industry in that part of Alabama was mostly agrarian, cutting timber and sawmilling. Education was not the center of attention for people as it is today. Even so, I always wanted to get an education.

There wasn't a library in my elementary school or in the town of Eclectic open to Blacks. I have always liked to read but beyond my classroom textbooks there was almost nothing. Fortunately, during those years Alabama employed home demonstration agents, mostly females, whose job was to meet with homemakers and instruct them in basic home economics. One agent, Ms. Bledsoe, learned, perhaps from my mother, that I enjoyed reading. Ms. Bledsoe, who lived in Montgomery and had access to the library of Alabama State University, began bringing me books when she would come to our community once a month. She would bring two books each month and would retrieve the two that I had read. Thus, I was able to improve my reading comprehension, vocabulary, and expand my overall learning.

As I stated earlier, there was no high school in Eclectic for Blacks so to continue my education, I had to go to Elmore County Training School in Wetumpka 20 miles from my home. This posed a transportation problem for me as the county did not provide busses for Blacks. For-

tunately, a Black businessman in a nearby town, Tallassee, purchased a used school bus to provide transportation to Elmore County Training School. The cost was 60 cents per student per week. This was a lot of money in the 1930s and my parents were poor. But I managed to complete the 9th and 10th grades at this school. I had excellent teachers at Elmore County Training School. They all were college graduates and some had master's degrees. One teacher in particular had a lasting influence on me. Her name was Mrs. Carr. She was my social studies teacher, a portly woman with a commanding voice. While the county did not provide typewriters for Blacks, Mrs. Carr decided that those students who wanted to learn to type would have that opportunity. She and her husband, who owned a funeral home in Montgomery, purchased 10 portable typewriters. She converted a cloak room into a typing classroom and gave typing lessons during noon recess period.

She trained me also in oratorical speaking. Under her tutelage, I won first place in most state and county oratorical contests. She encouraged us to believe in ourselves— that we could achieve despite segregation. One day she showed the class some photos of her graduation with the master's degree from Atlanta University. As we looked at the photos, she walked among us placing her hand on our heads and saying to each one of us, "Do not stop until you get yours."

At the end of the 10th grade, I did not return to Elmore County Training School. During the summer, I was elected by my church to attend a Sunday School Convention in Lafayette, Alabama. The pastor of my church invited me to stay at his home. All delegates stayed in homes because hotels were closed to Blacks. At the end of the convention, his wife invited me to come and live with them. They lived within walking distance of Chambers County Training School. I accepted her invitation and enrolled in this school and graduated in May, 1945, valedictorian of my class whereupon I received a scholarship from Morehouse College and enrolled there in September 1945. A member of my freshman class was Martin Luther King, Jr.

At Morehouse College (1945-1949), Dr. Bostick decided to major in English. However, his major professor, Dr. Nathaniel P. Tillman, a linguist, insisted that he continue his study of foreign languages so Dr. Bostick decided to double major, English and French with a minor in Spanish. Afterward, he attended and graduated from Atlanta University (1949-1951) with his master's degree in French and also took graduate courses in English. Later that same year, he received a fellowship from the Organization of American States to spend two years in Haiti (1951-53) to conduct research on living Haitian poets. After two years in Haiti, he received a Fulbright scholarship to study in Paris (1953-1955). Afterward, he was offered a job to teach at Grambling State University in Louisiana (1955 -1957). Dr. Bostick remembers, "I was the first language teacher the university had ever had, and I was charged with organizing the first FL program at the university." Such on-the-job training came in handy several years later.

He left Grambling to attend Middlebury College in Vermont (1957-1958) and studied 20th Century French literature while continuing his studies in Spanish. However, some colleagues recommended that he pursue his Ph.D. instead of the Doctor of Modern Languages (DML) because he wanted to work in higher education. The DML curriculum focused on proficiency in three languages and having extensive experience in countries in which the language is dominant. In order to work toward the DML, students had to spend a year at Middlebury, and then a semester in each country of their language specialization. With thoughts of attending graduate school to complete a Ph.D., Dr. Bostick departed Middlebury in 1958 and accepted a position at Fort Valley State College in Fort Valley, Georgia, teaching both French and Spanish courses. Two years later, he was off again.

SCOLT is Born

In the summer of 1964, Dr. Bostick, during a summer workshop at Fort Valley, expressed an idea about fulfilling a need for a regional conference on foreign language pedagogy. Later that same year, in early December, Dr. Bostick and Louis J. Chatagnier (Emory University) called a meeting to gain support for creating a regional foreign language conference. The meeting was held at Chatagnier's home in Atlanta, and the guest list included individuals from Emory (Huguette Chatagnier-Kaiser and Oscar Haac), Atlanta University (Benjamin F. Hudson), and Converse College (Elisabeth G. Epting and Sanford Newell). Within a few hours, it was decided that SCOLT would be created with the principal objective of improving foreign language instruction in the schools and colleges in the South. At the time, Dr. Bostick was working for the Georgia State Department of Education. He said,

It all got started in 1957 when Russia launched Sputnik. Congress passed the National Defense Education Act, a.k.a. NDEA, which mandated that each state take immediate steps to enhance and improve curricula and instruction in science, mathematics, foreign languages, and counseling in public education to be funded by the federal government.

Shortly thereafter, the Georgia State Department of Education began hiring coordinators for these disciplines. By the summer of 1960, White coordinators had been employed in science, mathematics, and counseling. The Georgia Teachers and Education Association, composed of Black educators protested that no Blacks had been employed for any of these positions. The only position that had not been filled was that of foreign languages. So the State Department told the Black educators that if they would recommend a competent individual for this position, that that person would be considered. After consulting with the administration of Fort Valley State College, my name was sent forward.

So, in September of 1960, Dr. Claude Purcell, State Superintendent of Schools, came to Fort Valley and offered me the position of Foreign Language Coordinator. The president of the College granted me an

indefinite leave of absence and I moved to Atlanta. However, in conforming to the laws of segregation, a White man was hired as Foreign Language Coordinator also. It was understood that he was to serve the White teachers and I was to serve the Black teachers. After a few months on the job, the White foreign language coordinator became disenchanted with the department's leadership and several months of litigation followed. He finally resigned. Shortly thereafter, Dr. Purcell called me to his office and said to me that there would be only one foreign language coordinator for Georgia, and he was naming me. He further said that if White educators did not want to accept me because I was a Negro that it was their problem. Some superintendents did resist inviting me into their White schools at first but in time most relented.

One incident remains vivid in my memory. I was invited to conduct a one-day workshop for the foreign language faculty at a college in middle Georgia. Since I was to be there all day, the problem with lunch arose. As I was Black, I could not eat with the faculty. The day before I arrived, the president of the college called a faculty meeting to decide what to do with me at lunch time. After much discussion, the Foreign Language Department chairman offered to take me to his cabin on the nearby lake for lunch. So he and I and his dog had lunch on the veranda of his cabin. The cabin was rustic but comfortable, the food was delicious (supplied by the city restaurant) and the lake was beautiful. There were other incidents of this type but let's focus on what was going on.

At first, I really didn't know what a coordinator did. There hadn't been such a position before. While the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages and the Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages existed, there wasn't a regional organization in the South, but one was seriously needed. So we decided to do something about it. While there were some structural issues to be ironed out, the teachers supported the idea wholeheartedly.

The profession was making the shift from the Grammar-Translation to the Audio-lingual method. There was federal funding to provide language labs in schools, but the teachers didn't know how to use the technology. Teachers were drowning. Superintendents were buying and installing language labs and the teachers had no idea of what to do with them. They had never been in a lab let alone run one. So they were really desperate. It was my prime responsibility to help the teachers learn not only how labs worked, but how to integrate the labs into their instruction. But, it was going to be a challenging endeavor because schools remained mostly segregated and xenophobia was persistent.

For example, Sputnik really shocked the US and there were calls for Russian classes. However, there was a shortage of Russian teachers. I had heard of a young lady who had recently graduated from Radcliff

University, and who was teaching Russian. It took a little time but we finally worked out a deal for her to teach at Booker T. Washington High School in Atlanta. It was the first Russian class in the state.

To step back a little, you have to keep in mind that when someone first reads/hears my name, Herman Bostick, a person of African American descent does not immediately come to mind. My last name is Swedish and my first name is German. So when I was invited to visit schools around the state or attend meetings on behalf of the Department of Education, my race immediately caused a stir.

In one case, I was invited to a weekend inter-American conference at a university in Florida. The conference was attended by representatives from Caribbean and Latin American countries, many of whom were non-Whites. I preregistered by mail and was assigned housing in a campus facility supported by the local church. When it was learned that I was Black, the congregation refused to allow me to stay there. Like I said, these were some of the hottest days of my life, and I'm not talking about the weather.

So, it was decided that night at Chatagnier's house that the first SCOLT conference would be held in Atlanta near the bus station in downtown where teachers who arrived by bus could walk across the street to the conference headquarters. The inaugural Conference was held from February 4-6, 1965 at Atlanta Americana Motor Hotel (160 Spring Street NW). Many of the participants indeed came by bus and walked over to the hotel for the conference.

Dr. Bostick reminisces,

We chose February for the first conference because it was the month that no other language associations were meeting. And February 4-6, 1965, turned out to be a good choice. I remember walking into the hotel the first morning. It was really overwhelming [laughing] to see 1,200 people walking into the hotel. The hotel wasn't very large. We had to make sure everyone could get a room. We had janitors moving chairs from one meeting room to another. Coordinators from other states were impressed to see the turnout and they kept asking us how we got so many teachers there. In a large way, we relied on word of mouth, 'Ma Bell (telephone company), and the US Postal Service to get the word out about the conference.

With the Audio-lingual method in full swing, we had noticed a heavy burden on classroom teachers, especially those in the public schools. Using the other regional FL organizations as models, we advocated for a simple and flexible organizational structure. Instead of creating SCOLT as an association, Chatagnier and I proposed that SCOLT be a conference without a membership fee. Attendees would pay a rather modest registration fee (\$20) to attend the conference.

We speculated that a lot of the FL teachers lived out in rural parts of the South and you have to remember, we didn't have cell phones and the like as we do today. We tried to get the word out about the conference as best we could. We had only two committees (Steering and Advisory) and planning and communication were limited to phone calls and letters. We thought by having them pay only registration, they would be more likely to attend the conference. We wanted to have a conference and not an association. Hence, no membership dues. If teachers heard about the conference at the last minute, having membership dues might keep many from attending. Keep in mind what was happening in the South during that time. We felt it was best not to have memberships. Schools were still segregated to a large extent. We wanted to have an integrated conference. We didn't have any media coverage and we really didn't want any. It was a volatile time in the South. It was thought that people may not want to affiliate with SCOLT for fear of repercussions from school districts if both Black and White teachers were meeting together. I'm very happy to see that this has continued and that SCOLT is thriving.

Dr. Bostick noted that "during this time, most of the teachers, if not all, had been trained via the Grammar-Translation method and the Audio-lingual movement was now in full swing." The audio-lingual method is similar to an earlier method known as the Direct Method. Both advocate that students be taught in the target language exclusively. However, the Audio-lingual method does not place an emphasis on vocabulary. Instead, teachers drill students in the use of grammar, and the use of language labs was found to be helpful. For example, an instructor correctly models a sentence and then students are asked to repeat it. Afterward, new words are presented in context and the students use them in the same structure. There is absolutely zero grammar instruction; students memorize everything. The goal is that students practice the structure and words until they can use them spontaneously.

Dr. Bostick explained that,

[O]nce it was time for the actual conference to take place, I wrote to language lab companies and audio-lingual material companies to fund travel (airfare and hotel) for FL experts to attend and present at the conference. Each company that I wrote for financial support provided needed funds. I invited four master teachers to come and do teaching demonstrations with live students. The teachers were not familiar with the audio-lingual method. So I decided a much better learning situation would be for teachers to see a demonstration with live students instead of standing up and giving a presentation on how to do it. This way the teachers could see the method in action.

Early in January, 1965, I met with Dr. Gail Hutchison, Foreign Language Coordinator for the Atlanta Public Schools, and requested the use of students in French, German, Russian, and Spanish to participate in demonstration classes at the SCOLT conference. Also, I asked her if she could arrange for the master teachers in these languages

to meet these students in classes at their schools the day before the conference. She agreed and made all of the necessary arrangements including transportation for students to the conference. All four master teachers visited with the students and taught a class in the school the day before the conference.

The demonstration classes took place on Saturday morning. Meeting rooms were set up to resemble a regular classroom. Other chairs were placed along the wall for SCOLT attendees in order to observe. At the end of the class the students were dismissed and a question/answer period followed. From the reaction of the teacher attendees and the master teachers, the demonstrations were very effective. Similar classes were held at the second SCOLT conference.

In the first conference proceedings, Dr. Bostick (1989) wrote that the first 10 years of SCOLT marked a time characterized by a “general lack of direction in education; students were given ‘freedom of choice,’ and experiments with ‘open classrooms’ were being conducted” (p. viii). However, what was not noted in the proceedings was that Dr. Bostick and the others were actively breaking the law. Segregation laws were still on the books, yet many language teachers did not seem to care. They needed help and SCOLT was providing it during and after the conference. During the interviews, Dr. Bostick talked about SCOLT’s role in shaping change once the conferences had ended.

SCOLT was organized before ACTFL (The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages). The Northeast Conference and the Central States Conference were already in existence, but ACTFL had not yet been created. I think much of what SCOLT was doing served as the basis for what ACTFL was going to do. At the first SCOLT conference, the [FL] coordinator in Vermont, André Paquette, met with me and Elisabeth Epting to discuss the structure of SCOLT and the differences among the three regional conferences. Interestingly, he became the first ACTFL Executive Secretary and later Director and much of ACTFL’s structure at that time was based on SCOLT. One main difference that remains until today is that ACTFL has memberships and SCOLT does not.

In 1962, Ms. Ruth Keaton of South Carolina was employed to work with me. She was the originator of the newsletter SCOLTALK and THE BEACON, the newsletter of the Foreign Language Association of Georgia (FLAG). Later that year, we decided to launch a televised FLES program. It would be a statewide program in Spanish. We chose an elementary school in Cartersville where the classes would be taught. We named the program *Amistad*, meaning friendship. We hired a bilingual teacher named Señora Yvonne de Wright. Keaton, de Wright, and I would meet on weekends to develop the lessons and assemble the props. Lessons were broadcast statewide at 10am Monday through Friday. In the end the program was moderately successful. Where there was a teacher who knew Spanish in the classroom, it was very successful.

Additionally, I think SCOLT guided teachers and researchers by having a publication. At our first meeting at Chatagnier's house, we decided to publish the conference proceedings (i.e. the papers given at the conference). Huguette Chatagnier-Kaiser advanced *Dimension* as a name. The name was agreed upon unanimously, and the first edition was published following the first conference. Attendees [teachers] received a copy of *Dimension* in the hope that they would use the information in their classrooms. And of course each state foreign language coordinator received a copy.

Dimension has been a part of each conference since. The first five conferences were held in Atlanta because Atlanta was a central location that one could get to easily. Dr. Bostick remarked that "it [Atlanta] was a drawing card." The first three conferences were financed entirely by registration fees and exhibitor fees (Bostick, 1989). At the close of the 1966 conference, Dr. Bostick resigned his position as SCOLT secretary and left for Columbus, Ohio, to pursue his doctorate at The Ohio State University (1966-1971) in French, Spanish, and Foreign Language Education.

Two months later the Steering Committee voted to incorporate and to develop a set of bylaws. In 1967, the bylaws were approved and the conference residency was established at Converse College in Spartanburg, South Carolina, and Elisabeth Epting was elected Executive Secretary. However, in 1967, the conference went almost bankrupt (Bostick, 1989). It is at this point that the conference began to solicit patrons and sponsors.

SCOLT Progresses

As the 1960s came to a close, the activism that helped brand the 1960s continued in the 1970s. The war in Vietnam came to an end, President Nixon resigned, the US celebrated the first Earth Day, and after much debate, construction of the Trans-Alaska Pipeline got underway (Trans-Alaska Pipeline Authorization Act, 1973). Census data showed that the population growth rate of the US had slowed dramatically (United States Census Bureau, 1980). However, enrollments in FLs continued to grow (Draper & Hicks, 2002; Furman, Goldberg, & Lusin, 2007) as did federal participation in educational issues.

While the Jim Crow laws were essentially repealed, housing patterns were creating all-minority inner city schools. Nixon did not reauthorize the ESEA before he resigned, and President Ford made it one of his first priorities (1974) along with signing the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act in 1975. President Carter added the Department of Education to the Cabinet in 1979 and increased federal education spending by 32% (Cross, 2010).

Dr. Bostick remembers that during the 1970s,

[W]ith the exception of the Watergate scandal, life in the US was going well at this time. SCOLT was growing and thriving. Foreign language education was gaining some prominence, and I remember participating in a forum in Washington, D.C. at the US State Department in the late 1970s when I first came to Howard [University].

Along with me were the Chair of the Department of Modern Languages at Howard, the President of ACTFL, the President of the Modern Language Association, several congressmen, and various members of the US State Department of Education. We engaged in a lively discussion about the importance of foreign language instruction and the need for more financial support for language programs. We requested more support for language teaching, and we advocated that FL play a role in the globalization of the US.

From approximately 1975-1989, SCOLT worked diligently in its first 25 years helping to improve language teaching in the South and beyond. The Silver Anniversary edition of *Dimension* entitled, *Perspectives and Horizons: Languages '89* (Fryer & Medley, Jr, 1989), told the story of SCOLT's first 25 years. In the book, Dr. Bostick penned a summary of SCOLT's first 10 years (1964-1974) alongside two articles. Lorraine A. Strasheim's article, *A World without Walls*, which was reprinted for the volume from the 1971 volume. Nelson Brooks' work, *Language Teaching: Concepts, Problems, and Opportunities*, was reprinted from the inaugural 1965 volume. Interestingly, near the end of Brooks' (1965) article, he advanced 25 'don'ts' that are germane to language teaching today such as *Don't attempt to teach all you know*, *Don't ask students to repeat utterances that to them are devoid of meaning*, and *Don't teach too much at once* (p. 28). The second part of the volume contained articles about SCOLT's *Years of Progress*. Here, articles centered on the use of multi-sensory modes in communicative drills (Kalivoda, 1989), the benefits of the small group format (González, 1989), the impact of the first 4-5 years of the Oral Proficiency Interview and the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines (Valdman, 1989).

Dr. Bostick mentioned several times during our conversations that, SCOLT changed to meet the demands of the present and future of the profession. SCOLT was the first regional conference to host a joint conference with ACTFL in 1972 in Atlanta. Andrew Young was the keynote speaker. At this time, SCOLT was making a name for itself. While I wasn't directly involved in the development of the Oral Proficiency Interview or the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines, some SCOLT teachers were. SCOLT was involved locally and nationally. We remained flexible and had the foresight to adjust SCOLT to meet the changes that were occurring in public education in terms of language teaching and learning. We wanted to make sure language teachers knew the role our profession played in globalization, and it was up to us to help teachers achieve this goal. SCOLT is still working on this today and I'm proud of those taking leadership roles.

In the final article in the 25th Anniversary edition of *Dimension*, Robert Terry (University of Richmond), former President of ACTFL (1994) and longtime SCOLT Member and Editor of *Dimension*, was invited to give a speech at the 25th conference in Little Rock, Arkansas. He spoke about the future of SCOLT and posed three pertinent questions about SCOLT's achievement of its objective in the first quarter century of its existence:

1. Has SCOLT in fact carried out its primary objective to advance the learning and teaching of languages at all levels of instruction?
2. Has SCOLT worked to its fullest in fostering close ties not only between ACTFL, the national umbrella organization, but more importantly between us and our constituents on the different state and local levels?
3. What can SCOLT do to strengthen its role, its position, and its impact? (Terry, 1989, p. 141)

Along with Terry, Dr. Bostick remains adamant about SCOLT meeting its goals. He noted that meetings and discussions with ACTFL leaders led to representatives from the five regional FL organizations being welcomed as full voting members of the ACTFL Executive Council on January 31, 1985. Such representation not only increased the ACTFL Executive Council membership from 10 to 15 members but the terms in office also expanded from three to four years. The change came about as a result of ACTFL's appointment of three different Regional Task Force Liaison coordinators who worked with the regional conferences for two purposes (Terry, 1990). First, the task force sought to strengthen its ties with the regional organizations and state affiliates. Such collaboration was new and there was a need to address issues surrounding the profession. Second, five priority areas were identified for special attention in the field of FL education (teacher education, curriculum and materials development, public awareness, FL proficiency, and research). Each regional conference appointed a task force and worked on one of the priority areas. SCOLT chose to tackle Research and did so impressively. Terry (1990) noted that SCOLT "was the only regional conference to carry out its charge" (p. 143) by publishing its work in the two volumes entitled *Research Within Reach* (1985, 1995).

Dr. Bostick stated excitedly,

The two volumes of *Research Within Reach* (1985, 1995) were remarkable. Following a model set forth in other disciplines such as communication (Holdzkorn, Reed, Porter, & Rubin, 1983), school improvement (Meehan, 1982), and secondary school math (Driscoll, 1982), the first volume used a unique approach to reporting research.

Serving as editor, Thomas Cooper (University of Georgia) noted in the Forward that "instead of identifying specific areas and topics, we decided first to discover from practitioners in the field what their most urgent question were about foreign language learning and teaching. We then attempted to provide answers by citing applicable research" (Cooper, 1985, p. viii). A mail survey was conducted with a list of questions and teacher concerns. Then, it was mailed nationally to FL coordinators and consultants, journal editors, and coordinators of the innovative high school programs ACTFL had selected for special recognition in the winter of 1983.

In each article, questions were posed about a specific topic and answers were provided in layman's terms about research on the topic. Articles focused on factors in FL enrollment and attrition, language learner motivation, FL aptitude, brain hemisphere research, treatment of errors in oral language activities, importance and methods of vocabulary development, the role of and methodology for grammar instruction, encouraging oral-aural skills, materials and methods for introductory

reading instruction, cultural awareness, literature instruction, teaching multilevel classes, grouping techniques, pacing and time factors in language learning, language of instruction, comparing and selecting teaching methods, class size, foreign language study and standardized test performance, and foreign languages and careers.

Dr. Bostick noted that the second volume (1995) was edited by Vicki Gallo-way (Georgia Institute of Technology) and Carol Herron (Emory University). He mentioned,

Among its 11 chapters, well-known researchers, who still remain prominent figures today, addressed topics such as learning processes and learner strategies (Joan Rubin), Listening (Eileen Glisan), and Writing (Virginia Scott). I still have copies of it today. The research was well-received, and I think a lot of people read it and used the ideas found there. The editors did an excellent job working with the authors on topics of interest to the profession.

The two *Research Within Reach* volumes³ certainly added to SCOLT's success over the years, and marked serious collaboration between the regional conferences and ACTFL. While Dr. Bostick noted many times during our conversations that so many people were responsible for SCOLT's impact over the past 50 years, he kept talking about the people's devotion to improve language learning and teaching.

We all worked hard from the first moment. We had no money; we just had ideas. We knew what we wanted and what we didn't want. We wanted to bring people together regardless of color and help the teaching and learning of foreign languages. We didn't want to build a segregated group that excluded people. I want to take my hat off to those people, professors, teachers, and corporate sponsors, who supported me in this idea. We couldn't see back then the SCOLT we see today. We were just trying to help foreign language teachers and much of the expense to get things going came out of our own pockets. Colleges didn't support such start-up organizations. It was impressive how foreign language teachers sacrificed to get SCOLT going. When we first created SCOLT, the leadership took its task seriously. SCOLT leaders were dedicated, truly dedicated. I see that this dedicated leadership continues today. You attend a SCOLT conference now you can see the leaders at work. SCOLT has been dubbed as the *friendly conference* by others in the profession. Probably, it's part of this Southern hospitality. I am very thankful to those who served in leadership positions during the past half century. We have had some excellent leaders in terms of talents, vision, and scope. Also, their expertise in finance management certainly helped.

SCOLT is managed well, and I am deeply grateful for such attention to detail. However, there is more for SCOLT to do today and in the future as a greater emphasis is placed on globalization. I think that foreign languages play a vital role. Language organizations like SCOLT have the responsibility to articulate to a wider public how foreign languages contribute to our country's national security.

The current national administration is vigorously promoting the study of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics. I believe that foreign language should be added to this list. Globalization requires verbal communication in international negotiation and face-to-face diplomacy. How much more effective could our negotiators be if they had some competency in the language and culture of the host country? On several occasions President Obama has opined regret for not having studied a foreign language.

To meet the challenge that globalization poses for foreign languages, language departments will have to give serious attention to curricula and instruction in foreign language. Do the current curricula prepare students to perform with high proficiency in a global enterprise? As students progress from secondary school through college will there be adequate courses to allow the students to continue to hone their language skills? SCOLT can play an important role in assisting college foreign language faculties in developing curricula to meet this need by establishing liaisons between it and the foreign language college faculty. A clear plan of curricular and instructional articulation between the secondary school and college language departments is needed if foreign languages are to meet the challenge of globalization.

While there is a lack of consensus about the origins of globalization thought, Streeter (2009) stated that globalization began to accelerate dramatically in the 1960s due to a variety of factors such as advances in communications, the spread of markets, innovations in financial transactions, the invention of new global production systems, and the emergence of a truly global consciousness. In an address to the United Nations General Assembly in 1961 regarding the recent death of U.N. Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjöld and international relations, President Kennedy advanced a new approach to nation building (Kennedy, 1961). He advocated foreign aid to win the hearts and minds of peoples living in traditional societies. He advocated working peacefully with other nations to achieve great things in collaborative fashion. Kennedy noted that careful negotiation would be necessary with allies as well as adversaries, and clearly language is central to the process.

SCOLT, ACTFL, and other language organizations must continue to advocate for a stronger presence in the national curriculum. However, support from individuals is necessary in order to effect change. The world has made great strides in so many areas but more work is needed. Change must begin with the individual and move toward the collective. Regardless of how it is termed (e.g., foreign language, world language, second language), the study of another language and its cultures and a functional level of proficiency in another language need to become required components in the educational curriculum. In its 50 years, SCOLT has made significant contributions to the profession, and members of SCOLT must continue to become proactive agents if change is going to occur.

References

- Cooper, T. C. (Ed). (1985). *Research within reach I: Research-guided responses to the concerns of foreign language teachers*. Athens, GA: Agee Publishers, Inc.
- Berg, M., & Geyer, M. H. (2002). *Two cultures of rights: The quest for inclusion and participation in modern America and Germany*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.
- Brooks, N. (1965). Language teaching: Concepts, problems, and opportunities. In T. B. Fryer & F. W. Medley, Jr (Eds.), *Perspectives and horizons dimension: Languages '89* (pp. 11-30). Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina.
- Civil Rights Act of 1964 § 7, 42 U.S.C. § 2000e et seq (1964).
- Cross, C. T. (2010). *Political education: National policy comes of age*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Draper, J., & Hicks J. (2002). *Foreign language enrollments in public secondary schools: Fall 2000*. American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. ACTFL.
- Driscoll, M. (1982). *Research within reach: Secondary school mathematics. A research-guided response to the concerns of educators*. St. Louis, MO: CEMREL.
- Forsythe, D. P. (1994). *Human Rights in the new Europe: Problems and progress*. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.
- Fryer, T. B., & Medley, Jr, F. W. (1989). *Perspectives and horizons dimension: Languages '89*. Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina.
- Furman, N., Goldberg, D., & Lusin, N. (2007). *Enrollments in languages other than English in United States institutions of higher education, Fall 2006*. New York: Modern Language Association.
- Galloway, V., & Herron, C. (Eds.). (1995). *Research within reach II: Research-guided responses to the concerns of foreign language teachers*. Valdosta, GA: Valdosta State University.
- Holdzkom, D., Reed, L. J., Porter, E. J., & Rubin, D. L. (1983). *Research within reach: Oral and written communication. A research-guided response to the concerns of educators*. St. Louis, MO: CEMREL.
- Kennedy, J. F. (1961). JFK address at U.N. general assembly, 25 September 1961. John F. Kennedy Presidential Library and Museum. Available from, <http://www.jfklibrary.org/Asset-Viewer/DOPIN64xJUGRKgdHJ9NfgQ.aspx>
- Kennedy, J. F. (1963). *Radio and television address on civil rights, 11 June 1963*. John F. Kennedy Presidential Library and Museum. Available from, <http://www.jfklibrary.org/Asset-Viewer/Archives/JFKPOF-045-005.aspx>
- King, M. L., Jr. (1967). *Where do we go from here: Chaos or community?* New York: Harper & Row, Publishers.
- Meehan, M. L. (1982). *Research within reach: Resources for school improvement. Final report*. Charleston, WV: Appalachia Educational Laboratory, Inc.
- Orfield, G. (1969). *The reconstruction of southern education: The schools and the 1964 Civil Rights Act*. New York: Wiley.
- Streeter, S. M. (2009). The US led globalization project in the third world: The struggle for hearts and minds in Guatemala and Vietnam in the 1960s. In S. M. Streeter, J. C. Weaver, and W. D. Coleman (Eds.), *Empires and autonomy: Moments in the History of Globalization* (pp. 196-211). Vancouver, BC: UCB Press.

- Terry, R. (1989). SCOLT: Perspectives for the future 1990+. In T. Bruce Fryer & F. W. Medley, Jr. (Eds), *Perspectives and horizons dimension: Languages '89* (pp. 141-147). Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina.
- Trans-Alaska Pipeline Authorization Act of 1973. (1973). Pub. L. No. 93-153, § 1651, Stat. 576. United States Census Bureau. (1980). Census of the population and housing. Washington, D. C. Government Printing Office. Available from, <http://www.census.gov/prod/www/decennial.html>

Acknowledgement

The author would like to thank Drs. Vicki Galloway and Robert Terry, two long-time SCOLT members and contributors, for previewing and commenting on this article during its development.

Endnotes

¹ I began interviewing Dr. Bostick beginning in March 2014 in Memphis, Tennessee, at the annual SCOLT conference. The interviews continued for several months via phone. This article has been mailed to him and read for accuracy.

² Julius Rosenwald, President of Sears, Roebuck and Company (1908-1922), founded the Rosenwald Fund and created thousands of schools for the education of primarily African American students in the early 20th century.

³ The two volumes can be found in their entirety <www.scolt.org> under the Publication's tab.

SCOLT History 1990s–2012

Lynne McClendon

Former SCOLT Executive Director

The Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) like many other language related organizations flourishes in the context of periodic educational agendas and reforms, in turn, influenced by economic, political and social ideologies of the time, and it is therefore instructive to revisit briefly the educational landscape of the previous two decades. The 1990s saw an educational movement defined by standards and accountability although one of the catalysts that had begun this movement actually took place in 1983 with the publication of *A Nation at Risk*, researched and published by the National Commission on Excellence in Education during the Ronald Reagan presidency. This publication awakened leaders from various fields and educational organizations to the notion that the then current educational *status quo* would be detrimental to the country's future in developing a competent workforce. Not since the 1958 Sputnik-inspired National Defense Education Act (NDEA) had so much attention and action been directed at upgrading American education.

The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics had published *Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics* in 1989. Only three years prior the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) had published the *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines* that focused on *what learners can do with the language they learned* rather than *what they knew about the language* and offered guidelines for measuring student performance. Many other subject disciplines also began developing standards. ACTFL revised this document producing the 1991 *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines—Speaking* followed by the 2001 document, *Preliminary Proficiency Guidelines—Writing*. Also introduced in 1996 and revised in 1999 was the document, *Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the Twenty-First Century*, more commonly known by its 5Cs: *Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities*. Gradually, the ACTFL Standards were accepted by the foreign language educational community, but the actual process of understanding and interpreting the standards and proficiency guidelines in terms of every day classroom instruction would take more time to achieve, and SCOLT believed it had a role to play in disseminating this information.

Many SCOLT members and Boards of Directors were involved with various facets of this exciting work, and it was felt that the SCOLT Conferences should help promote this fundamental shift in foreign language instruction so influenced by the standards and proficiency guidelines. The time had arrived for SCOLT to feature the standards movement and take a reading on the region's involvement and commitment, and, to this end, the 1997 conference theme, *Addressing the Standards for Foreign Language Learning* opened the floor to presenters to share their involvement with the new paradigm in language instruction and learning. The 1998 SCOLT Conference theme *Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities*

provided an opportunity for foreign language professionals to showcase specific techniques and examples of each goal strand's implementation in the classroom. Likewise, the 1999 SCOLT Conference invited presenters to share insights into one of the more difficult concepts of connections through its conference theme: *Connections beyond the Foreign Language Classroom*. Future conference themes would also promote various aspects of the new standards and proficiency movement.

Strong national economic conditions and technology for the masses were also motivating factors during the 90s decade. Lee Bradley, the SCOLT Executive Director during this period, working with Grady Lacy at Valdosta State University, established SCOLT's first website. As was the case with most early websites, it was not interactive and updating information was slow...but it was SCOLT's first foray into cyberspace... one big step and leap of faith for the SCOLT Executive Board. The website continued to improve over successive years and now sports interactive capabilities as well as regularly updated information. The favorable economic conditions also allowed SCOLT to keep the conference rates low so as to encourage as many attendees as possible. One hallmark of SCOLT's founding principles is that the conferences are open to all regardless of whether participants are SCOLT Sponsors or Patrons. The founders wanted to provide a regional gathering for sharing ideas, practices, successes and problems facing the foreign language community so it was essential to make the conferences as affordable as possible. The Executive Board also wanted to have a presence in as many SCOLT states as possible and the 90s witnessed SCOLT joint conferences in Tennessee, Arkansas, Georgia, South Carolina, Alabama, and Virginia.

The 90s decade for SCOLT also opened to an official recognition of outstanding leaders in the SCOLT region. The Founders award was initiated to recognize those who had contributed to SCOLT's beginnings such as Elizabeth Epting, the first SCOLT Secretary-Treasurer; Herman Bostick, SCOLT's founder and long-time contributor; Joanna Breedlove Crane, a past SCOLT Chair and long-time participant. The organization kicked off the first decade of 2000 by recognizing Lee Bradley, who succeeded Herman Bostick in the directorship, with the Founders Award in recognition of his service to SCOLT as Executive Director from 1988 to 1999. Going forward, the Founders Award¹ now recognizes those individuals who over time have given service to SCOLT in various ways. Exemplary K-12 and post-secondary instructors were also recognized with the annual *Outstanding Teaching Award*, now named *Educator of Excellence*² and reserved for post-secondary recognition since another award has been designated for K-12 instructors. The very first recipients of this award were Paula Heusinkveld of Clemson University; Kathy White, former SCOLT Chair (1997 and 1998); and Richard Beaton, former Foreign Language Association of Georgia (FLAG) President and Chair of the Georgia Junior Classical League. It is worth mentioning that all three of the first nominees not only attended many SCOLT conferences frequently making presentations but were well-recognized in their own educational landscapes. Incidentally, Paula Heusinkveld also served as Co-Editor for SCOLT's academic publication, *Dimension*, and was also recognized with the Founders Award in 2004.

The standards movement of the 1990s gradually gave way to the 2001 reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) better known as No Child Left Behind (NCLB). Prior to this legislation, the federal government

required that states receiving federal aid must have academic standards and testing at certain grades. The 2001 reauthorization expanded the grades to be tested and strengthened the accountability via test results as a condition to receiving Title I funding; of course, there were many other provisions of NCLB and successive reauthorizations added or modified the original legislation. One of the provisions of NCLB looked at *highly qualified* teachers and set forth guidelines for making this determination most visibly through high stakes teacher-testing at the P-12 levels. The 2004 Conference Theme, *Assessment Practices in Foreign Language Education*, also included presentations on teacher testing and in particular the unequal test structure and materials from different languages as exemplified in the Praxis language exams. Also, discussions and networking were fostered at SCOLT conferences to help post-secondary instructors become familiar with the revised process and standards for program accreditation via the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE).

Concurrent with the standards movement during the 80s and 90s and into the beginnings of the next decade was the debate referred to as Official English or English Only and its later counterpart English Plus. The roots of the language controversy had begun in the previous decades when the Cubans entered the United States as a result of Castro's revolution and eventual dictatorship. In later years, this event was coupled with the resettlement of huge Asian populations resulting from the Vietnam War as well as an increase in migrant and illegal immigrants from Mexico and Central America. Many states began offering bilingual programs to assist these non-English speaking students in U.S. schools. In fact, the federal government created the Bilingual Education Act in 1968. The language debate affected not only the language of instruction in public schools but also the language of communication in governmental services and reached a tipping point in California in 1998 with passage of Proposition 227 which established English as the language of communication and instruction and thereby dismantling the California bilingual programs. The Clinton administration opposed legislation to make English the official language of the United States, and states were left to decide the issue, some of which followed California's example. This administration supported bilingual education and also required federal agencies to ensure people could receive communication and services in foreign languages. Although the following administration of George W. Bush espoused the English Plus ideology, in 2002 the Bilingual Education Act which had existed for 34 years morphed into the English Language Acquisition Act mandating education for English Language Learners (ELLs) under Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Act/NCLB legislation which favored English immersion programs over bilingual programs. These events rekindled research into language learning and helped to fuel the impetus for the standards and proficiency approach pursued by foreign language educators. The uncertainty of effects from the English Only movement for foreign language education gradually gave way to a more positive role for foreign language education in U.S. schools. Dual language immersion programs (usually at the elementary level) also took root allowing English-speaking students and non-English speaking students to access learning through instruction in two languages (one, of course, being English). The 2003 SCOLT Conference theme, *Models of Excellence in Second Language Education*, featured various types of successful language programs including dual language immersion.

Other SCOLT Conferences during this time period focused on the above mentioned trends in education and the far-reaching impact of languages and language instruction. For example, the 2005 conference theme, *Many Languages, Many Learners, One World* provided presenters and attendees both an opportunity to examine the impact of changes happening in education. Similarly, in 2008, an effort to provide discussion on advocacy and the impact of the Official English and English Plus movements, the Board of Directors provided the theme, *Languages for the Nation*. One final example is the provocative theme from the 2006 conference, *Languages for Today's World*, a topic which could be seen as relevant through today.

During the first decade of 2000s, SCOLT was actively involved with promoting standards and proficiency based practices as well as developing the role of advocacy for foreign language education and to this end, created the position on the SCOLT Executive Board of Advocacy Director. In order to help move the advocacy agenda forward more effectively, from 2003 through 2006, SCOLT sponsored a summer Foreign Language Advocacy Camp inviting representatives from member state organizations (with financial assistance from SCOLT) to meet in Atlanta to discuss not only advocacy steps but also state organization successes and areas of concern. Many of the states created an Advocacy Director on their Boards or assigned a Board member to be responsible for advocacy and took measures to ensure that state conferences hosted sessions on advocacy. The years following 2006, SCOLT incorporated this advocacy gathering into a pre-conference luncheon and work session and expanded the topics, an event which still occurs at the annual SCOLT conference to this day.

Because of the success with the Advocacy Camps, SCOLT was invited by the Center for Applied Second Language Studies (CASLS), a Language Resource Center funded by the U.S. Department of Education based at the University of Oregon, to participate in an extension of the Western Initiative for Language Leadership (WILL)-the new initiative called the Southern Initiative for Language Leadership (SILL). Lynn Fulton-Archer was the SCOLT Advocacy Director at that time and worked with Greg Hopper-Moore, the WILL Project Leader, to select and prepare the first group of SILL participants, K-12 foreign language instructors from the SCOLT region. The first SILL gathering happened in 2008 at the Simpsonwood Lodge and Conference Center in Norcross, Georgia. The week-long sessions introduced the participants to various language topics and programs and by the end of the week, each participant had formulated a project which they would implement in their respective schools throughout the school year and report the results at the next gathering in 2009. In order to facilitate the work of the participants and access help and communicate with other SILL participants during the school year, CASLS provided a special SILL-NET site. Of the original 20 candidates selected for the first session, 14 participants returned the following year. One of the participants, unable to attend in person due to the imminent birth of her child, joined the group by her computer accessorized with Skype and sent her project to the camp location by Fed Ex. She became known as *Beth in a Box*, but she was clearly thinking outside the box in being able to view the proceedings as well as ask questions via Skype. Another was unable to rejoin the group due to deployment in Iraq. All the participants presented their projects and agreed that the initiative had been successful in helping them to assume leadership roles more effectively, to improve their own classroom management styles, and to hone their

instructional skills. SCOLT encouraged the participants to attend ACTFL conferences and to submit a session proposal outlining their project and what they had learned. Some of the participants also presented their projects at SCOLT Conferences.

Another outgrowth of the advocacy work was the development of the Careers Project initiated by Carol Wilkerson, SCOLT President in 2005. She developed an electronic *careers* format similar to the board game of the same name on the SCOLT website in which the viewer could click on certain squares to learn more information regarding foreign language related careers. Updates were provided by various Executive Board members and of course, by Carol. The project enjoyed five years of success but keeping the on-line information updated and relevant proved too daunting a task at the time.

Another great accomplishment of the early 2000s was indexing *Dimension* from 1980 through 2009...a process which took a great deal of time and dedication. The SCOLT Executive Board was fortunate to have the services of Maurice Cherry, the 2002 SCOLT President and Co-Editor of *Dimension*, who was able to obtain assistance through the Furman Advantage Research Fellow Internship Program in the person of Justine Sittema Liébana and the Furman Modern Languages and Literatures department as well as some funding from SCOLT. This momentous task provided an index by author, table of contents for each yearly edition as well as identifying key words for all the articles that appeared in *Dimension* issues as specified. This valuable asset can be found at the SCOLT website in the 2010 edition of *Dimension*.

Since NCLB especially emphasized assessment, language organizations were viewing how best to evaluate progress made by language learners, especially in view of the fact that federal and state funding would be allocated for assessment in disciplines other than foreign languages. The *New Visions in Action* initiative, co-chaired by Mimi Met and Ann Tollefson, former ACTFL presidents, and jointly sponsored by the National K-12 Foreign Language Resource Center (NFLRC) at Iowa State University and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), sought to set strategic directions and priorities for the profession at the onset of the 21st century. Another event sponsored by the NFLRC in 2006 was the *National Assessment Summit*, which invited various language organizations to send representatives. The *National Assessment Summit* was designed to bring together users and producers of assessments and discover where assessment needs existed as well as learn which assessments practices proved successful. Sue Barry, as SCOLT President, attended and was so impressed by the ongoing work throughout the language community regarding assessment that she encouraged SCOLT to address assessment practices in foreign language education. SCOLT issued a challenge in the form of a competitive grant to K-12 school districts that would commit to having its entire foreign language staff develop and use performance-based assessments (PBAs). The Richmond County School District in Augusta, Georgia was chosen from among the applicants. The SCOLT Executive Board had selected Greg Duncan, a leader in the profession for years, SCOLT Sponsor and educational consultant, as the project facilitator for the staff training which took place during the summer of 2007. Once the training was underway, the teachers really got on board and developed some initial PBAs to be field tested during the upcoming first semester of school with the

understanding that they would revise and create additional PBAs as they grew more accustomed to implementing this resource and could acclimate the students to expectations. Follow up sessions directed by Greg were provided in February and May of 2008. The Richmond County foreign language teachers felt that this approach had been very effective with students and had improved how students related to foreign language learning, resulting in more competent language users. As a result of their success, the Georgia Department of Education invited the teachers to contribute to the foreign language assessment bank being created at the foreign language resource website. A team of teachers were invited to present the project at the 2009 SCOLT Conference held jointly with the Foreign Language Association of Georgia.

It was also during the first decade of the 2000s that SCOLT actively pursued organizations offering teacher scholarships for summer study. In addition to those scholarships provided by Cemanahuac Educational Community, the Embassy of Spain, and the French Cultural Services of the French Embassy, SCOLT secured scholarships from the University of Québec at Chicoutimi, Estudio Sampere, Centro MundoLengua, and the Academia Latinoamericana. Recipients shared their experiences at the SCOLT conference following their summer program. The scholarship recipients all agreed that time in a location of the target language was invaluable in helping them to be more confident in target language instruction and, of course, in embedding cultural insights in instruction from a honed perspective.

SCOLT continued to recognize outstanding language educators and added a new recognition for K-12 teachers in 2005. This new award, Language Teacher of the Year, was co-sponsored by ACTFL and had come about through the efforts of Duarte Silva, the Chair of the *Task Force for Teacher Recruitment and Retention* as a part of the *New Visions in Action Initiative*. Each regional language organization was invited to send their vetted nominee to the annual ACTFL conference where one recipient would be selected by an ACTFL committee to be the official ACTFL spokesperson for the profession. SCOLT's own Ken Stewart, a SCOLT Executive Board member and SCOLT's first candidate for this award was selected by ACTFL as the first recipient of this new national award. Another of SCOLT's candidates, Clarissa Adams-Fletcher, secured the national title for the second time in 2011. Ken Stewart, Tracy Veler Knick, Juan Carlos Morales, Carmen Scoggins, Linda Zins-Adams, Clarissa Adams-Fletcher, Lisa Podbilski, Thomas Soth, Robert Patrick, and Pamela Reynolds, all SCOLT Language Teachers of the Year, have remained active language professionals. Many of them have taken leadership roles in SCOLT and other language organizations and all have become articulate in their advocacy for foreign language education.

The latter part of the first decade of the 2000s brought an economic downturn which caused SCOLT as well as many other organizations to become more fiscally conservative. It was decided that the print edition of *Dimension* would be published every other year with the intervening years being published at the SCOLT Website thus saving printing and distribution costs. Reluctantly, the conference fees had to be raised somewhat to help cover the overall costs. The SCOLT Executive Board also began holding electronic meetings to conserve its budget. Some of the previous outreach programs with our member states were also revamped to reduce costs. P-16 foreign language programs also felt the economic punch with some programs

being eliminated or severely cut back. One concrete example was the case at the State University of New York at Albany's stunning pronouncement of the elimination of their entire language department at the end of 2010. Of course, P-12 language programs were affected by NCLB with its emphasis on math and reading scores. Throughout this difficult period, language professionals continued the course of improving instruction and remaining professionally committed while offering support to colleagues and institutions affected by the economic tides. Fortunately, the economic forecast has improved in recent years (now 2014 at the time of this writing) and P-16 foreign language programs have survived while noting some casualties.

In more recent times, NCLB had morphed into the 2009 *Race to the Top* (R2T) with its funding windfall and even more recently into the Common Core Standards. President Obama's R2T provided competitive grants to State Education Departments to develop and implement educational reform which could serve as models. Four key elements and reform areas the grants had to address were: developing, retaining, and rewarding effective principals and teachers; building data systems that measure student success and inform teachers and principals regarding improving student performance; turning around the lowest-performing schools, and adopting meaningful standards and assessments that prepare students for success in college as well as the workplace. It is this last provision that has given way to the Common Core Standards, developed by the National Governors Association and the Council of Chief State School Officers with funds from the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, the Charles Stewart Mott Foundation and others. Presently, some states which had originally signed on to adopting the Common Core Standards have had a change of heart and much contested debate has arisen over these standards. ACTFL has addressed this new thread with its on-line publication entitled, *Alignment of the National Standards for Learning Languages with the Common Core Standards*.

It is unclear what the future holds for this latest general educational reform effort. What is clear is that foreign language organizations such as SCOLT working with its many member state organizations, other regional and national language organizations as well as ACTFL will continue to support language research, share researched-based effective practices, recognize the good works of many language professionals, and provide opportunities for exchange of ideas to better serve the foreign language community for the good of all language learners and practitioners.

I retired as SCOLT Executive Director in 2012, passing the baton to David Jahner, who along with the Executive Board in two short years, has safely guided the organization through the worst economic times in recent history while reinvigorating SCOLT's mission and goals. I look forward to seeing this organization, begun 50 years ago by Herman Bostick and a handful of other dedicated language professionals, continuing down the path of success for many years to come.

¹ A list of recipients can be found at: <http://scolt.org/index.php/awards/founders-award>

² A list of recipients can be found at: <http://scolt.org/index.php/awards/educator-of-excellence/previous-educator-of-excellence-awardees>

Leadership Development and Language Learning: A Foundational Framework

Sheri Spaine Long

The University of North Carolina at Charlotte

LeAnn Derby

United States Air Force Academy

Lauren Scharff

United States Air Force Academy

Jean W. LeLoup

United States Air Force Academy

Daniel Uribe

United States Air Force Academy

Abstract

The ACTFL 21st Century Skills Map (2011) proposes incorporating “leadership and responsibility” into language learning (LL). This study offers a foundational framework for combined LL and leadership development (LD) and contains a snapshot of the presence of LD in the language curriculum and observations and attitudes regarding LD in LL courses (using feedback forms and focus groups) at the United States Air Force Academy (USAFA) in 2012. Results suggest a two dimension structure to inform LL (a) generic vs. discipline-specific LD, and (b) implicit vs. explicit incorporation of LD. Lower frequency of explicit, discipline-specific types of LD led to a department-wide exploration of LD and LL integration. These results can inform all levels of language instruction across myriad educational settings that seek to incorporate leadership.

Background

From Des Moines to New Delhi, there is an intentional focus on leadership development (LD) to prepare future generations. The mantra for leadership alongside knowledge of multiple languages and cultures is present in popular culture as well as in employment sectors such as business, education, government, health and human services, and legal and military institutions (Air Force Culture, 2012; American Academy, 2013; ACTFL 21st Century Skills Map P-21, 2011; Committee for Economic Development, 2006; Western, 2011). Profiles of effective future leaders typically include skills and traits such as knowledge of multiple languages and cultures, adaptability, flexibility, ability to listen and communicate clearly, ability to work collaboratively, and open mindedness (Yeatman & Berdan, 2007). Frequently language educators in general, including those at the United States Air Force Academy (USAFA), are charged with transforming a new generation of students into global

citizens and leaders. In response to the societal mandate, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) introduced another broad objective for language instructors across all languages and levels in the ACTFL 21st Century Skills Map (2011). The skills map identifies *leadership and responsibility* as a component of language education, and it has left some language instructors experimenting with ways to incorporate this new objective into the language curriculum in a tangible and meaningful way. To move beyond anecdotal and often random efforts, in fall 2012 the language faculty of USAFA's Department of Foreign Languages (DFF) embarked on the task to assess the integration of languages and leadership focused on the central mission of USAFA—to develop leaders of character.

Recent trends in the research and practice of LL undergird this study. These include ACTFL's (2011) directive to embed leadership and responsibility into language education, the Modern Language Association's appeal to broaden the traditional language and literature curriculum toward interdisciplinarity (2007), efforts in Languages for Specific Purposes instruction to focus on transferable workplace skills (Crouse, 2013; Long, 2013), the Content-based Instruction movement to expand beyond the meta-focus on language learning (CARLA, 2012; Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010; Stryker & Leaver, 1997), and the work to situate global citizenship within the domain of language education (Wurr & Hellebrandt, 2007). These trends helped connect pedagogy with the mission of USAFA's DFF to prepare leaders with a global perspective by providing instruction and fostering learning in foreign languages and cultures (Department of Foreign Languages, 2011).

Therefore, the goals of the present study were to document and evaluate the presence of LD and the teaching of leadership within the language curriculum and its courses. The assessment of the state of LD in LL was used to inform future directions in leadership integration in the DFF that currently instructs in eight languages (Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish) at beginning through advanced levels. Subsequent efforts in leadership integration following from the present study are briefly described later in this paper. A final goal of this study was to inform other military and civilian language programs that have LD as a core value or component. Since this study, ACTFL (2014) launched its advocacy campaign branded *Lead with Languages* in a video that emphasizes the connection between leadership and languages. This campaign is an added indication that LL and leadership education will be converging in mainstream language curricula in the near future.

Leadership is defined in theory and practice in a wide variety of ways. For purposes of this study the researchers assumed a relatively broad definition of leadership to increase the generalizability of the findings and not limit them to military educational settings. However, two widely studied aspects of leadership were emphasized due to their applicability to the study of leadership across cultures. First, a trait-centered definition was considered useful when contrasting leaders and leadership across foreign cultures. Second, an emphasis was placed on a more process-based definition of LD in which leadership is described by the pattern of interactions between a leader and a follower or followers (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Kotter, 1990; Maxwell, 1998; Northouse, 2013).

Just as there are a variety of definitions of leadership, students learn about leadership in diverse contexts. For instance, in mainstream U.S. undergraduate educa-

tion LD is often taught separately from academic content as an extracurricular activity or training. However, the field of leadership studies can also be centered on the academic content and, in such cases, is typically found as a separate course, minor or major. At USAFA, LD permeates daily life in military exercises, athletic activities, and extracurricular activities. For example, the military mission element coordinates daylong leadership training events explicitly designed for each class year. Within the academic realm, LD is a mix of a core course requirement and idiosyncratic inclusion within other individual courses. The academic core course is *Foundations for Leadership Development*, taught in the Behavioral Sciences and Leadership Department for third-year students. Other courses containing LD include intentional course design efforts as well as informal exchanges where leadership connections are made with the subject matter. An example of an intentional course design effort is Professor Bradley Warner's integration of LD and instruction in the field of mathematics (Warner, 2011). Part of the rationale of having many officers with Master's degrees instructing at USAFA is so that they can bring their real operational experiences into the classroom. These include their leadership experiences in the field. However, although there have been increasing efforts to coordinate all these LD efforts across USAFA, they largely remain unconnected and independent, especially within the academic realm. Thus, efforts to integrate LD into traditional academic content areas have occurred slowly both inside USAFA and beyond.

More specific to the focus of this paper, evidence of curricular design and classroom activities that explicitly relate the field of foreign languages (FL) and leadership has been limited until recently. However, there is now a small collection of published efforts. For example, former high school Spanish teacher Cristin Bleess created the first documented course titled "Spanish for Leadership" in 2012 (Crouse, 2013). Under the umbrella of Languages for Specific Purposes, LD has made inroads into Spanish for Business courses at many institutions (Doyle & Fryer, 2013). Harvard Business School's Joseph Badaracco (2006) developed an approach to teaching character and leadership through selections of foreign literature in translation to MBA students. And, there has been an ongoing series of efforts to examine the interaction between leadership and language development at USAFA. In addition to the study described in this paper, during spring 2013 a faculty learning community (FLC) in the DFF (USAFA) detailed the processes, discussions and reflections of the group as well as formulating a working definition of leadership and practical strategies for its incorporation in the language curriculum (Long, LeLoup, Derby, & Reyes, 2014). A related study documents a general overview of LD and language education at the introductory, intermediate, and advanced levels of Spanish instruction at USAFA (Uribe, LeLoup, Long & Doyle, 2014). Long (Long & Rasmussen, 2014) describes efforts she has made in taking the lessons learned at USAFA into Spanish literature courses at UNC Charlotte. Despite the variety of recent initiatives outlined above, there has been no clear set of guidelines developed about how to provide the integrated development of languages and leadership.

This study attempts to provide some foundational questions, definitions, and directions that language instructors might consider if they desire to integrate LD and LL. In military LL settings, integration of language training and LD has assumed that the language learner brings one's leadership background to the language educa-

tional experience (Western, 2013). While this assumption might work in some cases beyond military settings (e.g. for upper-level students who are working on a degree concentration in leadership or who bring with them external leadership experiences), it may not be useful across a broader range of language courses, especially lower-level courses where students might be less likely to have leadership experiences. Thus, this study focuses on two dimensions along which leadership might be incorporated within a broad range of language courses. The first dimension describes how discipline-specific the LD efforts might be. If the efforts are generic, they could be used across a wide variety of disciplines (e.g. the incorporation of oral presentations in order to develop public speaking skills). If they are discipline-specific, they are not broadly applicable (e.g. a review of the Japanese language and culture for examples of different types of leadership approaches used within Japan). The second dimension describes the explicitness with which the LD efforts are communicated to students. If an implicit approach is used, there is no explicit connection being communicated (e.g. an instructor might role model how to form and monitor teams within her class). Implicit development might also underlie a classroom activity whose primary goal is cultural/linguistic (i.e., role play an air attaché¹ in a foreign country), but the link between the activity and leadership is not explicitly acknowledged or discussed. In contrast, explicit approaches directly point out to students (or have students self-discover and share or write about) connections between activities and students' personal development of leadership skills (e.g. the instructor clearly states that one of the goals of the oral presentation assignment is to help students develop public-speaking skills that will serve them well as leaders).

These dimensions, summarized below, provide a useful framework for the design of courses in which LD and LL are integrated.

- 1a. Generic: Approaches or strategies for LD that may occur in any discipline (i.e., team/group work, presentational assignments).
- 1b. Discipline-Specific: Approaches or strategies for LD that are particular to the field due to FL's unique access to insider cultural perspectives (i.e., learning about cultural differences through scenarios, learning about foreign leaders and how they may appear different across cultures).
- 2a. Explicit: Approaches or strategies for LD that are directly stated to students (i.e., an explanation of Air Force officer responsibilities; pointing out how leaders can make wiser decisions if they have a better understanding of the local culture in which they are operating).
- 2b. Implicit: Approaches or strategies for LD are indirect (i.e., role modeling, mentoring) and the link between the activity and leadership is not explicitly acknowledged or discussed.

Through these dimensions, the study provides an original initial framework for practical implementation and a foundation on which to elaborate theory that addresses LD in LL.

The Study

The present study offers a snapshot of the integration of language teaching/learning and LD in the DFF at USAFA using the dimensions of explicitness and discipline specificity as well as examining both faculty and student perceptions. A triangulation strategy solicited data from (1) a syllabus review across all languages and levels, (2) an anonymous, voluntary feedback form made accessible to all DFF faculty and students enrolled in languages, and (3) input from DFF faculty and student focus groups. The feedback form collected responses regarding the current perception of LD and opinions about whether or not it should be incorporated into language classes. These collective responses were subsequently used to develop and fine-tune the focus group questions.

The objectives of the research study were as follows:

1. To determine the presence and extent of generic and discipline-specific LD in FL education at USAFA.
2. To determine the presence and extent of implicit and/or explicit LD in FL education at USAFA.
3. To consider future directions for more explicit and systematic intertwining of leadership and language development within the DFF.

This study was conducted using the following assumptions: (1) the teaching/learning of languages and cultures are inseparable, and (2) 90% plus of instruction in the FL classroom should be done in the target language as advocated by ACTFL (2010). For the purposes of the study, LD embedded in language teaching/learning was categorized using the dimensions of explicitness and discipline specificity as described above. This two-dimensional structure informs LL through the incorporation of LD alongside more traditional elements in the language curriculum. This research also served to reinforce a common belief held by many language educators: knowing multiple languages and cultures helps produce good leaders.

Methods

Syllabus Review

Syllabi Included. Thirty-four syllabi were reviewed, which included all languages and levels with the exception of independent study courses for fall semester 2012. The purpose of the analysis was to create a snapshot of the visibility of LD within current syllabi as it related to the teaching/learning of languages in the department.

Procedure. Electronic versions of every departmental syllabus for all fall semester language courses (Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian and Spanish) were gathered. Two of the researchers independently reviewed each syllabus and noted examples of leadership or leadership-related activities, placing each example into a discipline-specific vs. generic dimension. Discipline-specific examples were particular to LL due to the access to internal cultural perspectives that only knowledge of the language can provide, (e.g. readings related to leadership in the target language and culture). Generic examples could occur in any educational setting or academic discipline and pertained to behaviors and/or activities

that might develop skills that would be useful for leaders, (e.g. teamwork and oral presentations).

Feedback Forms

Materials. Both the faculty and student feedback forms collected descriptive information on the specific course language and level the respondent taught or was taking, and faculty were also asked how long they had been teaching with only three available options from a dropdown menu (< 4 semesters, 4-8 semesters and > 8 semesters). Faculty members were likewise asked if they were civilian, military or prior military. In addition, students reported on participation in a variety of international programs.

Both faculty and students were asked two questions, each followed by space to explain the response and give examples. The first question was similar for the two groups, except for the faculty vs. student perspective. Faculty were asked, *Do you incorporate leadership in your classroom?* while students were asked, *Does your instructor incorporate leadership in class?* The second question for both groups was, *Should leadership development be more explicitly and systematically integrated in foreign language teaching at USAFA?*

Participants. Twenty-five faculty members (representing 58% of the total FL faculty) responded to the voluntary feedback forms, with three faculty members responding a second time for a second course, resulting in a total of 28 responses. Respondents represented all eight languages, although there were fewer than six respondents in every language with the exception of Spanish, which had 11 respondents. Faculty participants represented every course level, with 15 out of the 25 having taught more than 8 semesters. They were also equally divided between civilian and military (or prior military).

Three hundred and twenty students (representing 32% of the students enrolled in the courses eligible to participate in the feedback at that time) responded to the feedback forms. Although the responses from Spanish students outnumbered the other languages, there was student representation of between 12 to 37 students for all other languages in the department with the exception of Chinese. Of the students who responded to the feedback forms, 61% were enrolled in a 200-level foreign language course, and 39% were enrolled in a language course at the 300-400 level. The 100-level students were not asked to participate because they had only been in class for three weeks. According to one of the questions on the feedback form, only 13% of the student respondents had previously participated in an international program abroad offered at USAFA.

Procedure. The principal investigator emailed a request to all language faculty members to voluntarily fill out an online feedback form for each course that they currently taught. Faculty members for all language courses above the 100-level were asked to incorporate five minutes within a two-week time frame into their lesson plans for making the online student feedback form available during class. Students were clearly told that completion of the feedback form was voluntary. Two follow-up emails were sent as a reminder to participate.

Focus Groups

Participants. Thirty-three faculty members participated in the three faculty sessions; one of the sessions was specifically for department leadership/supervisors ($N = 5$). Twenty-four students from all languages and class levels participated across five student sessions.

Procedure. Recruitment of faculty participants was achieved via an email message that requested voluntary participation, while voluntary student participation was solicited via flyers posted in the classroom area and through announcements in class. Cookies were used as the only incentive to participate. Both the faculty and student focus groups were scheduled for 50 minutes each and facilitated by a faculty member from outside the language department.

All sessions began with a welcome and an explanation that participant responses would be identified by the numbers shown on folded table tents on the table in front of each participant. Thus, their responses would not be associated with their names. A brief description of the project was then presented. Questions for both the faculty and student focus groups were created based upon trends noted in the feedback form responses.

Prior to their focus group meetings, the faculty members were sent a copy of the initial starting question in order to provide an opportunity to reflect before the session, *What might be the distinctive leadership development value-added from our department for our students who will ultimately interact globally? In other words, what might we offer to LD that our students would not be likely to receive or experience via their other courses and training experiences?* A hard copy of this question was available during the focus group session, along with a brief summary of the data from the faculty and student feedback forms regarding the number of examples given that fell within the two dimensions, generic vs. discipline-specific and implicit vs. explicit examples of leadership. After participants shared their responses to the first question, the discussion was allowed to flow to any related topics or examples.

The student focus group questions started with a clarification question, *What comes to your mind when you hear that leadership will be developed in your foreign language courses?* This question allowed students to plainly share their initial reactions about LD, which then provided a foundation for the facilitator to explicitly clarify the intent of the effort. Specifically, the facilitator explained that the intent was not to replicate, in the language of study within the FL course, other LD programs and courses that are mandatory for USAFA's military students. Rather, the intent was to focus on discipline-specific development that included current and historical scenarios within the cultures being studied and other activities unique to FL learning. This opening was chosen because responses on the student feedback form had indicated that only 32% agreed that LD should be incorporated in the language classroom, with many students expressing the opinion that plenty of LD already occurred in their other classes and activities. Following this discussion and clarification, students were asked, *What are some unique ways you think foreign languages could contribute to your development as leaders? In other words, what could you get from foreign language classes or experiences that you wouldn't likely get from other departments that would help you become a better leader?*

For both faculty and student focus groups, the facilitator wrapped up the conversation by highlighting a few trends in the responses and asking if there were any last *burning* contributions someone wanted to make. Participants were then thanked for their time and their contributions. Handwritten notes were taken for all sessions that were then typed for analysis by non-language department staff.

Results

Syllabus Review

For each course level (100, 200 or 300-400), all examples of leadership-related activities, assignments, readings, etc., as well as explicit references to leadership were categorized as either generic or discipline-specific. Generic examples included text that reminded students of standards of behavior or general expectations of officers, and activities that would develop skills that would be useful for officers (e.g. oral presentations, team/group work). Discipline-specific examples included readings that specifically focused on leadership in other cultures. Although the researchers thought it might be possible to find examples of text within syllabi that explicitly spoke to the leadership benefits of understanding other cultures, no such examples were found. (See Table 1 for a summary.) Note that the few discipline-specific examples only occurred in the most advanced/upper-level courses.

Table 1
Leadership Development Syllabi Examples by Course Level.

Course Level					100	200	300-400	Total
Number of Syllabi					9	8	17	34
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Generic								
Cadet expectation/future AF officer responsibilities	6	66	4	50	6	35	16	47
Team/group work	5	55	6	75	10	58	21	62
Presentational projects/reports	7	77	6	75	16	94	29	85
Discipline specific								
Leadership development implied in materials studied	0	0	0	0	4	24	4	12

Feedback Forms

Faculty and student responses to the two feedback questions are summarized in Table 2. In general, faculty believed that they incorporated leadership more so than students in their courses perceived them to do so. A Chi-Square analysis sup-

ported this conclusion ($\chi^2 = 6.38$; $p < .01$). A Chi-Square analysis also indicated that faculty agreed significantly more often than did the students that language courses should incorporate LD ($\chi^2 = 12.26$; $p < .01$). The difference between whether the course did and should include leadership was significant only for the students ($\chi^2 = 5.56$; $p < .05$).

Table 2

Faculty and Student Responses to Feedback Questions.

	Faculty (N = 28)	Students (N = 320)
Does class incorporate leadership	86%	55%
Should class incorporate leadership?	68%	32%

While the syllabi review indicated generic vs. discipline-specific examples of leadership, the examples reported in the feedback forms captured a second dimension, implicit vs. explicit incorporation of leadership examples. Open-ended responses for each of the two questions were separately categorized into discipline-specific or generic categories for faculty and students. Overall, student examples of observed incorporation of LD were similar to those given by faculty members. In many cases, the incorporation could either be explicit or implicit depending upon how the instructor implemented leadership in class. Table 3 indicates a summary of faculty responses denoting implicit and explicit examples.

Table 3

Faculty Leadership Development Implicit/Explicit Examples and Times Mentioned.

Generic	Times Mentioned
Designates group (team) work/leader	10
Incorporates the role of class monitor	10
Instructor is a role model/mentor/leads by example*	7
Assigns presentations/public speaking	6
Instructor encourages accountability/standards of behavior of officers**	6
Praises student leadership**	3
Pushes students to think critically	1
Discipline specific	
Discusses/studies leadership in target culture/in AF career**	8
Assigns role plays/hypothetical leadership scenarios	3
Encourages experiential learning abroad to experience leadership	1

* Clear Implicit examples, ** Clear Explicit examples

Students and faculty differed qualitatively regarding why LD should or should not be included in language courses. Table 4 summarizes faculty explanations, while Table 5 summarizes student explanations. Faculty shared twice as many supportive reasons as non-supportive explanations, while students shared the opposite—almost twice as many non-supportive explanations. More than 50% of the students’ non-supportive comments indicated that they did not see a connection between LD and LL, while none of the faculty indicated that particular explanation for their non-supportive attitude.

However, when student explanations were broken down by course level, we observed that the number of non-supportive comments decreased as course level increased. Over 70% of the comments from 200-level students were non-supportive, but only 54% of comments from the 300-400 level students were non-supportive.

Table 4
Faculty Leadership Development Examples and Times Mentioned.

Supportive	Times Mentioned
Leadership development should be in every learning experience to enhance career preparation.	13
Teach leadership development through a foreign language and culture lens.	9
Depends on class level/more leadership development at higher levels.	1
Non-supportive	
Prefer status quo (no motivation for change).	4
Don't want to detract from content/not at the expense of language instruction.	3
Prefer no "lesson-planned" leadership.	3

Table 5
Student Explanations for Including Leadership and Times Mentioned.

Supportive	Times Mentioned
Incorporated to enhance career preparation.	37
Communication/confidence is key.	26
More leadership to know how to lead in foreign language and culture.	14
Depends on class level.	6
Helps critical thinking.	2
Non-Supportive	
Leadership development is incompatible with foreign language.	88

Prefer status quo.	34
Focus on language/culture first.	15
Shouldn't be a goal in the foreign language department.	6
No time/already too much leadership development.	6

Focus Groups

As we saw in the feedback forms, most of the faculty comments during the focus groups were supportive of incorporating LD within their FL courses (80%). Those faculty members who offered non-supportive comments stressed the challenges of meaningfully developing leadership as well as language and culture. One faculty member commented "No time to reflect on leadership in a foreign language class" and another faculty member stated "Integrate leadership development without going overboard."

The supportive comments again fell into the generic and discipline-specific dimension. Generic comments comprised 24% of the supportive explanations; an illustration is *Lead by example*. The remaining 76% of supportive comments gave discipline-specific examples of how leadership could be more systematically integrated into the FL classroom. Faculty members stated, "Use scenarios (military/cultural) to highlight leadership across cultures," and "Share how to teach leadership (practices, strategies, techniques) at lower and upper levels and for experiential learning." Another faculty member revealed a foundational belief, "Knowing target culture(s) is essential for good citizens and good leaders to develop more cultural sensitivity," which suggests a future direction for integration. Table 6 describes examples of this dimension of supportive faculty comments.

Table 6

Supportive Faculty Comments and Times Mentioned.

Generic	Times Mentioned
Leadership development can be less systematic.	8
Lead by example.	7
Discipline specific	
Use scenarios to highlight leadership across cultures.	21
Share how to teach leadership.	11
Enhance explicit application of leadership on immersion.	5
Use language and culture as leadership tool.	4
Students can lead by teaching.	4
Use leadership experiences of international cadets in class.	2

Following the clarification of the intent of the effort to incorporate LD into foreign language courses, 90% of the comments made during the student focus groups emphasized one overarching conclusion: that FL and LD should be intertwined, and that students wanted more experiences that did so. Of the student comments, only a small number (14%) were generic examples of how their instructors fostered LD. For example, "Presentations are in front of the class daily. Very humbling class, as none of us are fluent... Humble leaders are important." However, the remaining comments (86%) were discipline-specific examples of LD currently used by their instructors or suggestions for activities that could be used to intertwine leadership and language. These discipline-specific examples also revealed the implicit/explicit dimension. One implicit discipline-specific student comment was, "Practice using the language is so important – maybe set up links with other schools/students to exchange emails/Skype to practice language and writing and learn about culture." Other student examples highlighted explicit discipline-specific activities. One student stated, "part of the final was a one-on-one discussion with the teacher acting as anti-U.S.," and another student shared that "My instructor makes correlations to the literature we study to our lives as students and our roles that we will have as future officers." A third student suggested that language courses include "increased focus on other countries' militaries, and ranks of all countries using the target language."

Summary of Findings and Discussion

Analyses conducted through multiple methods of data collection yielded notable trends vis-à-vis the research objectives. Coded data from the syllabi review indicated the inclusion of team and/or group work in 62% of the syllabi. Student presentations were incorporated into 85% of the courses. These teaching/learning strategies are considered generic or non-discipline specific to LD. Very few syllabi (12%) mentioned leadership directly or explicitly linked LD with foreign language/cultural learning. The explicit element missing from the vast majority of the syllabi was later communicated in the faculty and student focus groups. The idea that knowing multiple languages and cultures helps produce good leaders was expressly articulated by participants in both student and faculty focus groups.

The voluntary pre-focus-group feedback forms from both instructors and language learners produced additional insights. The vast majority (95%) of the 25 responding faculty indicated that they did incorporate LD and that it should be included. However, a qualitative analysis of the type of development showed that most was generic, with an increasing number of discipline-specific examples present as course levels increased. Interestingly, just over 50% of students believed their courses included LD, offering primarily generic examples as support and corroborating the previously mentioned finding. Faculty also expressed concern that students would respond negatively due to all the other military leadership training they experience. This concern proved founded as only 30% of students stated they felt LD should be included in FL courses.

Additionally, the eight focus groups (5 with student participants and 3 with faculty participation) allowed further exploration of possibilities for incorporation of LD in FL classes. All groups began with a clarification that the focus was to be on the unique aspects of LD that learning languages and culture could offer a future officer.

In other words, we were not trying to encourage replication of other leadership training in their languages classes. Following this clarification, both students and faculty enthusiastically engaged in discussion of current examples and new ideas for ways that DFF instructors could foster their development. Students in particular desired a larger number of language and culture specific LD-related activities rather than the generic type of LD activities. Such specificity included, for example, case scenarios, role play, panels of international visitors, community exchanges, and travel opportunities.

Finally, as indicated previously, those students enrolled in more advanced language courses seemed to be more receptive to the inclusion of LD in their courses. This could be explained by the specificity of content of the upper-level courses (e.g. one advanced Spanish course concentrated particularly on leadership examples salient in several literary works of different genres). It may also be that the more experience one has with the language and culture, the more evident it is to the learner that LD is a culturally embedded concept and that leaders, followers, and their behaviors vary widely across cultures.

In summary, the data analyses point in the direction of defining and exploring discipline-specific LD practices, strategies and activities. Some possibilities here include encouraging the sharing of strategies with DFF instructors wanting to try new approaches, the creation of a repository to facilitate said sharing, and/or the creation of a FLC to further explore leadership and languages collaboratively. This collaboration, in the end, can be seen as a zero-sum game in that language educators promulgating the notion of leadership skills as a key component of the education of 21st century students are not advocating the addition of yet another fad theme or new element in the FL curriculum nor overburdening it with irrelevant content. Rather, as this study's results indicate, LD is already implicit in the curriculum; it needs only be made more salient to and by FL practitioners.

Conclusions and Future Directions

The triangulation approach to data collection for this study proved useful in capturing information and knowledge that might not have surfaced under less rigorous and extensive methods of investigation. Despite the finding that very few DFF syllabi explicitly mention leadership directly or explicitly link LD with language/cultural learning, other data provided clear evidence that faculty members do see value in team/group work and presentational skills and do consider these activities examples of LD. Such activities are firmly embedded in the language curriculum in DFF. The missing piece vis-à-vis the syllabi is the aforementioned explicit statement that knowing multiple languages and cultures helps produce good leaders. Thus, the FL discipline can specifically offer a developing leader the tools of linguistic and cultural knowledge, an essential component of a successful future leader.

Data culled from participant responses on the feedback forms and during the focus groups show that there is, indeed, a link between deeper cultural knowledge/learning and LD. Responses from faculty and students alike point to using level-appropriate scenarios, simulations, case studies and role plays to provide additional cultural learning and LD. Students also desired more cross-cultural/multiple-culture education, stating that they would probably be stationed in various and most likely differing cultural areas throughout their career.

Finally, both faculty and students suggested more focused and/or creative ways to enhance LD and cultural learning both inside and outside the classroom. Examples were cross-cultural panels, linking to community groups, or enhancing the leadership component during participation in language immersion opportunities abroad. An interesting suggestion was to imbue the study-abroad experience with more intentional observations and reflection on what leaders and leadership look like abroad. Implicit here is the recognition that the concept/construct of leadership is not the same across cultures.

The present study represents the first attempt to measure, analyze, categorize, and define LD in the LL context. Therefore, it inspired subsequent interest in the incorporation of LD in the language courses at USAFA. The aforementioned FLC explored the notions of LD and LL more in depth. One outcome of the FLC was the development and collection of a repository of materials (e.g. language and cultural scenarios related to leadership) that could be incorporated into language classes to facilitate LD (Long et al., 2014). As a natural segue from the FLC and its work, in the fall of 2013 several DFF researchers conducted a study on LD in four language courses at the 100-, 200-, and 300 levels and in four different languages (French, German, Portuguese, and Spanish). Results from that study confirm that explicit and implicit examples of LD can be successfully introduced into language classes (Derby, LeLoup, De Souza & Rasmussen, 2014). As a result, such LD examples are being included in an expanded set of LL courses in DFF.

In the military LL setting and beyond, students will encounter an increasingly global environment, so there is merit in redesigning FL courses. Suggested changes will develop not only language abilities but also, through an exploration of related culture(s), develop (1) awareness and understanding of cultural difference in leadership, and (2) skills that will be useful for future citizens and leaders. Given how language curricula (P-16+) has been traditionally designed and taught, students (and teachers) may not expect or understand a connection between LL and LD. Thus, the two dimensions (explicitness and discipline specificity) provide a useful framework by which instructors and program directors can examine courses and focus their efforts on effective ways to intentionally incorporate LD within the curriculum. Many teachers might hesitate to *add something else* to an already full curriculum. But, there may be *low hanging fruit* with respect to incorporating LD: there are likely already many generic types of assignments and activities that instructors incorporate into their language courses (e.g. presentations, essays about culture) that could be easily (slightly) modified so that they more explicitly develop leadership. The simple shift from implicit to explicit (low “add on” load for the instructor) can lead to meaningful impact and also support the directions recommended by the ACTFL 21st Century Skills Map (2011).

However, incorporating implicit, generic LD activities is not enough! Without explicit instruction, most students will not automatically figure out how such activities/assignments might help them become better leaders and global citizens. They will focus on the LL, even if they report that *knowing a language* in and of itself might help them become better global citizens. This is supported by the vast difference in our students’ and instructors’ perceptions of how LD was incorporated into the language courses. Once the explicit connection is made for students, they will

likely have many ideas about how a language course might help them become global citizens and responsible leaders. Even our students, who were initially resistant due to the pervasive LD climate at the USAFA, became excited about the opportunities and reported wanting more discipline-specific, explicit LD in their language courses.

Beyond the foundational work at USAFA, the FL profession is continuing to advocate for LD primarily through the ACTFL 21st Century Skills Map (2011) and promotes classroom experimentation and instructional materials development that are tracked at the ACTFL website. (See ACTFL 21st Century Skills Map, Leadership and Responsibility.) It is a commonly held belief in higher education that today's teachers are preparing undergraduates to become responsible and responsive global citizens. Therefore, language educators are positioned to be in the vanguard by re-framing the FL curricula with the systematic and intentional intertwining of language, culture, and leadership. While a small but growing number of practitioners in the language profession make claims about teaching leadership in their languages classes, there will be a need to develop goals and objectives for LD and LL that are measureable (at all levels, across languages, at both military and civilian institutions) to promote the meaningful and concrete inclusion of LD in the LL environment.

Distribution A. Distribution Unlimited. The views expressed in this paper are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent those of the U.S. Air Force Academy, the U.S. Air Force, The Dept. of Defense or the U.S. Government.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to gratefully acknowledge USAFA's Center for Scholarship and Learning (SoTL) and the Center for Character and Leadership Development (CCLD) whose support made this project possible.

References

- Air Force Culture and Language Center. (2012). *The language enabled airman program (LEAP)*. Available from, <http://culture.af.mil/leap/index.aspx#>
- American Academy of Arts & Sciences, Commission on the Humanities and Social Sciences. (2013). *The heart of the matter. The humanities and social sciences for a vibrant, competitive, and secure nation*. Available from, <http://humanitiescommission.org/>
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (2010). *Position Statement on Use of the Target Language in the Classroom*. Available from, <http://www.actfl.org/news/position-statements/use-the-target-language-the-classroom-0>
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (2011). *ACTFL 21st Century Skills Map P-21*. Available from, http://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/21stCenturySkillsMap/p21_worldlanguagesmap.pdf
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (2014). *Lead with languages*. [Video file]. Available from, <http://vimeo.com/77166262>
- Assessment and Teaching of 21st Century Skills. (2013). *What are 21st century skills?* Available from, <http://atc21s.org/index.php/about/what-are-21st-century-skills/>

- Badaracco, J. L. (2006). *Questions of Character: Illuminating the Heart of Leadership through Literature*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business Review Press.
- Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (2008) *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership*. (4th ed.) San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA). (2012). *Content-based second language instruction: What is it?* Available from, <http://www.carla.umn.edu/cobaltt/cbi.html>
- Committee for Economic Development. (2006). *Education for global leadership: the importance of international studies and foreign language education for U.S. economic and national security*. Washington, DC: Author.
- Coyle, D., Hood, P., & Marsh, D. (2010). *CLIL: Content and language integrated learning*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Crouse, D. (2013). Languages for specific purposes in the 21st century. *The Language Educator*, 8(3), 32-35.
- Department of Foreign Languages. (2011). *Department of foreign languages strategic plan 2012-2017*. Unpublished report. U.S. Air Force Academy, CO.
- Derby, L., LeLoup, J. W., De Souza, I., & Rasmussen, J. (2014, April). *Using cultural scenarios to develop leaders in foreign language courses at USAFA*. Presentation at the Second Annual Symposium on Language for Specific Purposes, Boulder, CO.
- Doyle, M. S., & Fryer, T. B. (2013). *Exito comercial: Prácticas administrativas y contextos culturales*. (6th ed.). Boston, MA: Heinle Cengage Learning.
- Kotter, J. P. (1990). *A Force for Change: How Leadership Differs from Management*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Long, S. S. (2013). The *unexpected* Spanish for specific purposes professor: a tale of two institutions. In L. Sánchez-López (Ed.), *Scholarship and Teaching on Languages for Specific Purposes*, (pp. 88-98). Birmingham, AL: Stern Library. Available from the University of Alabama-Birmingham Digital Collections Portal: <http://contentdm.mhsl.uab.edu/cdm/compoundobject/collection/faculty/id/161/rec/1>
- Long, S. S., LeLoup, J. W., Derby, L., & Reyes, R. J. (2014). Fusing language learning and leadership development: Initial approaches and strategies. *Dimension*, 11-30.
- Long, S. S., & Rasmussen, J. (2014, November) *Integrating leadership development and literary studies in German and Spanish: towards a sustainable model of advanced foreign-language literary instruction*. Presentation at the 86th meeting of the South Atlantic Modern Language Association, Atlanta, GA.
- Maxwell, J. C. (1998). *The 21 Irrefutable Laws of Leadership*. Nashville, TN: Thomas Nelson, Inc.
- Modern Language Association Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages. (2007). *Foreign languages and higher education: New structures for a changed world*.
- Northouse, P. G. (2013). *Leadership. Theory and practice*. (6th ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Stryker, S. B., & Leaver, B. L. (Eds.) (1997). *Content-based instruction in foreign language education: Models and methods*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

- Uribe, D., LeLoup, J. W., Long, S. S., & Doyle, M. S. (2014). Spanish at the United States Air Force Academy: Developing leaders of character as an LSP curricular model. *Cuadernos de ALDEEU*, 28, 188-221.
- Warner, B. (2011, November). In math it all counts. *Scholar Brief: A Publication of the Center for Character and Leadership Development, USAFA*, 1-19.
- Western, D. J. (2011). How to say 'national security' in 1,100 languages. *Air and Space Power Journal*, 48-61.
- Wurr, A. J., & Hellebrandt, J. (Eds.). (2007). *Learning the language of global citizenship*. Boston, MA: Anker Publishing Co.
- Yeatman, C. P., & Berdan, S. (2007). *Get ahead by going abroad: A woman's guide to career success*. New York: William Morrow.

Endnotes

- ¹ An Air Force officer, typically as high-ranking officer, who serves part of a diplomatic mission.

NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements: An Effective Tool for Improving Language Learning Within and Outside the Classroom

Aleidine J. Moeller
Fei Yu

University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Abstract

This article explores the theoretical foundation of the NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements, developed by the National Council of State Supervisors for Languages (NCSSFL) and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), describes why and how to use these progress indicators in language education and reveals the value and impact on student learning when effectively integrated in the language classroom. These Can-Do statements serve as learning targets to document what learners “can do” with languages and can provide teachers and language programs with learning objectives for curriculum and unit design that are user-friendly, learner-centered and promote reflection and self-regulation aimed at involving the learner directly in the learning process. An exemplar for classroom implementation demonstrates how the teacher can involve learners in the reflective learning process to become self-regulated, autonomous language learners.

Background

Increasingly language educators are discarding textbooks in favor of more meaningful contexts for the teaching and learning of a second language and culture. This shift to more authentic contexts in acquiring and practicing language skills is due in large part to increased access to technology and digital media that make available authentic texts, media and social interaction at the stroke of a keyboard. Research studies have indicated that learners are more motivated when they are actively engaged in the learning process with authentic texts, audio and digital media, receive meaningful feedback and can collaborate with peers and native speakers (Bustamante, Hurlbut, & Moeller, 2012; Hall, 1995; Kern, 2006; Shrum & Glisan, 2009). According to motivation theory, three components are essential in motivating humans: autonomy, self-determination or competence, and connection to others. When these drives are fulfilled, “people achieve more and live richer lives” (Pink, 2011, p. 71).

The ability to make decisions, personalize learning and choose how to demonstrate evidence of learning is central to autonomy. The ability to collaborate with peers, teachers and native speakers provides the important affective element of connection with others. The third component, competence, is the ability to make progress, realize that progress and be able to carry out learning tasks independently,

leading to a sense of self-efficacy. All of these components for improving achievement, self-regulation and motivation were strategically embedded in the *NCSSFL-ACTFL Progress Indicators for Language Learners* (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2013a), dubbed *Can-Do Statements* and were designed to promote functional use of the target language while providing opportunities for learners to experience language and culture together. These “user-oriented” (Alderson, 1991, p.74) Can-Do statements are presented as learning indicators designed for language teachers and learners to use as a checklist of what learners can do with language, to provide guidance for what counts as progress and to assist in identifying types of evidence that document language proficiency. Teachers use the Can-Do statements to gauge proficiency growth and identify learning targets and sample activities for units and lessons. In sum, the Can-Do statements can serve as a guide for developing curriculum, creating learning tasks and as venues for language assessment.

NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements: Purpose, Function and Impact

The NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements serve a very useful purpose in guiding teachers and learners in the language learning process. One goal of primary concern to language educators is to develop curricula and assessments that promote and document continual growth in language and cultural proficiency--what are the topics, contexts, functions that should be addressed at each level of language instruction to ensure continual language development? It is for this purpose that these user-friendly Can-Do statements were developed--to assist stakeholders, most especially language learners, in communicating and assessing what and how well they can function in the target language.

The Can-Do statements are Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Realistic and Time bound (SMART) goals (Doran, 1981; Miller & Cunningham, 1981) designed to assist individual learners in achieving their proficiency aims. Using the *Global Can-Do Benchmarks*¹, the first step in the goal setting process is to determine where a student is currently as regards language skills. Students themselves can use the Can-Do statements to self-assess their existent communication proficiency level and identify a level of language proficiency they would like to reach (at the end of the semester, year, or program). For example, a Novice Mid language learner may have the goal of moving up to Novice High in the Interpersonal Mode of Communication during the course of one semester. The learner reviews possible progress indicators, chooses the Can-Do statements that can assist in the goal setting process which also serve as the learner's self-assessment to determine how well s/he has achieved these chosen goals:

I can say hello and goodbye to my teacher, professor, or supervisor. (Novice Mid-NM) → I can ask and talk about friends, classmates, teachers, or co-workers. (Novice High-NH)

I can say where I went. (NM) → I can tell someone how to get from one place to another, such as go straight, turn left, or turn right. (NH)

I can say or write something about the members of my family and ask about someone's family. (NM) → I can invite and make plans with someone to do something or go somewhere. (NH)

Students can personalize these statements in ways that are meaningful to their own lives. For example, I am going to invite my best friend to go to the movies, establish a time and place to meet and arrange transportation for her. The student must think about how she can demonstrate achievement of this goal. This may consist of a recorded conversation on a mobile phone, a recorded Skype session or an actual simulation. When students have to perform tasks, they quickly realize what they need to know in order to complete the task as regards language, register and grammar structures; more importantly, they experience firsthand the gaps in their present language skills. This forces learners to notice what they need to learn and are thus motivated to fill this knowledge gap in order to successfully accomplish the task.

NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements: A Collaborative Effort

As mentioned earlier, the NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do document was a collaborative effort between NCSSFL and ACTFL. The document builds on the NCSSFL's *LinguaFolio** (NCSSFL, n.d.), which in turn was based on the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment* (Council of Europe, 2001) and is strategically aligned to *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines 2012* and *ACTFL Performance Descriptors for Language Learners* to "reflect the continuum of language learning from the Novice through the Distinguished levels and to provide a common marker for reporting performance in each mode of communication" (ACTFL, 2013a, p.3). Consisting of eleven distinct levels of language proficiency (novice low/mid/high, intermediate low/mid/high, advanced low/mid/high, distinguished and superior), Can-Do descriptors are defined in terms of the five skill/mode categories (interpretive listening, interpretive reading, interpersonal communication, presentational writing and presentational speaking) (ACTFL, 2013b). These descriptors also serve as self-assessment checklists used by language learners to determine what they "can do" with language (ACTFL, 2013a). Can-Do descriptors are located under each specific proficiency level and are not intended to be exhaustive. The *Global Can-Do Benchmarks* provide general goals for language learners and are provided at each specific proficiency level. These are further divided into progress indicators, sample learning targets, and personalized targets in the form of Can-Do statements to fit the context of specific curricula.

A Brief History of the NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements

In 2003, to learn about new European language practices and promote language education policies, a cohort of NCSSFL members participated in a Goethe-Institut sponsored informational study travel program that included a meeting with the Council of Europe in Germany. Here the NCSSFL members were introduced to the *Common European Framework of Reference* (CEFR, Council of Europe, 2001) and the Can-Do descriptors used in the *European Language Portfolio* (ELP) to describe language functions at various stages of language development and learning. The ELP was of particular interest to these supervisors of world language programs as they saw the enormous potential and impact this self-assessment tool could have for language teaching and learning in the United States (Van Houten, 2004, 2007). Upon return to the United States, NCSSFL launched efforts to develop an American version of ELP, an endeavor (*LinguaFolio USA*) spearheaded by several states including

Kentucky, Nebraska, Virginia, Indiana, North Carolina, South Carolina and others. Various versions of *LinguaFolio* for elementary, secondary, and postsecondary levels emerged and were implemented, including the development of several online versions. Can-Do statements were included in all *LinguaFolio* versions and were intended to assess language learners' language performance as aligned with *ACTFL Performance Guidelines* (ACTFL, 1998), that is, to document learners' ability to use language in instructional settings and familiar contexts.

In 2010, in order to further assess learners' ability to use language in real world situations independent of curriculum, NCSSFL collaborated with ACTFL to align NCSSFL's *LinguaFolio*® (NCSSFL, n.d.) to ACTFL's *Proficiency Guidelines* (1986, 1999, 2001) which described what individuals could do with language in spontaneous and non-rehearsed contexts. By connecting the *LinguaFolio*® with the ACTFL *Proficiency Guidelines*, the assessment focus of the NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements shifted from language performance to language proficiency, particularly as regards what language learners could do with language in authentic situations regardless of where, when, or how the language was acquired. In 2012, with the implementation of the ACTFL *Proficiency Guidelines* and the ACTFL *Performance Descriptors for Language Learners*, NCSSFL and ACTFL revised the Can-Do statements in order to align them more closely with the new Guidelines on the one hand, and to anchor them to the *World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages* (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, NSFLEP, 2014) previously referred to as the *Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century* (NSFLEP, 2006) on the other hand, in order to facilitate "linking classroom activities with benchmarked objectives, state and national standards, and with broad proficiency outcomes for life-long learning" (ACTFL, 2013a, p.3). Accordingly, the current version of NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements reflects the language learning continuum from the Novice through the Distinguished proficiency levels and provide a global common assessment for language competency in each mode of communication, which allows "learners to chart their progress and learning facilitators to document learner growth on nationally and internationally recognized scales" (ibid., p.2).

Worldview and Theoretical Framework

Based on research in the fields of applied linguistics and educational psychology, goal setting is regarded as one of the most important strategies to promote learner autonomy in language education (Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981; Yang, 1998). Can-Do statements provide an important venue for setting learning goals to provide students the opportunity to take responsibility for their own learning through the establishment of positive short- and long-term learning goals and to monitor their own learning experiences to ensure attainment of selected goals. Such an approach to teaching and learning reflects a sociocultural, or constructivist worldview underscoring that individuals construct their own understanding of the world through their own experiences and by reflecting on those experiences (Kelly, 1970). This worldview regards learning as an active process in which knowledge is constructed from and shaped by learners' personal experiences. Specifically, in constructivist classrooms, students are urged to be actively involved in their own learning process by developing their learning outcomes, assessing the learning

products and reflecting on their learning experiences to determine the gaps in their understanding and identify strategies to improve learning. The teachers assume the role of facilitators who create a positive learning environment and activities that will actively involve the learner in a carefully structured series of learning tasks that will ensure learners can achieve these goals. Thus, a constructivist worldview serves as the philosophical underpinning for learner-centeredness, which aligns with the Can-Do statements (Barraket, 2005).

Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory (1978), more specifically his concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), serves as the theoretical framework for the constructivist worldview. ZPD occurs when the learner (novice) is assisted by a teacher (expert), or peer, who possesses a higher skill set of the subject under discussion. The learner does not possess the necessary skill, or knowledge to complete the learning task without the assistance of the teacher, or peer. The teacher assists the learner in attaining the skill through carefully structured , or scaffolded learning tasks, guiding questions and positive interactions in the hope that the learner can ultimately accomplish the task independently. ZPD, then, is the difference between what a learner can do without help and what he or she can do with help. Vygotsky (1978) defined the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) as

the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers... (which helps to identify) those functions that have not yet matured but are in the process of maturation, functions that will mature tomorrow but are currently in an embryonic state (p. 86).

Much like the concept of ZPD, the Can-Do statements reflect an interactive process that underscores interaction between learner and teacher/facilitator, promotes self-assessment and reflection ultimately aimed at developing self-regulation and self-efficacy. Can-Do statements provide a way for learners to assess what they can do independently (the "matured functions") and what they cannot do or what they can do only with help from others (the "embryonic functions"), which, in turn, helps learners to create appropriate action plans to fill this gap in their knowledge. Typically, this process helps learners to gradually gain control over their own learning while the teacher gradually reduces the amount of scaffolding (Monereo, 1995). Can-Do statements thus provide the means to estimate ability and provide both the current proficiency level of language learners and a direction for future learning achievable with assistance and efforts.

The constructivist worldview regards learning as a constructive and ongoing process where learners are involved in the process of self-assessment and self-reflection about their own learning, an integral part of the Can-Do statements. Moreover, the Can-Do statements are clearly linked theoretically to Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory (1978) in that learning is regarded as a process as exemplified through the ZPD, a zone of exploration where learners require assistance to reach the Can-Do targets, which help identify what a learner can do and cannot do independently. Learners are asked to construct an action plan to seek help from qualified others and available resources in order to reach the targeted Can-Dos.

Added Benefits of Integrating Can-Do Statements

Can-Do statements have been used for self-assessment since Mat Oscarson's pioneering work related to the ELP in the 1970s and 1980s (North, 2010). Can-Do statements have long been an integral part of the language portfolio assessment process designed to facilitate learners' involvement in planning, reflecting upon and assessing their own learning experiences. Since publication of NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements as an independent document, researchers and educators have begun to turn their attention to this learning tool. Based on the review of the literature, Can-Do statements have proven to be an effective tool when effectively integrated in language classrooms. The Can-Do statements have been shown to increase learner motivation, language proficiency, and academic achievement (e.g., Collett & Sullivan, 2010; Moeller, Theiler, & Wu, 2012; O'Dwyer et al., 2008).

Can-Do Statements and Authenticity

Can-Do statements explicitly communicate what language learners can do at a specific proficiency level, which makes the language learning process transparent to teachers, students and all stakeholders. Specifically, learners select authentic, functional language objectives with Can-Do statements that fit their personal contexts and purposes (ACTFL, 2013a). Framed in a communicative approach, Can-Do statements present language learning as a practical process and encourage learners to state what they can do with the language that they have learned by including information on linguistic and cultural experiences gained within and outside the language classrooms (Gonzalez, 2009). Language learning is no longer simply learning vocabulary and grammar structures, but rather is regarded as a means of communication that includes equal attention to the development of intercultural competence, emphasizing the inextricable link between language and culture.

In addition, Can-Do statements signify language learning as an action-oriented process, meaning that "the language user or learner must draw upon a variety of both linguistic and non-linguistic competences to accomplish a task" (O'Dwyer & Runnels, 2014), which encourages task-based instruction (Little, 2006). Specifically, in language education, a task is defined as a classroom activity, or exercise that has a learning objective attainable only through interaction among participants, a mechanism for structuring and sequencing interaction, and a focus on meaning exchange (Lee, 2000). Through authentic and meaningful tasks, learners are engaged in "goal oriented communication to solve problems, complete projects, and reach decisions" that resemble real-life linguistic interaction (Pica, 2008, p. 71). Task-based learning supports the intent of Can-Do statements, which aim to promote authentic language use within and outside classrooms through specific, functional learning objectives in the form of Can-Do statements. Both task-based instruction and Can-Do statements thus allow learners to set specific goals and regularly check their progress, consequently leading to real and life-long learning.

Can-Do Statements and Learner-centeredness

By using Can-Do descriptors, learners are placed at the center of the learning process. Specifically, Can-Do statements promote learners to take control of their own learning, which, in turns, affects the instructional process. As mentioned above,

to fit specific learning contexts and curricula, NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements include not only general communicative goals aligned to the *World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages* (NSFLEP, 2014), but also personalized goals used to accommodate specific learning content and tasks. It is emphasized that while the general Can-Do benchmarks are shared among learners at the same level of language proficiency, there are no two identical learners as everyone learns at a different pace, in different ways and for different purposes. That means, each learner is allowed to work and re-work his/her own personalized Can-Do goals supported by guidance and feedback from teachers, peers, parents and others. The personalized Can-Do statements are reconciled with the general Can-Do targets, until the learner fulfills the majority of Can-Do descriptors under a specific proficiency level. Personalized Can-Do statements make the learning process more relevant and meaningful to individual learners.

Besides the customized personal statements, research has revealed that Can-Do statements align learners' learning objectives more directly to instruction. Little and Perclova (2001) and Little (2002), in their studies about ELP, found that language instructors adjusted their instruction accordingly to include more communicative target language activities when they saw many of their students responding negatively to the "Can-Do" statements, thereby forming a closer alignment between assessment and pedagogy.

Can-Do Statements and Motivation

Can-Do statements define learning targets in terms of functional language use, that is, what learners should be able to do with the language. It follows a criterion-referenced approach by determining learners' level of language performance in relation to the content domain as reflected in Can-Do statements. Particularly, this approach assumes that language assessment determines the extent to which learners have mastered the language skills as described in the Can-Do statements, and assures that even the slightest progress among the weakest learners, who may only partially meet the criteria, experience some degree of success. Compared to the traditional norm-referenced approach, which assumes that language achievement is distributed "with the statistical regularity of the bell-shaped curve.....(with) a small number of very good learners, a rather larger number of good learners, a lot of average learners, some weak learners, and a few very weak learners" (Little & Perclova, 2001, p.54), the criterion-referenced approach with Can-Do statements is regarded as helpful to "encourage a generally positive attitude to learners" (ibid., p.55).

Even more, the positive Can-Do statements focus on what learners are able to do, rather than what they cannot do, which gives students a sense of accomplishment and is regarded as an important factor to motivate continuous learning among learners (Faez, Majhanovich, Taylor, Smith, & Crowley, 2011; Van Houten, 2007). Additionally, Can-Do statements can mitigate learning anxiety by helping students set short-term Can-Do goals as well as long-term Can-Do goals in order to reach a specific proficiency level. By dividing a seemingly unreachable goal (long-term Can-Do) into sub-goals (short-term Can-Do) that are practically achievable in a specific time period, learners, especially those who lack confidence in themselves, are more likely to be motivated.

Can-Do Statements and Learner Autonomy

Autonomy is defined as one's ability to take responsibility for his or her own learning (Benson, 2001; Dickinson, 1987; Holec, 1981), which is considered as one of the most important factors in successful language learning (Spratt, Humphreys, & Chan, 2002). Given this fact, the development of learner autonomy is identified as the pedagogical function of ELP (Little & Perclova, 2001). Particularly, Can-Do statements are used in ELP to help develop learners' capacity for reflection and self-assessment, and enable them to gradually take responsibility in planning, evaluating and monitoring their own learning. Just as its European counterpart, LinguaFolio also employs Can-Do statements to foster learner autonomy. To this end, Can-Do statements encourage learner independence and self-monitoring, two important dispositions needed by 21st century learners.

To examine the relationship between LinguaFolio with Can-Do statements and learner autonomy, Ziegler and Moeller (2012) investigated the impact of LinguaFolio intervention with Can-Do statements on student motivation, learning, achievement and the development of student ability for self-regulated learning. A one semester quasi-experimental quantitative study was conducted in first-year French and Spanish classes with a total of 168 participants in a Midwestern university. The study revealed that LinguaFolio use was linked to increased student intrinsic motivation, increased task-value, and more accurate self-assessment of learning.

Similarly, Ziegler (2014) investigated whether the ELP with Can-Do statements accomplished its desired pedagogical effect of fostering learner autonomy with a total of 575 student participants and 19 teacher participants in Germany. Using an embedded mixed methods design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011) the effect of ELP on students was explored to see whether students using ELP were more autonomous and self-regulated in learning; semi-structured interviews with a purposefully selected subgroup of participants further explored their perception of ELP in order to triangulate the qualitative data with the quantitative results and produce "a deeper understanding of how the European Language Portfolio impacts students" (Ziegler, 2014, p.922). The findings of the study strongly support the use of ELP as a valid means to foster self-regulated and autonomous learners. Particularly, the ELP intervention with Can-Do statements was regarded as helpful in engaging students in goal-setting, self-evaluation and self-reflection on learning experiences.

Positive research results about the impact of ELP and LinguaFolio on learner autonomy confirm some of the assumed functions of Can-Do statements. According to ACTFL (2013a), Can-Do statements provide a way to help language learners chart their own progress through incremental steps, which coincides with the pedagogical function of the portfolio to demystify the learning process and help learners develop the capacity to assume more responsibility for and take ownership of their own learning. Therefore, as an important part of ELP and LinguaFolio, the role of Can-Do statements in promoting learning autonomy is indisputable.

Can-Do Statements and Achievement

The Can-Do statements were adopted in language portfolios as a response to research evidence that confirmed the positive effects of goal setting on learner performance (e.g., Edwins, 1995; Griffie & Templin, 1997; Moriarity, Pavelonis,

Pellouchoud, & Wilson, 2001). To examine the relationship between goal setting through Can-Do statements and student achievement at the classroom level, Moeller, Theiler, and Wu (2012) conducted a five-year longitudinal quasi-experimental study through the integration of *LinguaFolio* in 23 high schools consisting of a total of 1,273 Spanish participants. Selected Can-Do statements were tied to the individual learning contexts to establish and identify short- and long-term goals focused on promoting language proficiency, self-assessment and reflection on the learning process on the part of the students. By using correlational analyses, the study found a statistically significant positive relationship between the goal-setting process and language proficiency scores in Spanish writing and speaking skills, which consequently revealed “a positive relationship between proficiency and the writing of goals, action plans, and reflections—a learner more practiced and skilled at goal setting relates positively to higher language achievement in Spanish”(ibid., p.163). Clarke (2013) investigated whether high school students who experienced foreign language study that included *LinguaFolio* goal setting through Can-Do statements achieved higher and performed better in other subject content areas in comparison to students who were not exposed to the *LinguaFolio* intervention. The inquiry question focused on the transferability of goal setting skills acquired during Spanish class to other academic disciplines. Specifically, a group comparison was made between *LinguaFolio* students (the experimental group with $n = 454$) and non-*LinguaFolio* students (the control group with $n = 164$) examining student achievement in English, math, science and reading as measured by ACT, and overall achievement measured by graduating GPA. The study revealed that students involved in the *LinguaFolio* goal setting intervention had a significantly higher GPA and higher ACT scores in math, science, English, and reading. It was noteworthy that students' graduating GPA and ACT scores increased with each additional year of participation in the *LinguaFolio* intervention.

To determine the effects of Can-Do statements, it is critical to determine whether student learning is improved through the integration of these short term learning goals. Few empirical studies have focused specifically on the impact of Can-Do statements on student learning, however, studies on the impact of *LinguaFolio* goal setting in the form of Can-Do statements have provided evidence that *LinguaFolio* can promote student achievement (Moeller et al., 2012; Clarke, 2013). Furthermore, goal setting and self-assessment have been shown to increase motivation, task value and increased self-regulation and learner autonomy among language learners of all ages (Ziegler & Moeller, 2012; Ziegler, 2014).

Integrating Can-Do Statements into Language Instruction

Can-Do statements form the cornerstone of the language portfolio (ELP and *LinguaFolio*) in language education. As we have seen, they serve as a point of reference for setting up learning goals and provide the basis for learner self-assessment and reflection. The integration of Can-Do statements in language instruction helps to promote learner achievement and motivate students to be autonomous and life-long learners. Despite its purported benefits, research concerning how Can-Do statements can be incorporated into language classrooms to promote learning achievement remains inadequate. Specifically, the integration process is regarded as

challenging due to the fact that the majority of students are new to assessing their own language competencies. In traditional language classes, language assessment is typically carried out by teachers through either formative assessment during learning, or summative assessment at the end of a specific learning period. Student self-assessment rarely had been used in language classes until the introduction of the CEFR and ELP in Europe and LinguaFolio in the US. Sato (2010) found that due to the limited experience students have had with self-assessment and the lack of accurate self-knowledge, many students felt the process of self-evaluation to be challenging, which consequently led to carelessly formed and imprecise self-assessment results concerning their language competencies. Van Houten (2007) reported that student self-assessments revealed inconsistent and disputed results and that teachers felt unprepared to teach students how to accurately self-assess. A Special Interest Group that met in Tokyo focused on the application and possibilities of the CEFR and ELP revealed that educators were not fully aware of how to use the Can-Do statements effectively in classes (O'Dwyer et al., 2010). In order to overcome this challenge, it is necessary to assist teachers in educating them about effective ways to implement these Can-Do statements in the language curriculum.

A Roadmap for Implementing Can-Do Statements In the Language Classroom

According to ACTFL (2013a), the NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements are best used by learners and learning facilitators as part of an overall reflective learning process including “setting goals, selecting strategies, self-assessing, providing evidence, and reflecting before setting new goals” (p.1) as shown in Figure 1. This section of the article introduces the reflective learning process (Figure 1), and explains how the process is informed by the NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements. In each phase of the learning process, relevant learning tasks are suggested to equip learners with the skills to independently set and achieve language goals, ultimately leading them to become autonomous, self-regulated lifelong learners of language.

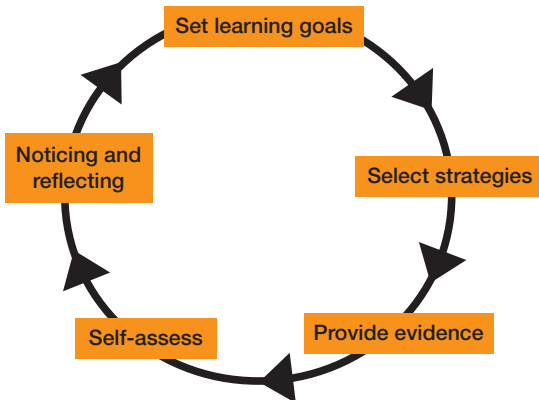


Figure 1. Reflective learning process

The learning scenario introduced in the following exemplar is situated in a beginning Chinese high school language class focused on the development of oral communication skills.

Setting Learning Goals

Using backward design, the role of the teacher is to identify the desired learning outcomes/functions and plan the appropriate learning experiences that will assist learners in achieving the desired outcomes (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). To set up realistic learning goals, a teacher first must establish students' current language proficiency in the targeted mode of communication (in this case the interpersonal mode of communication) using the eleven distinct levels of the NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements. To accomplish this, a shortened version of the Can-Do self-assessment checklist containing only Can-Do statements from the interpersonal mode of communication mode is used to help students self-assess their proficiency level. A shortened version, instead of a full version of the Can-Do checklist, is used here for two reasons: first, it matches the particular purpose of the Chinese speaking class, that is, to promote students' communicative skills; second, a shorter version decreases the time needed for students working on the checklist, which helps to focus students' attention and consequently increase the accuracy of their self-assessment results. The results then lead to the setting of learning goals. Specifically, if there are different current levels among students, the teacher can individualize course goals in order for students to progress to the next proficiency level based on their current proficiency level. In this case, since the majority of students in the class possess a proficiency level at novice mid, the teacher may set novice high as the semester target learning goal for the whole class, which is described by the following Can-Do benchmarks:

I can communicate and exchange information about familiar topics using phrases and simple sentences, sometimes supported by memorized language.

I can usually handle short social interactions in everyday situations by asking and answering simple questions.

After identification of the learning goals, the teacher records the five progress indicators shown below under the interpersonal communication novice high level on five separate posters and displays them on the classroom wall. As students achieve a particular descriptor, they can write their name on the corresponding poster.

1. *I can exchange some personal information.*
2. *I can ask for and give simple directions.*
3. *I can exchange information using texts, graphs, or pictures.*
4. *I can make plans with others.*
5. *I can interact with others in everyday situations.*

Specifically, Can-Do statements are divided into three levels: the Can-Do benchmarks under the novice high level of the interpersonal communication can be used as long-term goals, or as the learning outcomes of the speaking course; the progress indicators can be used as short-term goals, or the specific outcome expectations for the lesson/unit; the sample learning targets can be used as goals for daily lesson plans (NCSSFL, 2014). Can-Do Statements are not meant to be exhaustive and prescriptive. That means, learners and their teacher can create appropriate learning goals to meet

contextualized real needs in accordance with the Can-Do benchmarks and the progress indicators for a specific proficiency level. For instance, in the speaking class, under the progress descriptor concerning personal information exchange, besides the four provided sample learning targets, the teacher adds one more learning targets “I can ask and state my age and birthday” as shown below.

1. *I can exchange some personal information.*
2. *I can ask and provide my home address and e-mail address.*
3. *I can ask and state someone’s nationality.*
4. *I can ask and talk about family members and their characteristics.*
5. *I can ask and talk about friends, classmates, teachers, or co-workers.*
6. *I can ask and state my age and birthday. (Added)*

Because many students have indicated that they want to learn counting in Chinese, the teacher integrates Chinese numbers in the context of age and date.

Likewise, students might also set their own personalized goals based on the goals shared by their teacher according to their own learning experiences. However, it is important that the teacher assumes the role of facilitator to help learners set attainable learning goals by modeling the goal-setting process to ensure valid SMART goals. For example, let’s use the example of the teacher who added numbers as a learning target to allow her students to “ask and state their age and birthday.” The learner may want to personalize this by revising this Can-Do to read: “I can ask and answer my friends about their/my age and birthday in Chinese.”

Can-Do statements foster practical and realistic goals that not only make explicit what students are expected to be able to do, but also serve as a tool for teachers as they design the course and prepare daily lessons.

Selecting Strategies

After setting learning goals, learners move to the selection of the strategies to support the attainment of identified goals. Specifically, learners are involved in selecting the most effective learning strategies in accordance with their preferred learning style. However, according to scholars (O’Dwyer, Noriko, Collett, Sullivan, & Smith, 2011), it is a challenge for learners to determine the best learning strategies as most of them only use a limited range of learning techniques and are not willing to use “alternative, possibly more efficient, study methods” (p.274).

In order to help learners select effective learning strategies, it is necessary to first draw their attention to the importance of learning strategies. An effective way to introduce effective learning strategies is to encourage students to talk about learning strategies in class and share strategies with others. Additionally, the teacher can also have students discuss which identified learning goals are difficult and what kind of strategies they would need to achieve them. It would not only help students to learn from each other, but also enhance their awareness of learning strategies.

Based on student discussion, the teacher then assists students in identifying different learning strategies to use. Due to limited class time and other factors, it is impossible for a teacher to assist each individual student; however, in order to help

learners understand which strategies match their own preferred learning styles, one effective way is for the teacher to model how she herself selects effective strategies for accomplishing a learning task (Wertz & Van Houten, 2013).

For instance, in the case of the Chinese speaking class, to achieve the goal of *I can ask and state my age and birthday*, students may choose different learning strategies. Some students may choose to first practice asking and saying the age and birthday by themselves, and then use them in real conversation; some may first choose to explore how age and birthday are asked in real-life conversation, then directly use them in their own conversation; some may choose to watch a video where age and birthday are asked and talked about by native speakers, and then summarize the usage followed by use in real conversation. The best learning strategy is the one that helps the learner who is using it to achieve the targeted learning goal.

Providing Evidence

After selecting strategies and practicing the relevant tasks, learners then provide evidence to prove that they have met the goals. Learning evidence can take different forms. The ease and accessibility of digitally produced evidence makes sharing products convenient. It is important to note that no matter the form of evidence, it should substantiate and match the Can-Do statements and the specific proficiency level around which the targeted goals were identified (ibid.). The teacher plays a key role in helping students select the best and complete evidence that is most representative of what students can do relative to the targeted learning goal. Specifically, in order to demonstrate that one is proficient at a specific proficiency level, besides providing evidence, a learner “must perform consistently and with native speakers at that level” (NCSSFL, 2014, p.1).

In the case of the Chinese speaking class, for instance, in order to demonstrate that one “can exchange some personal information”, the learner may provide evidence, such as a dialogue simulating a conversation between two people or an audio clip in which the learner has a conversation with a native speaker in which personal information is exchanged. Evidence can be collected and placed in a file, or uploaded online where not only the student, but also the teacher and parents can have access to those products that document student learning progress.

Self-assessing

The selection of evidence actually initiates the self-assessment process. In this process, learners assess themselves to see what they can do and what they cannot do as to the identified learning goals reflected in Can-Do statements. This echoes with the self-assessment process involved in the goal setting stage. While the two have similar processes, the self-assessment in the first stage aims to assess learners’ interpersonal communication level before learning, the self-assessment in the current assessment stage aims to assess what has been learned and how well it was learned. Specifically, in this stage, a learner checks off a learning goal when s/he provides evidence to support that s/he can do the task as described by the goal, which consequently helps to track the learning progress.

Besides using the identified learning goals as a springboard for self-assessment, learners at this stage also create performance-based assessment rubrics to assess

specific tasks during the learning process by linking the identified learning goals, or Can-Do statements, with the task performance. The rubric could then be used to provide feedback from the teacher, peers and learners themselves. Particularly, both the teacher and learners are involved in making these assessment rubrics for specific learning tasks. Learners' contribution here is emphasized in order to develop their skill of defining what knowledge and skills are necessary when starting a learning task, which is regarded as "immensely important when learners face language challenges in their future" (O'Dwyer, 2011, p.12). This corresponds to the principles of learning oriented assessment, which promotes a positive classroom assessment culture with active engagement of both teachers and students (Carless, 2009). For instance, in the case of the Chinese speaking class, to fulfill the goal "I can ask for and give simple directions," each student is required to complete the task of asking a Chinese native speaker for directions and giving him/her directions. To develop an assessment rubric for this specific task, the teacher poses questions to all students regarding what they might expect to hear in a real and informative dialogue. The class first discusses this in groups, then brainstorms together and ultimately produces the assessment rubric, as shown in Table 1, which can be used for assessing language production. [Examples below are to appear in a box.]

<i>The conversation is in logical sequence.</i>	1 2 3 4
<i>The conversation provided relevant information.</i>	1 2 3 4
<i>The student converses articulately and confidently.</i>	1 2 3 4
<i>The student uses a clear voice with correct, precise pronunciation of terms.</i>	1 2 3 4

TOTAL:

Multiple forms of assessment, (e.g. self-assessment with the identified learning goal; self-, peer-, and teacher assessment with the performance-based assessment rubric) allow for triangulation of different types of assessment thereby increasing the reliability of assessment results.

Noticing and Reflecting

After the self-assessment stage, learners move to the final stage of the reflective learning process, the noticing and reflecting stage. In this stage, learners engage in reflection on teacher-, peer-, and self-assessment results regarding their speaking performance in order to ascertain if their targeted learning goals were achieved. If goals were attained, what was learned by working towards these goals? If goals were not achieved, what else can be done to achieve these goals? This process helps learners to focus not only on perceived weaknesses, but also on improving their proficiency by figuring out realistic learning goals in terms of Can-Do statements. For this reason, the reflection process requires learners to have a deeper understanding of learning and their learning experiences to interpret new learned knowledge in relation to their prior knowledge. Learning reflection is therefore regarded as "a complex task" (Kohonen & Westhoff, 2001, p. 24).

To help learners reflect on their own learning, the teacher can encourage them to think about the following five questions as adapted from Leni Dam in Dam (1995):

- *What am I learning?*
- *Why am I learning it?*
- *How am I learning it?*
- *How successful is my learning?*
- *What am I going to do next?*

It is important for the teacher first to guide learners to think about these questions in a conscious way (Little & Perclova, 2001), and then gradually let them reflect on their own. When learners' metacognitive knowledge and strategies grow, they are able to plan, carry out and assess their own learning, which consequently increases their ability to take responsibility for their learning (Council of Europe, 2002).

In accordance with the principles of reflective learning, the KWLS model is recommended by some researchers (e.g., Van Houten, 2007) to help students take responsibility for their own learning. The model provides a good way for learners to track and reflect on their learning. In the case of the Chinese speaking class for example, before learning how to make plans with others under the identified learning goal "I can make plans with others", the students can record what they already know (K) about making plans with others in Chinese, and what they want to know (W) about it. At the end of the class, they review what they wrote and summarize what they learned (L) and also reflect on what they still (S) want to learn in the future to improve beyond the current level. The process of filling the KWLS table is a process of reflective learning, during which the learners first connect their prior knowledge with the new knowledge to be learned, then reflect on the new knowledge learned. While it is not always easy for learners to provide a complete list for each part of the KWLS model, Can-Do statements provide a good frame of reference for learners to complete while connecting this to their personal learning experiences. By keeping track of the learning experience with the KWLS model in terms of Can-Do statements, learners may clearly see their progress toward specific targeted learning goals.

The learning reflection stage then informs the follow-up goal setting stage that starts the new round of reflective learning process. Specifically, if the targeted goals have been attained, new learning goals are set in the next iteration of the goal setting stage with Can-Do statements; if not attained, the learner either adjusts the original goal or figures out other ways to attain and demonstrate the targeted learning goal (e.g. examine alternative strategies; seek assistance through online venues, or peers/teachers).

This exemplar illustrates how Can-Do statements can be integrated in a language speaking class through the reflective learning process (see Figure 1). In addressing the integration of Can-Do statements in each part of the learning process, relevant learning activities are suggested to help equip learners with the skills to independently set and achieve language goals, ultimately leading them to become autonomous learners of language. There is no single *best* method of using Can-Do statements. While this exemplar provides some ideas concerning how to use Can-Do statements, the procedures it contains are by no means the only way such work can be done, and they are not necessarily applicable in all learning contexts. It is important for both teachers and learners to use Can-Do statements appropriately based on their own specific context.

While such a reflective learning process is time consuming, the benefits have been well documented in the research as regards learning gains. Students are more motivated, value the task of learning a language, improve their language skills, become independent learners and develop self-regulation that will equip them with lifelong skills that enhance the quality of their lives. Once students have practiced, honed and internalized the reflective goal setting process, the process becomes automatic. Much like language learning, once language is anchored in long-term memory, the act of retrieval is automatic.

The exemplar provided above provides a general overview of the how and why of using Can-Do statements in the language classroom. To gain additional extensive, practical ideas for integrating Can-Do learning objectives at the classroom level, the authors recommend Tuttle's (2014) iBook entitled *Modern Language Proficiency: Can-Do Strategies*. Tuttle tested Can-Do statements extensively with his Spanish high school students and presents practical strategies and sample lessons for implementing the Can-Do statements in all the modes of communication (interpretive, interpersonal, presentational). This book provides invaluable step-by-step guidance for classroom teachers as to how to effectively integrate Can-Do statements into daily lessons and the language curriculum.

Conclusion

Can-Do statements make language learning visible and transparent to all stakeholders involved in the language acquisition process. As confirmed through classroom-based research, self-assessment and goal setting through Can-Do statements enable learners to track their own learning progress through both short- and long-term learning targets and foster learner autonomy that encourages lifelong language learning beyond the classroom. The integration of Can-Do statements can be used to promote and link a reflective learning process with goal setting, strategy selection, evidence documentation and self-assessment as illustrated by the exemplar provided in this paper. While it is hoped that the instructional tasks involved in the exemplar can serve as a point of reference to assist both instructors and learners in better understanding how to use Can-Do statements in class, it is important to note that when applied, it must be adapted to the learners and context of each specific learning environment.

References

- Alderson, J. (1991). Bands and scores. In J. Alderson & B. North (Eds.), *Language testing in the 1990s* (pp.71-86). London: Modern English Publications and the British Council.
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (1986). *ACTFL proficiency guidelines 1986*. Available from, <http://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/public/ACTFLProficiencyGuidelines1986.pdf>
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (1998). *ACTFL performance guidelines for K-12 learners*. Available from, <http://www.actfl.org/publications/guidelines-and-manuals/actfl-performance-descriptors-language-learners>

- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (1999). *ACTFL proficiency guidelines-Speaking revised 1999*. Available from, <http://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/public/Guidelines.pdf>
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (2001). *Preliminary proficiency guidelines-Writing revised 2001*. Available from, <http://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/public/writingguidelines.pdf>
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (2012a). *ACTFL proficiency guidelines 2012*. Available from, <http://actflproficiencyguidelines2012.org/>
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (2012b). *ACTFL performance descriptors for language learners*. Available from, <http://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/PerformanceDescriptorsLanguageLearners.pdf>
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (2013a). *NCSSFL-ACTFL can-do statements: Progress indicators for language learners*. Available from, http://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/Can-Do_Statements.pdf
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (2013b). *NCSSFL-ACTF global Can-Do benchmarks*. Available from, http://www.actfl.org/global_statements
- Barraket, J. (2005). Teaching research method using a student-centered approach? Critical reflections on practice. *Journal of University Teaching & Learning Practice*, 2, 64–74.
- Benson, P. (2001). *Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning*. London: Longman.
- Bustamante, C., Hurlbut, S., & Moeller, A. (2012). Web 2.0 and language learners: Moving from consumers to creators. In T. Sildus (Ed.), *2012 Report of the Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages* (pp. 109-131). Richmond, VA: Robert M. Terry.
- Carless, D. (2009). Learning-oriented assessment: Principles, practice and a project. In L. H. Meyer, S. Davidson, H. Anderson, R. B. Fletcher, P. M. Johnston, and M. Rees (Eds.), *Tertiary assessment & higher education student outcomes: Policy, practice & research* (pp. 79–90). Wellington, New Zealand: Ako Aotearoa.
- Clarke, O. (2013). *LinguaFolio Goal Setting Intervention and Academic Achievement: Increasing Student Capacity for Self-Regulated Learning*. Available from, <http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/teachlearnstudent/33>
- Collett, P., & Sullivan, K. (2010). Considering the use of can do statements to develop learners' self-regulative and metacognitive strategies. In M. G. Schmidt, N. Naganuma, F. O'Dwyer, A. Imig & K. Sakai (Eds.), *Can do statements in language education in Japan and beyond: Applications of the CEFR* (pp. 167-183). Tokyo, Japan: Asahi Press.
- Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press. Available from, http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Framework_EN.pdf
- Council of Europe. (2002). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. Case Studies*. Strasbourg, France: Council of Europe.

- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Dam, L. (1995). *Learner Autonomy 3: From Theory to Classroom Practice*. Dublin: Authentik.
- Dickinson, L. (1987). *Self-instruction in language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Doran, T. (1981). There's a S.M.A.R.T. way to write managements' goals and objectives. *Management Review*, 70, 35–36.
- Edwins, D. (1995). *Increasing reflective writing and goal-setting skills on high ability sixth grade mathematics students*. Available from, <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED392065>
- Faez, F., Majhanovich, S., Taylor, S., Smith, M., & Crowley, K. (2011). The power of “Can Do” statements: Teachers’ perceptions of CEFR-informed instruction in French as a second language classrooms in Ontario. *The Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics, Special Issue*, 14, 1-19.
- Gonzalez, J. (2009). Promoting student autonomy through the use of the European Language Portfolio. *ELT Journal*, 63, 373-382.
- Griffie, T., & Templin, A. (1997). *Goal setting affects task performance*. Available from, <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED413782>
- Hall, J. K. (1995). “Aw, man, where we goin’?”: Classroom interaction and the development of L2 interactional competence. *Issues in Applied Linguistics*, 6, 37-62.
- Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and foreign language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Kelly, G. (1970) A Brief Introduction to Personal Construct Theory. In Bannister, D. (Ed.), *Perspectives in Personal Construct Theory* (pp.1-29). London: Academic Press.
- Kern, R. (2006). Perspectives on technology in learning and teaching languages. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40, 183-210.
- Kohonen, V., & Westhoff, G. (2001). *Enhancing the pedagogical aspects of the European Language Portfolio*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- Lee, J. (2000). *Tasks and Communicating in Language Classrooms*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Little, D. (2006). The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Contents, purpose, origin, reception and impact. *Language Teaching*, 39, 167-190.
- Little, D. (Ed.). (2002). *The European Language Portfolio in use: Nine examples*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- Little, D., & Perclova, R. (2001). *The European language portfolio: A guide for teachers and teacher trainers*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- Locke, E. A., Shaw, K. N., Saari, L. M., & Latham, G. P. (1981). Goal setting and task performance: 1967–1980. *Psychological Bulletin*, 90, 125–152.
- Miller, A. F., & Cunningham, J. A. (1981). *How to avoid costly job mismatches*. *Management Review*, 70, 29–31.
- Moeller, A., Theiler, J., & Wu, C. (2012). Goal setting and student achievement: A longitudinal study. *The Modern Language Journal*, 96, 153-169.
- Monereo, C. (1995). Teaching consciousness: Towards a metacognitive teaching? *Aula*, 34, 74-80.

- Moriarty, J., Pavelonis, K., Pellouchoud, D., & Wilson, J. (2001). *Increasing student motivation through the use of instructional strategies*. Available from, <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED455962>
- National Council of State Supervisors for Languages (NCSSFL). (n.d.). *LinguaFolio*. Available from, http://www.ncssfl.org/LinguaFolio/index.php?linguafolio_index
- National Council of State Supervisors for Languages (NCSSFL). (2014). *How to Use the NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements*. Available from, <http://www.ncssfl.org/secure/How%20to%20Use%20Can-Do%20Statements%2006-06-14.doc>
- National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project. (2006). *Standards for foreign language learning in the 21st century*. Lawrence, KS: Allen Press, Inc.
- National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project. (2014). *World-Readiness standards for learning languages*. Alexandria, VA: Author.
- North, B. (2010). *The CEFR*. Available from, <http://clients.squareeye.net/uploads/equals/CEFR%20FAQs.pdf>
- O'Dwyer, F. (2011). Facilitating coordination through the use of can do statements and the CEFR. *Journal of the Research Institute for World Languages*, 5, 101-118.
- O'Dwyer, F., Imig, A., Jacob, B., Nagai, N., Naganuma, N., & Sakai, K. (2008). Forming a Framework and Language Portfolio SIG. In A. M. Stoke (Ed.), *JALT2008 Conference Proceedings* (pp.535-548). Tokyo: JALT.
- O'Dwyer, F., Naganuma, N., Atobe, S., Horiguchi, S., Imoto, Y., Nagai, N., & Sato, Y. (2010). Framework and Language Portfolio SIG Forum: Use of can do statements. In A. M. Stoke (Ed.), *JALT2009 Conference Proceedings* (pp.320-331). Tokyo: JALT.
- O'Dwyer, F., Noriko, N., Collett, P., Sullivan, K., & Smith, A. (2011). Framework & Language Portfolio SIG Forum: Looking forward. In A. Stewart (Ed.), *JALT2010 Conference Proceedings* (pp.269-280). Tokyo: JALT.
- O'Dwyer, F., & Runnels, J. (2014). Bringing learner self-regulation practices forward. *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal*, 5, 404-422.
- Pica, T. (2008). Task-based instruction. In N. Van Deusen-Scholl & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education (2nd edition)*, Vol. 4: *Second and foreign language education* (pp. 71-82). New York, NY: Springer Science/Business Media.
- Pink, D. (2011). *Drive: The Surprising Truth About What Motivates Us*. New York: Riverhead Books.
- Sato, Y. (2010). Using the CEFR and portfolio in university classes: A case study in progress. In A. M. Stoke (Ed.), *JALT2009 Conference Proceedings* (pp.323-325). Tokyo: JALT.
- Shrum, J. L., & Glisan, E. W. (2009). *Teacher's handbook: Contextualized language instruction* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Heinle.
- Spratt, M., Humphreys, G., & Chan V. (2002). Autonomy and motivation: which comes first? *Language Teaching Research*, 6, 245-266.
- Tuttle, H. (2014). *Modern Language Proficiency: Can-Do Strategies*. Available from, <https://www.smashwords.com/books/view/434075>
- Van Houten, J. (2004). A look at the European language portfolio: Its implications for use in the US. In R. DiDonatok & N. Humbach (Eds.), *Making connections: From the classroom to the world beyond* (pp. 19-30). Eau Claire, WI: Crown Prints.

- Van Houten, J. (2007). NCSSFL's LinguaFolio project. In Cherry, C., & Bradley, L. (Eds). *Dimension: Proceedings of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching* (pp. 1-12). Valdosta, GA: SCOLT Publications.
- Vygotsky, S. (1978). *Mind in society. The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Wertz, R., & Van Houten, J. (2013). *LinguaFolio Can-Do Language Learning ACTFL 2013* [PowerPoint slides]. Available from, <http://ncssfl.org/LinguaFolio/ACTFL%202013%20LF%20Presentation%2011-11-13.ppt>
- Wiggins, G., & McTighe, J. (2005). *Understanding by design* (Expanded 2nd edition). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Yang, N. (1998). Exploring a new role for teachers: Promoting learner autonomy. *System*, 26, 127–135.
- Ziegler, N. (2014). Fostering Self-Regulated Learning Through the European Language Portfolio: An Embedded Mixed Methods Study. *The Modern Language Journal*, 98, 921–936. doi: 10.1111/modl.12147
- Ziegler, N., & Moeller, A. (2012). Increasing self-regulated learning through the LinguaFolio. *Foreign Language Annals*, 45, 330-348.

Endnotes

- ¹ Available from, http://www.actfl.org/global_statements

Using Goal Setting and Task Analysis to Enhance Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching

Joan Rubin

Joan Rubin Associates

Abstract

This paper will focus on the contributions Goal Setting and Task Analysis can make to more effective Task-Based language learning and teaching.

Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching has received sustained attention from teachers and researchers for over thirty years (Ellis, 2003; Leaver & Willis, 2004; Long, 1985; Loschky & Bley-Vroman, 1993; Nunan, 2006; Willis & Willis, 2007). It is a well-established pedagogy that includes the following characteristics: major focus on authentic and real-world tasks, choice of linguistic resources by learners, and a clearly defined non-linguistic outcome (Ellis, 2003).

Important as a focus on real life tasks and authentic language is, learners still need help accomplishing these tasks especially if the goal is for them to eventually be able to accomplish tasks on their own. Promoting goal setting and task analysis will add value by helping learners *plan how* they approach a task. If teachers take the time to help learners understand how to plan their individual approaches to a task, the results can be quite rewarding for both teacher and student. These rewards include a transformed learning environment as learners show increased motivation, especially feelings of self-efficacy¹, increased self-esteem, increased ability to problem solve, increased learner ability to take control of their learning, greater focus on the learning process, and even transfer of planning skills to other subjects and their personal lives (Castrillón, Jaramillo & Lopez, 2013; Clemente & Rubin, 2008; Tutistar Jojoa & Ballesteros Muñoz, 2013).

Goal Setting and Task Analysis

Eventually, each learner needs to be able to determine his/her own SMART goal for a task. While the acronym SMART goal has several interpretations, in our work we use it to mean the following: S (specific), M (measurable), A (achievable), R (realistic), T (time-based).

Goals should be Specific enough so that they can be measured; Measures should be observable so learners are able to recognize their own achievement. Measures should be observable without teacher input, so that learners develop control of their own learning process; Achievable requires learners to consider the time and knowledge they bring to accomplish the task (attempting to do a task when a learner does not have the time or sufficient knowledge can be very frustrating and self-defeating). Relevant encourages learners to consider the importance of a task for themselves (the more relevant a goal is to each specific learner, the more motivated that learner will likely be), and Time-Based requires each learner to set a time limit

to accomplish a task. By doing so, each learner can then consider whether changes are required in his/her goal or strategy or time allotted to accomplish a goal.

Learners need to be involved in setting their own goals for many reasons. Most importantly, when learners set their own goals, they can judge for themselves if and when they have accomplished a goal. Making such judgments can allow learners to feel more in control of their own learning. Further, by stating and then evaluating their own SMART goals learners can gain a sense of accomplishment and self-efficacy².

It is important to consider two kinds of goals: a language goal and learning goal. A language goal focuses on some aspect of the target language that a learner wants to improve (e.g., spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, pragmatics, discourse). While in many classrooms, it is the teacher who sets a language goal, if asked learners vary greatly in what they think they need to focus on. Some might feel they are having trouble with spelling while others may report issues with pronunciation or vocabulary. These individual differences can occur while working on the same task.

A learning goal focuses on some aspect of the student's learning process and how he/she will improve it. Some learning goal examples are: working on improving skills in memorizing, developing ways to control emotions, improving ability to set appropriate goals meaningful to a specific learner, or learning how to select appropriate strategies for a particular task.

Task Analysis

Task Analysis (TA) consists of three parts: Task Purpose, Task Classification, and Task Demands. When a TA is completed, a learner is ready to create an action plan. When learners perform task analysis in advance of beginning a task, they will know how much time they need to allocate to the task, what tools they need, what knowledge they already have and what knowledge they need to accomplish a task, and what strategies might be appropriate for a particular task. TA can give learners a critical sense of control and positive feelings that they have the necessary ability and knowledge to succeed.

Task Purpose

Task Purpose (TP) asks the question: Why do I want to achieve a particular goal? TP can be an important motivator especially if a learner's purpose is not just pedagogical (e.g., to get a good grade, pass this course) but rather more connected to a life goal (e.g., professional, social, personal). Readers are encouraged to see Rubin and Thompson (1994) and Rubin (2001) for a more complete description of these purposes. Once a learner is able to determine that the task is relevant for his/her own current or future life, it is highly likely that that learners will become more highly motivated³. TP is directly connected to the R in SMART goals. In TP a learner considers a specific purpose and comes to recognize the specific relevance of the task for his/her life⁴.

Task Classification

Task Classification⁵ (TC) requires a learner to ask the question: What do I already know about this particular kind of task? By developing TC for a specific task,

a learner can begin to consider what he/she knows and does not know about the following aspects of a text:

1. The *genre*/the structure of a text (e.g., the structure of a newscast, a lecture, or an advertisement),
2. The *rhetorical style* (e.g., expository, descriptive, explanatory, procedural, narrative, persuasive),
3. The overall characteristics of the *language* (e.g., tenses used, type of verbs, types of descriptors, type of repetitions, standard/non-standard grammar)
4. The *vocabulary* in terms of the categories of vocabulary expected (e.g., in a job interview, questions about work history, education, job aspirations).

Learners may also consider how they feel about a skill such as listening or about a topic. More advanced learners may consider the audience/interlocutor, especially if writing or speaking in the foreign language or about any expected visuals if listening or reading. TC is extremely important because it requires the learner to consider details of the language and the skill of a particular task and recognize what he/she feels or knows or needs to find out in order to accomplish the task.

Task Demands

Once a learner completes a TC, he/she then asks him/herself: Given the TC I developed *what* can I do about these identified characteristics; what strategies (e.g., cognitive and socio-affective) can I use to complete the task? For example, if the task is to be able to listen to a newscast and the learner's purpose is to be able to find out what the most important news is, by considering his/her TC the learner might come to recognize that: listening is difficult, that a newscast has a specific structure which might consist of a brief summary of the main news, details about that news, other less important news, summary of news, human interest plus assorted ads depending on the channel and that news consists of very formal language with complete sentences. In Task Demands (TD), the learner can ask him/herself what to do about each TC discovery. Since the learner noted that listening to news is difficult, he/she could decide to pay more attention while listening; since his/her purpose is to find the most important news, in TD, the learner might decide to focus on the first part of the news; since news is very formal, the learner might want to look for who, what, where, when, and maybe how. As for vocabulary, the learner might want to focus on names of people and places that might have been mentioned in the news in his/her first language. It is clear that TC and TD are directly related one to another. (See Attachment 1 for an example of how TA and TD may be connected).

Action Plan

Finally, the learner can use the results of TD to make an action plan. Since many different strategies may have been identified, the learner will need to consider which strategies to use in which order.

All of this can be challenging and time consuming for a learner to accomplish in addition to learning the target language. However, in our experience with teacher training in Mexico and Colombia, once language teachers and language counselors/advisors promote this kind of planning, students begin to recognize how helpful it

can be in achieving their goals, not only those of language learning but also those of their academic and personal lives. Learners find it very empowering to be in charge of their own learning and be clear about where they are going, why they are going there, and what they need to do to succeed.

Teaching SMART Goal Setting

The literature provides many suggestions for teaching learner strategies (Chamot, Barnhardt, El Dinary, & Robbins, 1999; Cohen & Weaver, 2006; Griffiths, 2008; Harris, 2001; Rubin, Chamot, Harris & Anderson, 2008; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 2013). In this section, I present a few specific teaching strategies for SMART goal setting and Task Analysis.

Because for many the idea of goal setting for *language* learning is novel, teachers should expect it to take several lessons, even as many as eight to 10, until learners are comfortable with creating their own SMART goals. While many teaching strategies for helping learners become comfortable setting SMART goals have been identified, only a couple shown here.

Teaching Strategy 1: Go from the Known to the Unknown

Setting goals is something everyone does, all the time. To remind students of how this is done, a teacher can first model some of his/her life goals and then discuss why these goals are SMART. For example, when taking an exercise class the teacher can tell students what his/her goal might be, how he/she will measure the goal, and what amount of time would be needed to achieve that goal. Then, the teacher can discuss whether the goal is achievable and why it is relevant to him or her. After providing several personal examples, then the teacher can ask learners to create SMART goals for their own life situations and then tell their peers why they are SMART. If learners have trouble identifying goals, there are three techniques that might be of help: (1) identify their own problems by reviewing their last exercise or exam, (2) determine the kind of errors they would like to address, and (3) identify some potential goals after learners have written about their problems in journals ⁶.

Teaching Strategy 2

Provide learners with a *rubric* to help them evaluate their SMART goal setting. Figure 1 a compilation of a rubric created by Castrillón, Jaramillo, and Lopez (2013) and Tutistar Jojoa del Rosario and Ballesteros Muñoz (2013) can be used to evaluate SMART GOAL setting.

Criteria	Best (4)	3	2	Poor (1)
Specific	The goal is very specific.	The goal is not very specific or there are several goals.	The goal is vague or not clear.	The goal is not a goal or no goal is given.
Measurable	Clear and explicit criteria for measurement are stated.	Criteria are not very clear or very explicit.	Criteria given are hard to apply.	No measure of stated goal is given.

Achievable	The learner provides specific evidence why the goal is achievable citing their own knowledge and time constraints.	The learner identifies steps to reach goal but only mentions time or knowledge why it is achievable.	The learner identifies steps to reach goal but does not mention their own knowledge or time constraints.	No answer is given.
Relevant	The learner provides detailed reasons why the goal is relevant to his/her interests.	The learner provides sparse evidence why the goal is relevant and personal.	The learner says the goal is relevant but provides no evidence that the goal is relevant.	There is no indication No answer is given.
Time-based	The learner states a clear and realistic time for accomplishing the goal. It is realistic given the knowledge a learner has.	The learner gives a specific time for accomplishing the goal but it doesn't seem realistic.	The stated time is vague or unrealistic given the stated goal.	No time for accomplishing the goal is stated.

Figure 1. SMART Goal Rubric.

Teaching Task Analysis

Teaching TA can take longer than learning to set SMART goals because it requires a new kind of thinking for the language learning process and requires more practice to feel comfortable doing it. Yet, TA is not that new for first language courses since in fact, many elements are often presented in writing and reading courses at many grade levels. For example, Williams (2007) demonstrates the importance of text structure in reading comprehension instruction for students at or above the fourth grade. Below are a couple of teaching strategies to help teachers learn to promote TA.

Teaching Strategy 1: Genre Selection

Choose a genre from a list (e.g. a job interview or a recipe or a letter). Then ask learners to do a TC.

1. Decide on a goal and a purpose
2. Answer the following questions:
 - a. What do I know and feel about this task?
 - b. What do I know about this genre?
 - c. What can I say about the rhetorical style?

- d. What can I say about the characteristics of the language of this genre?
- e. What can I say about the vocabulary?

Another variation on this teaching strategy to make it a bit simpler is to ask students only to complete a genre analysis for several types of text⁷. One teaching strategy to demonstrate how helpful genre analysis can be is to model what the specific structure of each of a variety of textbooks is and then discuss TC why may be helpful.

Teaching Strategy 2: Use TC to Determine TD

Once learners have completed a TC for one type of genre, ask them to consider what they can do about this classification. By so doing learners will be able to identify what might be some appropriate strategies to use for a task. Here are a couple of examples. If learners are watching a television interview with a famous violinist and their TC noted that the genre has the following structure—introductions, questions and answers, expression of gratitude and best wishes, and closings, then learners can create a TD. Some questions they could ask themselves include the following: what might the introduction include; what kind of questions would you ask a famous violinist, what kinds of expressions of gratitude and best wishes, and what kind of closings. For an example of teaching Task Analysis for writing, see Rubin & McCoy, 2008.

Successes in Teaching Planning

My student teachers and I have used many different teaching strategies to present and practice SMART goal setting and Task Analysis. In this section, there are examples of how effective these strategies were in a range of instructional situations and different relationships (e.g., teacher, advisor), different grades (4th to postsecondary), and different socio-economic situations (e.g., public schools in very poor barrios to wealthy private institutions).

Teaching Goal Setting

In an Action Research Project in Colombia (Castrillón et al., 2013), students were shown and practiced how to set SMART goals over the course of a semester. One group of 11th grade students ($n = 30$) came from a very poor neighborhood in Bogota. Their ultimate task was to be able to carry out a conversation with their peers. Prior to this research, many teachers at this school had complained that students were very passive and never spoke in English. By the end of the semester, that was not the case with this group of students. By the thirteenth intervention focused on learning how to set goals and analyze a conversation, the teacher, Luis Lopez, reported,

Learners were very happy and excited; they were interacting with each other in the target language. At this point when they made some mistakes they were not afraid. On the contrary, some of them said that making mistakes fostered them to improve their language performance. (November 4, 2012)

In another observation, Lopez reported that success is contagious. *I noticed that some learners were setting SMART goals for different academic subjects such as Social Sciences, Math and Natural Sciences in*

order to achieve their tasks. As well, some teachers were asking me some questions about this research because they have been seeing how my learners have been interacting outside the classroom and challenging them to keep a conversation in the L2.” (November 4, 2012, thirteenth intervention).

Another example of how goal setting helped a student find a clear direction for his studies comes from my workshop on language counseling at a Mexican university (Clemente & Rubin, 2008). As part of the workshop, I observed the practice of two teachers with an EFL student at their university. The student, Antonio (pseudonym), wanted help with passing the new university TOEFL requirement. The counselor-practitioners asked what Antonio *specifically* wanted help with. He replied *listening and speaking*. It is clear that this is not a very specific goal. It was determined that if Antonio was to establish a more specific goal he needed more information about his skill level. In order to allow Antonio to get this information for himself, he was given a sample TOEFL test. After completing the test the counselors discussed Antonio's results with him and this helped increase his knowledge of his skill level; Antonio came to recognize that he was only a beginner and had a long way to go to pass the test at the required level.

Reasoning that listening was the most difficult part of the exam, Antonio then set as his goal improving his score in the listening portion of TOEFL. This was a SMART goal. It was specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time-based. At the same time, Antonio was not discouraged because he had a clear SMART goal and knowledge of how to study to attain this goal.

A further example of successful teaching of SMART goal setting took place in Colombia as part of a Master's Program at the Universidad de La Sabana in Bogota. Two Action Research groups (Castrillon, et al., 2013 and Tutistar Jojoa & Ballesteros Muñoz, 2013) taught their students SMART goal setting; one for speaking and the other for listening. All five teachers found a clear relationship between increases in SMART goal setting and self-efficacy. These results, while probably not statistically reliable, came from two instruments created by each group: one measured skill in setting SMART goals before and after their interventions, and the other measured self-efficacy. Probably the most remarkable results came from the poorest school which had focused on speaking. This group of 11th graders showed a 53% improvement in goal setting and a 76.6% improvement in self-efficacy. A second research group which focused on listening to songs saw a smaller increase in self-efficacy (28%), but a larger increase in goal setting (52%).

Teaching TA

In order to help Antonio improve his skills in taking the TOEFL (Clemente & Rubin, 2008), the two counselor-practitioners decided to do some TA with him. They discussed what kinds of genres were used in the test. After examining a sample test, the three determined that the most recurrent genre types were conversations and lectures. Then, they analyzed the structure of these two genres and considered how that might prove of use to Antonio. It was suggested that this might reduce Antonio's expectations of what he might hear which might then help lower his anxiety and help Antonio concentrate more on the task. In addition, they discussed which

topics he might expect to hear to be prepared to focus on his listening.

Next, the counselors had Antonio consider the structure of the test and concluded that there were several kinds of questions (e.g., *multiple choice, yes/no, fill in the blank*). Again by making these observations, Antonio was able to narrow down his expectations and feel more comfortable taking the test.

After thinking about these two kinds of genre (conversations and lectures), possible topics and kinds of questions, Antonio retook the sample TOEFL test. The difference between results on the two tests was striking. The first time he took the test his score was 10% but after doing a little Task Classification, the second time his score was 48%. One can only imagine how motivating that must have been for Antonio. He had developed some self-efficacy (I can do it!) about himself by clarifying his goals and doing some Task Analysis⁸.

Some may question whether TA works with more difficult students. Next, there are some examples where TA affected considerable change. McCoy conducted an experiment with a group of EFL university students in Mexico (Rubin & McCoy, 2008a, 2008b). Indications of how problematic their behaviors were include:

- A 30-40% failure rate, both for this course (102) and for the previous English course (101) taken at this university;
- 10% of the students in the sample had taken this course, or the previous one, several times before, either because they failed it or because they dropped it;
- Low motivation. Students would often suggest to the teacher that they go eat breakfast rather than stay in class, and would start getting ready to leave about ten minutes before the class was over;
- High absenteeism and failure to turn in assignments;
- Students often use inappropriate study strategies, for example, students would limit their studying to reading textbook pages without engaging in productive tasks;
- Student learning behaviors are not consistent with stated beliefs. For example, one student stated that “it was very important to create a system to identify one’s own errors but seldom did it” (Rubin & McCoy, 2008, p. 298-99).

Given the issues evidenced by this experimental group, the results obtained from practicing TA were promising.

Our results indicate that learners can improve their ability to do TA with intensive instruction. In addition to the improved TA scores, the Experimental Groups evidenced greater mention of emotions, of the time needed to accomplish a task, of the need to pay attention while working and of the need to have a good attitude when studying. (Rubin & McCoy, 2008b, p. 10).

As noted, since the sample size was small, with a larger sample, even better results could be expected.

An even more clear-cut example of how TC can be very enabling was helping primary and secondary students in Columbia consider the structure of a conversation (Castrillón et al., 2013). Whereas most textbooks provide conversations for students to memorize, students never come to understand what the segments of a con-

versation might be. In the case of the Action Research group at the Universidad de La Sabana, Colombia which worked with three different school levels, teachers helped learners recognize that conversations generally had a basic structure consisting of: greetings, small talk, serious conversation (can be optional), and closings. The three teachers then had their students practice each of the parts of a conversation as well as variations. Practice included types of greetings (more and less formal) and occasions when they could be used. The students agreed that saying *Hi* to the president of a country was inappropriate whereas saying *Good afternoon, sir or m'am* to a classmate was equally inappropriate. Then they discussed kinds of small talk and when each was appropriate. Suddenly, what was once a boring memorization task for learners became an interesting and fun task. These learners were able to construct their own conversations with each other and not just rely on memorized stilted conversations.

Teaching goal setting and task classification can suddenly change a classroom from one where the students are disinterested and poor performers to one where everyone is involved in completing a task — a teacher's dream. The studies show that students found that teaching Goal Setting and TA provided an amazing classroom transformation as is documented in the quotations above.

Finally, in yet another setting, a student enrolled in a Learner Self-Management course at a Mexican university in Puebla himself taught EFL at a local university there. This university catered to affluent students who were known as not very good learners. In class, they often didn't pay attention and were quite noisy, talking to each other, and not bothering with homework. At the mid-term, students did very poorly. The teacher Antonio Sulaya (a student of mine) chose not to tell them how badly they did; rather he offered to help them do better. They began by identifying their problems on the test and this was followed by Antonio's promoting Goal Setting. Once this class began to focus on planning, problem-solving and evaluation, the atmosphere in the classroom completely changed—learners were engaged in the learning process and focused on accomplishing their goals. At the end of the semester, a proctor took over Antonio's class while he took my course. When he returned to his university, the proctor asked what Antonio had done with his students, noting that they came in, sat right down and did the work on their own. Their focus on the work amazed this proctor and demonstrated the critical importance of helping students learn by teaching them to do extensive planning before beginning a task.

Conclusions

In this paper, I have provided detailed examples of what SMART goal setting and TA consist of, suggested some strategies to teach Goal Setting and TA, and given specific examples of how these learning strategies affect teachers, learners, and the entire classroom atmosphere. The examples show that teaching SMART goal setting and TA is not limited to grade level (starting from Grade 4 to university), type of institution (public versus private), or socio-economic status (ranging from poor barrio students to affluent university students).

In conclusion, taking the time to help learners acquire specific language learning skills, in particular, the metacognitive skills of SMART goal setting and TA, can make Task based teaching and learning much more effective.

References

- Castrillón, L.T., Jaramillo, L. M., & Lopez, L. B. (2013). *Teaching learners to set Smart Goals to increase their self-efficacy*. Research report submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master in English Language for Self-directed Learning (Online Program), Universidad de La Sabana, Chia, Bogota, Colombia.
- Chamot, A., S., Barnhardt, P.B. El Dinary, P. B., & Robbins, J. (1999). *The learning strategies handbook*. White Plains NY: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Clemente, A. & Rubin, J.. (2008). Past, present and future of a Mexican American Self-Access Center: the case of the SAC at UBAJO." *Mextesol Journal* 32:2:23-38.
- Cohen, A.D., & Weaver, S. J. (2006). *Styles and strategies based instruction: A teacher's guide*. Minneapolis, MN: Carla Working paper Series.
- Ellis, R. 2003. *Task-based learning and teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Griffiths, C. (Ed.). (2008). *Lessons from good language learners*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Harris, V. (2001). *Helping learners learn: Exploring strategy instruction in language classrooms across Europe*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- Leaver, B. L., & Willis, J. R. (2004). *Task-Based instruction in foreign language education: practice and programs*. Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press.
- Locke, E.A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). *A theory of goal setting and task performance*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Locke, E. A., Shaw, K. N., Saari, L. M., & Latham, G.P. (1981). Goal setting and task performance 1969—1980. *Psychological Bulletin*, 90(1), 125-152.
- Long, M. H. (1985). A role for instruction in second language acquisition: task-based language teaching. In Hyldenstam, K., & Pienemann, M. (eds.), *Modeling and assessing second language development* (pp. 77-99). Clevedon, Avon: Multilingual Matters.
- Loschky, L., & Bley-Vroman, R. (1993). Grammar and task-based methodology. In G. Crookes & S. Gass (Eds.), *Tasks in a pedagogical context: integrating theory and practice* (pp. 9-56). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Nunan, D. (2006). *Task-Based language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: what every teacher should know*. Boston, MA: Heinle.
- Pintrich, P. R. (2003). A motivational science perspective on the role of student motivation in learning and teaching contexts. *Journal of Educational Psychology* 95(4), 667-687.
- Purpura, J. E. (1997). An analysis of the relationships between test takers cognitive and metacognitive strategy use and test taking performance. *Language Learning* 47(2) 289-294.
- Rubin, J. (2013). Teaching language learning strategies. In C.A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics* (pp.). Hoboken, NJ: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Rubin, J. (2005). The expert language learner: a review of good language learner studies and learner strategies. In K. Johnson (Ed.) *Expertise in second language learning and teaching* (pp. 37-63). Basingstoke, England: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Rubin, J. (2003). Diary writing as a process: simple, useful, powerful. *Guidelines (RELC)* 25 (2), 10-14.
- Rubin, J. (2001). Language learner self-management. *Journal of Asian Pacific Communication*, 25(1), 25-37.
- Rubin, J., Chamot, A. U., Harris, V., & Anderson, N. J. (2008). Intervening in the use of strategies. In A.D. Cohen & E. Macaro (Eds.), *Language learner strategies* (pp. 141-160). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Rubin, J. & McCoy, P. (2008a). Tasks and good language learners. In C. Griffiths (Ed.), *Lessons from good language learners* (pp. 294-305). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rubin, J., & McCoy, P. (2008b). *The role of task analysis in promoting learner self-management*. Manuscript in preparation.
- Rubin, J., & Thompson, I. (1994). *How to be a more successful language learner* (2nd ed.) Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Tutistar Jojoa, N.S. & Ballesteros Muñoz, L. (2013). *Effects of smart goal setting on learners' self-efficacy in listening*. Research report submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master in English Language for Self-directed Learning (Online Program), Universidad de La Sabana, Chia, Bogota, Colombia.
- Wenden, A. (2001). Metacognitive knowledge in SLA: the neglected variable. In M. P Breen (Ed.), *Learner contributions to language learning* (pp. 44-64). Harlow, Essex, England: Longman.
- Williams, J. P. (2007). Literacy in the curriculum: integrating text structure and content area instruction. In D. S. McNamara (Ed.), *Reading comprehension strategies: theories, interventions and technologies* (pp. 199-219). New York: Taylor and Francis Group.
- Willis, D., & Willis, J. (2007). *Doing task-based teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Appendix

Task Classification and Task Demands for a Job Interview

Job Interview	Task Classification	Task Demands⁹
Genre	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Greetings 2. Q & A (<i>about general topics—weather, traffic</i>) 3a. Q & A (<i>about work experience</i>) 3b. Q & A (<i>about abilities & skills</i>) 4. Q & A (<i>about personal interest in job</i>) scenario set up & response (<i>what would you have done in this type of situation</i>) 5. Q & A (<i>from the interviewee about conditions and terms</i>) 6. Next communication 7. Closings (<i>thank you, shake hands</i>) 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Note the type of greeting and degree of friendliness 2. Consider good small talk topics 3. Predict questions & topics 3. Prepare to say something about experience 4. Learn about company so that I can connect my experience to the company's needs 5. Prepare 2-3 questions to ask interviewer. 6. Be sure to determine next procedure or communication 7. Find phrases to state how pleased you were with the interview
Rhetorical Style	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Describing (<i>candidate may state factual information about their qualifications & job history</i>) 2. Persuading (<i>giving reasons why they would be the best candidate for the job</i>) 3. Explaining (<i>clarifying issues as directed by the interviewer</i>) <p>While the interviewer is eliciting answers, the interviewee is focused on describing their background & work experience & explaining why that suits the job. There is also a persuasive element to the interviewee's language as they try to convince the employer to hire them. The same persuading could be done by the employer who is trying to tempt someone to work for them. The employer would describe the job & both parties may be trying to inform each other.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Determine the most flattering ways to present your qualifications and job history 2. Consider reasons why there is a good fit between you and the job. 3. Consider what issues you might be asked about and prepare best answers

Language Features	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Use of polite language (<i>e.g. indirect questions, tone of voice, would you be able to tell me... Is there any chance I could....</i>) 2. Use of fillers to gain time (<i>e.g. Let me see..</i>) 3. Imperatives or requests (<i>please take a seat</i>) 4. Conditional (for hypothetical situations) 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Research polite language such as indirect question starters 2. Avoid hesitation; consider fillers that are appropriate 3. Recognize imperatives and research a variety of ways of making requests (for ex. Rises in intonation) 4. Research and practice conditionals (used in problem solving questions)
Vocabulary	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Education & training 2. Experience 3. Expectations (interviewer & interviewee) 4. Best and worst traits 5. Abilities and skills 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. University, on the job training, computers, clinical, practical 2. Certain machines, certain practices 3. Salary, hours, benefits 4. Work all the time 5. Task-oriented, tidy, communication skills, collaborative skills, leadership skills

Endnotes

¹ Castrillón, Jaramillo & Lopez, 2013; Clemente & Rubin, 2008; and Tutistar Jojoa del Rosario & Ballesteros Muñoz, 2013.

² Locke et al, 1981; and Locke and Latham, 1990 reviewed hundreds of studies of goal setting in industrial settings and found that goals affect performance by directing attention, mobilizing effort, increasing persistence, and motivating strategy development.

³ Pintrich, 2003, includes self-efficacy and relevance (intrinsic value) among several major components of motivation.

⁴ A student in my workshop in Oaxaca, Mexico, who taught English in a remote rural impoverished Mexican village, cited an example of a lesson that had no relevance to the learners. The task was to learn to order in a restaurant, something these learners would probably never have experienced and given their economic status, most would never experience in their lifetime. On the other hand, there is no predicting relevance. Another student in a remote Columbian village, asked why he wanted to learn something said: "Because I want to be a pilot" (Thanks to Pedro Maldonado, Universidad de La Sabana, Bogota, Columbia for this example).

⁵ For an extensive application of TC for a four year course in the German language, see the work of Professor Heidi Byrnes and her colleagues at Georgetown University.

⁶ See Rubin, 2003, for suggestions about how to encourage journal writing that focuses on problem identification.

⁷ I use the word 'text' here to refer to any sequence of language in any skill.

⁸ For further discussion of the relationship between test taking strategies and performance, see Purpura (1997).

⁹ Note that each task demand is in the imperative; it is something the creator of the analysis might find useful to do/prepare.

Exploring Homework Completion and Non-Completion in Post-Secondary Language Study

Carolyn Gascoigne

University of Nebraska – Omaha

Abstract

While homework is something that language professionals often assign, based on the paucity of research on the topic, it is clearly not something to which much attention is given in terms of professional discourse or research. In the following pages, the author reviews the limited available research and describes a case study that seeks to examine what students are doing, as well as not doing, in terms of written and online homework in beginning post-secondary foreign language courses. Results are examined through the lens of self-efficacy theory. Implications include allowing for student choice in homework options, particularly for those students with high levels of self-efficacy.

Of the many aspects of the second language teaching-learning process that have been researched and debated in the professional literature, the topic of homework has been notably absent, in spite of the fact that most language teachers--at least those teaching introductory and intermediate levels--admit to assigning it regularly (Wallinger, 2000). Perhaps this is due to the messy nature of homework study. Indeed, how does one set out to study something that is subject to so many internal and external factors? For Cooper (1989), "homework probably involves the complex interaction of more influences than any other instructional device" (p. 87).

Still, the role and impact of homework has been studied in other disciplines, particularly in the areas of English, math, and science. (Cooper, Lindsay, Nye, & Greathouse, 1998; Wallinger, 2000). Most investigations within these other disciplines, however, have overwhelmingly targeted elementary, junior-high, and high-school learners. In a meta-analysis of 120 studies of homework's effects, Cooper (1989) concluded that homework has a positive effect on learning among high school students, a slightly lower, but still positive, effect on junior high school students, and essentially no effect on elementary school learners (p. 88).

While grappling with homework questions in post-secondary French classes at the University of Nebraska at Omaha, such as how often, how much, what type, and whether or not homework should be graded, a new question has recently surfaced: who is completing, or not completing it, and why? In years past the answer at least appeared to be clear: serious students completed assignments, and the disaffected students often did not. Upon closer inspection, this may no longer be the case, or perhaps never was. Instead, self-efficacy theory may provide insight into understanding who is completing and who is not completing homework.

Literature Review

Turning to the professional literature for insight into the general topic of foreign language homework proved disappointing in terms of the number of studies or even position papers on the topic. Among the few exceptions is a distant study by Politzer (1960). He sought to examine 1) the relationship between homework and foreign language achievement, and 2) the contribution of time spent in the language lab to student achievement. Each of the two research questions was studied at a different institution. The first question was examined in a multi-section first-semester French course at the University of Michigan, where the total amount of time spent in the language lab by 396 students was compared to their final course grades. Politzer found that “the amount of time spent in the laboratory correlated quite neatly with the achievement of the student” (p. 14). In a first-semester French course enrolling 250 students at Harvard University, Politzer compared the amount of time spent completing homework, as revealed by study surveys, to final course grades, wherein he found a negative correlation. Specifically, the A students reported spending the least amount of time doing homework. Politzer concluded that the best combination for success is aptitude and “a normal amount of assiduity” (p. 15), as there appears to be a

straight reverse correlation between achievement and time input. The more time students have to put in on their homework, the less they achieve [...] Evidently, assiduity in laboratory attendance can offset aptitude factors and will pay off. Assiduity in ‘doing homework’ does not seem to have any such effects (p. 16),

at least for students at the University of Michigan and Harvard in the late 1950s.

In a much later study, Wallinger (2000) surveyed 49 high school teachers of French and sought information on what type of homework teachers assign and how they treated completed assignments. The teachers reported that they expected students to spend time on homework assignments outside of class, and assignments fell into one of five categories:

- 1) Practice homework: homework that reinforces the learning of material that has already been presented in class.
- 2) Preparation homework: homework that introduces material to be presented in upcoming lessons.
- 3) Extension homework: homework that requires students to transfer knowledge or skills previously learned to new situations.
- 4) Integration homework: homework that requires students to apply separately learned skills or concepts to produce a single product such as a book report, a skit, or a project.
- 5) Creative homework: homework that provides students freedom of choice in content, format, and skill use to produce a final product. (p. 492).

Wallinger found that the most commonly assigned homework type in beginning French was practice homework, followed by extension, integration, and creative homework. In a very distant fifth place was preparation homework. Once back in

class, the most common follow-up use of homework was to check it for completion. The second most popular use was to check it for both completeness and correctness. Very few teachers reported grading assignments or quizzing assigned material.

A third study by Kaznierzak (1994) examined final course grades and homework completion of 13 high school students in second-year German. In the first semester, homework was assigned, checked daily, and included in the final grade. In the second semester, homework was assigned and discussed, but not checked by the teacher, and therefore was not included in the final grade. Initially, grades were higher in the first semester when homework completion was included in the final grade. However, after factoring out the homework completion grade for the first semester, and thereby looking at more direct performance measures such as exams, there was no difference in student performance. Students were also asked to complete a survey indicating which assignments they found to be most helpful. Students reported that open-ended writing assignments were more useful than word- and sentence-level practice.

While homework is something that language professionals often assign, based on the paucity of research on the topic, it is clearly not something to which we give much attention in terms of professional discourse or research. Taken together, the limited research on foreign language homework appears to question the contribution of homework to exam performance, or at least the contribution of traditional practice and extension homework activities to exam scores.

Self-Efficacy Theory

Two related topics that are accorded a great deal of discussion and are the object of sustained research among cognitive and educational psychologists are the notions of self-efficacy and self-agency. Bandura (1982a), for example, set out to study one of the most basic and pervasive observations concerning human behavior: why is it that “people often do not behave optimally, even though they know full well what to do” (p. 122). Or, applied to the present situation, one might ask: why is it that some students do not complete homework assignments even though they know full well that it is expected and often impacts their final course grade? Bandura’s strain of socio-cognitive theory contends that self-efficacy beliefs are the “foundation of human agency” (Bown, 2009, p. 577). Specifically, perceived self-efficacy is related to judgments of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations” (Bandura, 1982a, p. 122). It is concerned with “how people judge their capabilities and how, through their self-percepts of efficacy, they affect their motivation and behavior” (p. 122).

While self-concept and self-esteem are general and global constructs, self-efficacy is domain or task specific. It is precisely task-specific self-efficacy, rather than global self-concept, that has been “found to be related consistently to student academic performance” (Zimmerman, 2000, p. 84). In fact, self-efficacy has emerged as a highly effective predictor of human motivation and agency in general, as well as of student motivation and learning (Bandura, 1993). According to Bandura (1982a), “strength of efficacy predicts behavior [...wherein] judgments of one’s capability partly determine choice of activities” (p. 128).

As an example of self-efficacy’s impact on behavior, Salomon (1984) found that children with high levels of self-efficacy demonstrated high levels of cognitive effort

and superior learning when working with what they believed to be difficult instructional media, yet the same children showed significantly less investment of effort, which ultimately resulted in poor learning, when they interacted with media materials that they considered easy. In this case, high self-efficacy correlated positively with persistence and effort on challenging tasks, and negatively with effort and performance on less challenging tasks. In approaching learning tasks “those who perceive themselves to be supremely self-efficacious in the undertaking see little need to invest much preparatory effort” (Bandura, 1982b, p. 196).

Bandura believes that “both children and adults maintain or increase their interest in activities when rewarded for performance attainments, whereas their interest declines when they are rewarded for undertaking activities irrespective of how well they perform” (1982a, p. 134) and “extrinsic rewards are most likely to reduce interest when they are given merely for performing over and over again an activity that is already of high interest” (p. 133). It is possible that students with high levels of self-efficacy in language learning will be less interested in routine homework practice activities than they might be in more open-ended and challenging tasks such as communicating with native speakers, watching target-language movies, and listening to music.

A Homework Completion Case Study

For many elementary and intermediate post-secondary textbook programs, companion workbooks have provided an obvious and immediate source of homework assignments. French faculty members at the University of Nebraska at Omaha only recently transitioned from the use of pen-and-paper workbooks to electronic or online versions in beginning- and intermediate-level French courses. Before the transition to the online workbook in 2010, faculty members would collect student workbooks at 5-6 predetermined points (usually on exam days) throughout the semester. After the transition, this practice continued. Only now the physical handing-in of workbook homework was replaced by students logging-in and completing the assigned activities before the due dates, and the instructor logging-into the grading portal to access results. Completion of workbook exercises (either on paper or on line) has always been included in the calculation of final course grades, although the percentage has changed slightly at times and for different faculty members. However, it has tended to hover around 10%, meaning that failure to complete workbook homework could drop a student's final course grade by an entire letter grade.

Since transitioning to the online workbook faculty members have noticed that some students are not doing the online homework at all. These students are purchasing the online access code, creating an account, but never returning to the site to complete the assignments. After three consecutive semesters of noticing that 1-2 students per 18-22 student class were simply not completing any of the online homework, the following questions surfaced: Is this a fluke or do some students consider the online homework to be less important than pen-and-paper homework? Does the act of physically handing in assignments directly to the instructor make assignments more salient for the student or hold the student more accountable? Or, is our student body changing? Unfortunately, all of these questions are beyond the scope of this exploratory paper. The research questions that are addressed, however, are:

- 1) who is electing to ignore the online homework;
- 2) is it accidental or intentional; and
- 3) what, if anything, are they doing instead?

The Courses and Students

To answer these questions and attempt to begin to understand students' thoughts on homework completion and study habits, a survey (see Appendix A) was administered in three post-secondary French classes in the fall of 2012 and spring of 2013. These courses included a second-semester, a third-semester, and a fourth-semester French class, all falling within the four-semester foreign language requirement in place at the institution. The third- and fourth-semester classes used the same intermediate textbook and online workbook for homework. Students in the third-semester course completed chapters 1-5, and those in the fourth semester completed chapters 6-10. Students in the second-semester class used a different (an elementary level) textbook and accompanying online workbook. For both of the workbooks used in the three classes the overwhelming majority of the activities were designed to practice material covered in class. In Wallinger's (2000) terms, there were no preparation, integration or creative activities, and very few extension activities. The second-semester class met for 250 minutes per week and was worth five credit hours. The third- and fourth-semester courses meet for 150 minutes per week for three credit hours.

The courses were taught by two different instructors. Both instructors required that the online homework be completed by each of the five exam dates throughout the course of the semester. The requirement and the due dates were stated in the course syllabus and posted on the online workbook site. Each instructor also made it clear on the syllabus that the online homework would count 10% toward the final course grade. While each course enrolled 18-20 students, 14 completed the homework survey in the second-semester course, 14 did so in the third-semester class, and 17 completed the survey in the fourth-semester class. The voluntary surveys were administered during the final week of the term.

Survey Instrument and Results

The first and second survey questions asked students about their general study habits for the course in terms of how many days per week they studied, both in general and when preparing for exams. Results are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1
Study days per week in general and pre-exam by level.

	<i>In General</i>	<i>Pre-Exam</i>
2nd Semester	1.85	3.28
3rd Semester	2.64	2.71
4th Semester	1.64	2.17

Students in the second-semester class reported studying an average of 1.85 days per week in general, and 3.28 days per week when preparing for an exam. Students in the

third-semester course reported studying 2.64 days per week in general and 2.71 days per week when preparing for an exam. Students in the fourth-semester class reported studying 1.64 days per week in general, and 2.17 days per week when preparing for an upcoming exam. The survey only asked for number of days per week in which students reviewed or studied, not for total amount of time in minutes or hours.

The third and fourth survey questions focused on online homework, instead of general study or review (see Table 2). Among the second-semester students, one student reported accessing the online homework every day, 10 students said they did so 3-4 times per week, two reported 1-2 times per week, and one said never. Among the third-semester students, four students reported accessing the online homework 1-2 times per week, seven said that they did so only right before the exam, and three said that they never did the online homework. Among the fourth-semester students, one student reported accessing the online homework 3-4 times per week, 12 said they did so 1-2 times per week, two said that they only accessed the homework right before the exam, and two admitted that they never did the online homework.

Table 2

<i>Frequency of online homework access by level.</i>					
	<i>Daily</i>	<i>3-4/Week</i>	<i>1-2/Week</i>	<i>Before Exam</i>	<i>Never</i>
2nd Semester	1	10	2	0	1
3rd Semester	0	4	0	7	3
4th Semester	0	1	12	2	2

With regard to preference of having more frequent due dates for the online homework, as opposed to having it due at five points throughout the semester, which corresponded to exam days, 11 of the second-semester students said *yes*, with only three reporting *no* (See Table 3). Among the third-semester students, four wanted more frequent due dates, while 10 said *no*. For the fourth-semester students, six wanted more frequent due dates while 11 did not.

Table 3

<i>Desire for more frequent due dates by level.</i>		
	<i>More Frequent</i>	<i>No Change</i>
2nd Semester	11	3
3rd Semester	4	10
4th Semester	6	11

When asked how they would describe their studying style/preferences, three students from the second-semester course agreed that they would prefer to have frequent deadlines set in order to keep them motivated, two preferred to have the autonomy to study when and how they felt was best, and nine indicated that they prefer autonomy, but sometimes need deadlines in order to stay on task and on schedule. In the third-semester course, one student preferred having deadlines to keep him/her motivated, two preferred to have the autonomy to study when and how they felt was best, five indicated that they prefer autonomy, but sometimes need deadlines in

order to stay on task, and four claimed to be self-disciplined enough to keep themselves on task and on schedule. Among the fourth-semester students, two agreed that they would prefer to have frequent deadlines set to keep them motivated, one preferred to have the autonomy to study when and how s/he felt was best, eight indicated that they prefer autonomy, but sometimes need deadlines in order to stay on task and on schedule, and four claimed to be self-disciplined enough to keep themselves on task and on schedule.

Discussion

The survey feedback presented above considered each class as a whole. A closer look at the six students across the three levels who never completed any of the on-line homework throughout the course of the semester reveals some surprising information. At first blush, one might expect to find students who are not interested in French, not serious students, have poor attendance records, earn poor exam scores, and do not study or review material very often. This was not the case. For each of the three classes, the non-homework student or students reported studying/reviewing material presented in class more days per week than their respective class average for both question 1 (when there was no exam approaching) and for question 2 (when preparing for an exam). Due to the small numbers overall and the small number of non-homework students within each course, no tests for significant differences were conducted. Nevertheless, the simple fact that in every case the non-homework students reported studying more often than the classroom average was not expected. Not surprisingly, however, the non-homework students did not want more regular and frequent due dates for online homework assignments and they reported either preferring to have the autonomy to study when and how they felt best, or in one case, being self-disciplined and able to keep him- or herself on task / on schedule. Of course, this last self-assessment is clearly debatable given the circumstances.

Each of the non-homework students reported that he or she expected to receive a relatively high final course grade, ranging from B+ to A+ in spite of the fact that receiving an A or A+ was a mathematical impossibility without the completion of the online homework. Their grade expectations did, however, reflect their exam scores.

Finally, it is the non-homework students who offered some of the most creative study tips on question 7 of the survey: "Do you have any study tips that you would recommend to other language learners?" As a whole, the majority of students at each level left this question blank or responded "N/A" or "No." Other overall responses included suggestions such as, "Look up a word if you don't know it." "Practice writing sentences." "Review constantly." "Pay attention in class." "Get a tutor." "Visit web-sites in the language." "Go over notes frequently." "Don't wait until the last minute." "Listen to music." and "Cram." The non-homework students, however, offered the following suggestions: "I listen to a lot of French music and watch films that make learning French easier." "Practice with native speakers, watch movies, listen to music in the language." "Get practice in communicating, instead of only learning grammar and vocabulary, although they are important." "Spend a lot of time talking to yourself and trying to make original sentences." "I write down everything a lot of times."

There are three notable differences in the advice given by the students who completed their homework and those who did not. First, students who did not do

the online homework offered lengthier advice, using longer sentences and providing more detail. Next, the non-homework students were the only students to personalize their advice, using the pronoun I: “I write down everything a lot of times.” “I listen to a lot of French music and watch films that make learning French easier.” Finally, with only two examples appearing among the responses given by the 39 homework-completing students, it is the non-homework students who recommended using the language instead of practicing the language. For example, using the language to watch movies, listen to music, and communicate.

A Follow-up

Based on their high-levels of in-class participation and apparent interest in French—this in spite of not engaging with the online homework—we hypothesized that the non-homework students might have high levels of self-efficacy in learning French. This trait would likely serve students well in reaching more distal learning goals, such as high levels of communicative competence, even if it had a negative effect on attaining proximal goals such as completing online homework. Distal goals are “too far removed in time to effectively mobilize effort or direct what one does in the here and now” (Bandura, 1982a, p. 134).

Once the semesters were completed and final grades had been posted, the non-homework students were contacted and asked to complete a self-efficacy survey. There was no explicit mention of homework completion rates in the communication or on the self-efficacy survey itself. According to Zimmerman (2000) “self-efficacy questionnaire items should be related to specific tasks” (p. 85). Therefore, Schwarzer et al.’s (1997) 10-question self-efficacy scale was modified slightly to tie each item to language learning in French (see Appendix B). Each item had a four-point response range (one low, four high).

Of the six non-homework students, three agreed to complete the survey, one was unavailable, and two were participating in study abroad programs. The simple fact that two students who had not bothered to complete any of the assigned online homework during the semester had immediately enrolled in a study abroad program can at the very least be taken as a sign of interest in learning the language.

Each of the three students willing and available to complete the survey produced high self-efficacy scores (a score of 30 or greater). The three overall scores were 33, 34, and 36. The only statement to which none of the respondents produced a high score was statement 2, “I am confident that I can communicate effectively in French.”

Results of the self-efficacy survey align with the original assumption that the students who were not completing the online homework, despite signs of interest in the material, did indeed have high levels of self-efficacy concerning language learning. These highly self-efficient language learners therefore displayed the behaviors predicted by Bandura (1982b) in that they did not invest effort in the seemingly less challenging online homework tasks, yet, as revealed by the original homework survey as well as by the high ratio of study abroad participation, they were willing to engage in more challenging and perhaps more meaningful language-learning tasks.

Limitations and Future Directions

As an exploratory case study, there are several limitations inherent in this investigation. First, this study examined a small overall number of learners and an even smaller number of non-homework-completers. Second, the homework survey administered to all participants only asked for number of days/times per week that the students studied or accessed the online homework. It did not ask for total number of hours per week. Third, a limited number of prior studies or even open professional discourse on the topic makes contextualization of the present study difficult. Finally, this study did not address any differences in homework completion rates for physical workbooks compared to online assignments.

This exploratory investigation does not offer a panacea for our myriad problems and questions concerning homework's impact on learning or student engagement. It has, however, attempted to ignite discussion of this messy and often ignored topic. It has also highlighted a type of case study focusing on six otherwise successful students who have elected to ignore their traditional homework assignments. To this end, it has provided some insights into these students' level of motivation as well as the role that high levels of self-efficacy may be playing in their choices.

Based on this small sample of students, it could be suggested that students with high levels of self-efficacy should be given more creative and more meaningful homework options beyond those of the typical online workbook, such as those suggested by the students themselves: "I listen to a lot of French music and watch films that make learning French easier." "Practice with native speakers, watch movies, listen to music in the language." "Get practice in communicating, instead of only learning grammar and vocabulary." Or, in Wallinger's (2011) terms, students with high levels of self-efficacy could be allowed to forego practice and preparation homework in favor of extension, integration, and creative homework.

Of course, suggesting the use of meaningful and creative language practice is hardly a new idea. This is something that most language educators already know and do. In addition, self-directed learning, or independent learning opportunities, have been increasing in popularity over the past decade, often supported by technological applications and innovations in language learning (Bown, 2009). These independent options often allow for individualized practice. Similarly, changes in assessment techniques to include portfolio assessment and self-assessment are also allowing for more language practice options as well as increased ownership of learning for students. (Brown, Dewey, & Cox, 2014). In spite of these developments, the take-away from this exploratory study is that we may have motivated students for whom these more creative and meaningful options may very well be the only option. And, while some level of standard language practice is for many a first step leading to more creative options, there may be a strain of language learner for whom interest declines when pushed to perform "over and over again an activity that is already of high interest" (Bandura, 1982a, p. 133). Therefore, in addition to considering various learning styles and differentiated instruction, differentiated homework may well be worth exploring.

References

- Bandura, A. (1982a). Self-efficacy mechanisms in human agency. *American Psychologist*, 37, 122-147.
- Bandura, A. (1982b). The assessment and predictive generality of self-percepts of efficacy. *Journal of Behavioral, Theoretical, and Experimental Psychiatry*, 13, 195-199.
- Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist*, 28, 117-148.
- Bown, J. (2009). Self-regulatory strategies and agency in self-instructed language learning: A situated view. *The Modern Language Journal*, 93, 570-583.
- Brown, N.A., Dewey, D., & Cox, T. (2014). Assessing the validity of can-do statements in retrospective (then-now) self-assessment. *Foreign Language Annals*, 47(2), 261-285.
- Cooper, H. (1989). Synthesis of research on homework. *Educational Leadership*, 47(3), 85-91.
- Cooper, H., Lindsay, J., Nye, B., & Greathouse, S. (1998). Relationships among attitudes about homework, amount of homework assigned and completed, and student achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 90, 70-83.
- Kazmierzak K.S. (1994). Current wisdom on homework and the effectiveness of a homework checking system. Unpublished manuscript, Indiana University at South Bend [EDRS:ED 371868].
- Politzer, R. (1960). Assiduity and achievement. *The Modern Language Journal*, 44, 14-16.
- Salomon, G. (1984). Television is 'easy' and print is 'tough': The differential investment of mental effort in learning as a function of perceptions and attributions. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 76, 647-658.
- Schwarzer, R., Babler, J., Kwiatek, P., & Schroder, K. (1997). The assessment of optimistic self-beliefs: Comparison of the German, Spanish, and Chinese versions of the general self-efficacy scale. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 46, 69-88.
- Wallinger, L. (2000). The role of homework in foreign language learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, 33(5), 483-496.
- Zimmerman, B. (2000). Self-efficacy: An essential motive to learn *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 82-91.

Appendix A

Homework/Study Survey

Please circle the response that best fits for you.

1. If there is no exam approaching, how many days per week do you review or study material presented in class? (Excluding online homework.)

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. When preparing for an exam, how many days per week do you review or study material presented in class? (Excluding online homework.)

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. How often do you access the online homework? (Circle the best fitting response).
Every day
3-4 times per week
1-2 times per week
Right before the exam
Never
4. I would prefer to have more regular and frequent due dates for the online homework (as opposed to all being due on exam days). YES NO
5. How would you describe your studying style? (Circle the best fitting response).
I prefer to have frequent deadlines set for me to keep me motivated.
I prefer having the autonomy to study when and how I feel is best.
I prefer autonomy but sometimes need deadlines to keep on task/on schedule.
I am self-disciplined and can keep myself on task/on schedule.
6. What grade do you expect to receive in this class?
A+ A A- B+ B B C+ C C- D+ D D- F
7. Do you have any study tips that you would recommend to other language learners?

Appendix B

Self-Efficacy Questionnaire

Scale: 1=Low, 4= High, *Circle best response*

1. I can always manage to solve language problems if I try hard enough. 1 2 3 4
2. If I decide to learn something, I can find means and ways to do it. 1 2 3 4
3. It is easy for me to stick with my aims and accomplish my goals learning French. 1 2 3 4
4. I am confident that I can communicate effectively in French. 1 2 3 4
5. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to approach learning tasks. 1 2 3 4
6. I can solve most language learning problems if I invest the necessary effort. 1 2 3 4
7. I can remain calm when facing a language problem because I can rely on my learning abilities. 1 2 3 4
8. When I am confronted with a language problem, I can usually find a solution. 1 2 3 4
9. If I am having trouble understanding in French, I can usually think of something to do. 1 2 3 4
10. No matter what comes my way, I am usually able to handle it. 1 2 3 4

Based on Schwarzer et al. (1997)

Culture and Sustainability: Lessons from the Oyster and Other Metaphors

Vicki Galloway

Georgia Institute of Technology

There was once a German archaeologist who deeply impressed the caretaker at Machu Picchu. "Ah," said the caretaker afterward, "he was the one who really understood what I showed him. He paused before each ruin, nodded his head slowly, and said: 'hmm'."

Howard Nostrand (1967, p. 2)

The world is your oyster! proclaims a promotional poster for a study-abroad program, confirming that the oyster-as-world, like all good metaphors, has done some morphing since the days of Shakespeare's *Merry Wives of Windsor*. Newer bands of shell material have repainted the mollusk metaphor, transforming it from ostracism, opportunism and exploitation to openness, opportunity and exploration, and thus an apt symbol for the intercultural experience. Indeed, Robinson's (1988) definition of *culture* as "a system of symbols and meanings" seems to evoke the very image of the oyster's constant production of shell layers: "past experience influences meaning, which in turn affects future experience, which in turn affects subsequent meaning, and so on" (p. 11). Metaphors are powerful in the economy of their complex bundling of experience. Lakoff (1993) contends that as mappings across conceptual domains metaphors help us grasp abstract concepts [such as *culture*] in more concrete terms. The metaphor of the oyster as world may thus guide us to look back at how we have mapped culture and perceived our culture-teaching mission in order to look ahead to the construction of new cultural metaphors from the intercultural construct of Sustainable Development.

I. Food for Thought

Ostreophagists and conchologists

In a 19th-century treatise on *Shell-fish: Their Ways and Works*, the British physician George Johnston (1850) laments two archetypes of oyster enthusiast and, curiously, in his characterizations we can see parallels to ways we have approached the teaching of worlds since the 1960s when psychologists, linguists and educators began to place cultural education at the forefront of language learning. The oyster-loving world, says Dr. Johnston, is made up of *ostreophagists* and *conchologists*. Of these, he says, the largest population is the former, the oyster eater, who

rips the plump body from its connecting fibers and in one quick slurp bolts whole and without question its exotic essence, taking neither note nor notice of the curious intricacies of its organization [or] its

wisely contrived network of nerves and blood vessels [...] one soft body swallowing up another without understanding, inquiry or investigation (p. 355).

Indeed, culture, says Vahdany (2005), “has always been touched but not hugged dearly enough” in the language classroom (p. 93). Today’s exhortations to close the language-culture gap and integrate culture into language teaching evidence a pedagogical legacy of culture disembedded and disembodied. Fast-food approaches whereby choice pieces of cultural tissue are plucked and processed for presentation have through the years confirmed to students the idea of culture as a quick dessert to language study. It has taken us a while as a profession to accept that culture learning is *slow food*, messy food.

Since the turn to communicative language teaching called for incorporation of culture as a *fifth skill* to be *highlighted alongside* language, we have struggled with how to insert *into* language the very earth from which language grows; to conform it, compress it and encapsulate it for consumption. Bucklin, writing in 1970 about Anglo and Latin differences, counseled an essentializing approach:

We can make a list of the things that they do and the things that we do. We can then weed out non-essentials, which are in effect the differences the foreigner accepts in a relatively short time. What is left are the traits that make the frustrated North American exclaim ‘I never will understand the mentality of these people’ (p. 306): Mexicans eat highly spiced foods; families are more extended than ours; time has no meaning; meals are at unusual hours; the Latin takes offense more easily than we do, is intransigent in his politics, doesn’t like to cooperate, and spends time in idle conversation when we think he should be working (306-7).

Wrongheaded as inventories of stereotypes seem at first blush, we might consider the extent to which American jumping stones still pass for culture teaching, with the words *more* and *less* accentuating contrastive cautions. As Crawford and McLaren (2003) put it, “we ogle the peculiarities of cultures different from our own and subsume their equivalencies” (p. 146).

As the early years of culture pedagogy saw us focused on the *what* of culture as a body of knowledge, serious efforts were devoted to the conception of frameworks and models that could guide selection of points essential to teach from the immense sociocultural whole. The major undertaking was seen as that of building the values/assumptions/behavior construct of the culture itself, as Nostrand (1967a) states: “the laborious task is describing the regularities in each culture; once that is done [...] the further step of developing broadmindedness becomes a manageable and exciting prospect of cross-cultural conversation” (p. 14).

Harkening the works of Hall (1976), Singer (1975) and Whorf (2012), Humphrey (2002) notes a long history of the *cultural criticality* approach that places emphasis on studying vital differences in cultural behaviors and assumptions as potential sources of communication breakdown in cross-cultural contexts. Beginning with Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck’s Values Orientation Theory (1961), which identified five common human concerns from which cultural values emerge, researchers across disciplines from psychology to management (e.g. Hofstede et al., 2010; Schwartz,

1994;Ting-Toomey, 2009; Triandis, 1995; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998) have sought usable theoretical constructs of cultural values variability, propagating the popularity of such nomenclature as the *individualism-collectivism* continuum. Such values dimensions have served as putative cross-cultural vantage points for attributing differences in behaviors to different sets of assumptions below the level of consciousness, often recognizing that we are not polar opposites, one from the other; rather, there is some of the other in each of us (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998).

Alas, in the haste to find an “absolute cultural grammar” (Shaules, 2007, p. 49), practitioners have often been romanced by the frameworks and constructs as cultural *traits* themselves, for there is a second type of ostraphile, according to Dr. Johnston: That is the *conchologist*, the shell collector, who seeks differences from which he can deduce geographies, assign species to categories, and mount his specimens for permanent display. The conchologist

rejects without inspection or deglutition the soft and tempting substance, and contents himself with the hard and unprofitable shell, without heeding whether it ever enclosed a living body. His is an oyster bed of choice unchipped specimens, all shells and no insides! (p. 355).

Whereas the conchologist sorts samples according to form and origin, the cultural taxonomist characterizes, classifies (and assesses the consequences of) difference as a sort of pre-existing and stable condition of demarcated political territories housing homogenous populations. Sidestepping internal organs, he superimposes on the world map a master template of dubious dichotomies, e.g. indulgence cultures vs. self-restraint cultures; masculine cultures vs. feminine cultures, passive cultures vs. active cultures, expediently scaling and gridding cultural mindsets to tuck them neatly and safely behind national borders where they are petrified into what Bhabha calls a sort of *muse imaginaire* of Western connoisseurship (Rutherford, 1990).

While some of the more questionable of these values catalogs have thankfully not settled into language classrooms, having been designed with a more utilitarian culture-for-specific-purposes aim, the heartiest and most accepted of the values dimensions, such as the individualism-collectivism continuum, do speak with authoritative voice in academic contexts where, unfortunately, their use may sometimes be warped to lazy caricature, as evidenced by the following from a widely used college text on *Intercultural Communication* (Pajewski & Enriquez, as cited in Neuliep, 2012):

Hispanics seem collectivistic across a variety of contexts, including academics [...] In school settings, Hispanic students tend to be co-operative, whereas White students tend to be competitive and individualistic. When Hispanic students work in groups, not everyone is expected to do his or her equal share. A group member who does not work is not sanctioned, while in the Anglo group, each is expected to do his or her share (p. 101).

Aside from the problematic of contrasting fabricated and imposed groupings as *cultures* (Anglos and Hispanics), we may ask what is to be taken from a generalization in which *collectivist* is given to mean *cooperative*, which is in turn given to mean the *absence of competitiveness*, presumably resulting in a low expectation that each will do his or her *equal share*. Thus, our collective unconscious where lie our judg-

ments and stereotyped images concludes that, absent competitiveness as a motor of responsible productivity, Hispanics must be shirkers. Compounding the profile is the racialization of the contrast (Hispanics vs. Whites), and thus the implication that pulling one's weight is an attribute of skin color. Holliday et al. (2010) warn of the risk of reification in use of such heuristic devices, "temporary models created as rough, unreal measures against which to look at a messy, real set of phenomena," provoking the question: "how powerful is the idea of collectivism and how far does it carry chauvinism? (p. 41-42).

Critics of the cultural taxonomist question not only methodologies of data collection from which constructs are derived (McSweeney, 2002), but the broad etic-emic question addressed by Pike in 1954: Is our knowledge objective or subjective? Lu (1998) argues that the constructs themselves are culture-bound products of Western-defined meanings; Miike (2003) judges them a "commitment to intercultural communication scholarship in Eurocentrism" (245). Taxonomists' tools, constructed to fit and be operated by their own hands, are themselves biased, leading to what Rimmington and Alagic (2008) refer to as *cultural agnosia*, the lack of cultural acuity that results when the designers' own cultural background affects their conceptualization of a dimension (p. 12). As such, linguistic, cultural and academic biases distort the complex fabric of a culture under study, extricating not necessarily what a target group deems as an essential value in its own culture, but rather the forced-fit attributions of the outsider who has chosen what big values (for the labels themselves are power-charged) to find missing in the Other. Above all, critics cite the absence of *person* in the static categorization of peoples that dispatches the inhomogeneity of nations to provide us the comfort of "secure meanings in a bedrock of our own prejudices" (Crawford & McLaren, 2003, p. 131).

Indeed, the utility of any values dimension framework in learning about other cultures lies more in what it reveals about ourselves and what we *select* to observe in another; about the assumptions and expectations assumed to characterize us as a people and the extent to which these are shared among members of our cultural group; and about the presence of equally valid options in the way humans perceive the world. Certainly one lesson to take from the conchologist would be the invitation that students critique their own utterances for detection of quantified comparisons; hypergeneralization from limited or idiosyncratic contexts; universalization (assuming a shared perspective); and emotionally charged colorations (*poor but happy, so nice, corrupt government*).

Crawford and McLaren (2003) stress that culture "is not some *grand hotel* reflective of a grand design and central authority" and "signs are not anchored the way they are in museums" (p. 131). Rather, an important difficulty in understanding the process of *intercultural learning* is that every situation is different and individuals differ widely in their responses to apparently similar situations. As Tompenaars and Hampden Turner (1998) point out, we are never purely individualists or purely collectivists. Missing from both the ostreophagist and conchologist mindsets is the idea of culture as a complex, dynamic, creative *process* that adapts to real-world material, political, and social contingencies; a historical process of making life meaningful; and a moment-to-moment process of refining understanding through *interaction* between individuals.

The (Inter)cultured Pearl

In the oyster community, Dr. Johnson tells us, all individuals are attached to the substrate and one another, yet each presents some particularity of contour or ornament; each individual's shell is layered with the accumulated experience of all the situations it has lived:

Its whole soul is concentrated in itself, yet open to, dependent on the vast sea [...] Perhaps sometime a random particle, a grain of sand intrudes on its peace of mind and ease of body and it coats the foreign irritant to fashion from annoyance a new and sparkling treasure (p. 355-6).

Indeed, we might liken the production of a pearl to the hybridization of ourselves as *intercultural* beings; rather than rejecting, neutralizing or converting the *foreign*, allowing it to live within our consciousness as an equally valid and important way of seeing. Bhawuk et al. (2008) distinguish between accepting the existence of cultural difference and allowing that difference to impact one's life. Crozet (2007) claims that the essence of *intercultural* learning is not the acquisition of knowledge but the transformative process of becoming a *different person*: a turning inward of cultural information through self-reflection, an enhanced sense of the role of culture/language in the construct of worldviews (one's own and others) and a conscious positioning of self when confronting difference (p. 6).

The notion of intercultural competence, as variously defined (Bennett, 1993; Byram, 1997; Deardorff, 2006) shifts the focus from culture as a stable identity or body of knowledge to a process of internal evolution and mediation, self-awareness and critical analysis, the ability to see relationships between cultures, and the growing of attitudes, skills and knowledge to interact successfully in intercultural contexts. Indeed, if we adopt the oyster as our world, its hinged shells might serve as a metaphor for the in-between meeting space of intercultural industry, the open yet protected space for intake, exchange, growth, and transformation. Robinson (1988) takes a synthetic perspective on this space, calling it the *color purple*: a productive, cognitive, perceptual and affective space of cross-cultural contact created by awareness of one's own cultural lens (e.g. blue), the recognition that a person from another culture has a different lens (e.g. red) and that, while unable to escape our cultural lenses, we can choose to overlap lenses (e.g. purple) to understand better the other's perspectives and arrive at shared meaning.

Rather than the broad strokes of cultural capture, perhaps the framework we now seek is something that can guide us into each other's complexity as well as our own while building transferrable intercultural skills, knowledge and receptivities. Watkins (2005) notes that it is only through our capacity to imagine the other as autonomous from ourselves and the way we need to see him or her that we can hear our own assumptions and recognize how accidental it is that we hold the views we do. Indeed, such a mindfulness shifts our approach to culture from expedient consumption of knowns to the exciting and unrushed investment in unknowns and from monologue to dialogue in which learners become seekers and sharers. Rimmington and Alagic (2008) describe this process as *selfing the other and othering the self*: I elicit your perspective; I summarize your perspective and share mine; I project myself

from your perspective and I elicit your reflection from my perspective. What is being advocated by many models of intercultural learning is the focus on connected, durable and transferable skills in *learning how to learn* about cultural others. Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle depicts this as a four-stage process consisting of concrete experience, reflective observation, integration with abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation, building on knowledge with problem-solving to adapt more effectively to same or similar events.

The Philosophy of the Oyster

There is a philosophy in the oyster, says Dr. Johnston: "portions of its frame [...] so constant in their presence and position [...] antitypes and anticipations of undeveloped senses [...] the first draughts of parts to be made out in their details elsewhere [...] each individual displaying self-similarity and recursiveness in part to whole as well as badges of relationship and affinity between self and others" (p. 355). Indeed, like much of the natural world, the oyster is made of fractals; its internal logic resists traditional geometries in which patterns appear simpler as we zoom in. On the contrary, fractals reveal their complexity only when magnified (Peitgen & Richter, 1986).

Lang (1997) sees culture also as a fractal phenomenon, contingent on perspective and scale. Not to be captured by squares or circles or components counted on fingertips, magnification reveals "bumps upon bumps upon bumps" (pp. 97-98): "Once blown up, any thread or filigree dissolves or, better, resolves into another infinitely layered realm of self-similar images" (pp. 98-99). Likewise, Seagh (2005) contends that culture is an abstraction from all the cultural imprints of the individuals that comprise the cultural formation: While we all have a socially acquired imprint in our mental apparatus, each person's cultural identity or *memotype* is individually constructed, unique to its formative experiences, but will also display similarity on the largest scales of nation, ethnicity, and religion/ideology. When individuals interact, their cultural imprints are brought into semantic alignment, constituting a sort of microculture, and these microcultures overlap, sometimes in conflict. We are as in Gleick's (1987) description of a fractal, that miracle of miniaturization in which every detail will be a universe of its own.

As a sort of broad mindset, the idea of fractality may be useful to us in the design of curricula, in the development of cultural lenses, in the structuring and de-structuring of learning tasks and in the focus on pattern *and* particularity. Deardorff (2009) contends that what is required is a holistic approach to intercultural education that goes beyond the conventional surface to a deeper understanding of the historical, political and social contexts and the construction of differences in shared historical processes. Simultaneously, however, we must zoom in to *ethnographies of the particular* (Abu Lughod, 2009) to appreciate not only the complexity and diversity of cultural variations, but cultural identity as a matter of *individual* imagination and enactment.

Fractality tells us that culture cannot be contained or packaged or perceived as direct relationships between products or practices and perspectives. Moreover, it counters the idea of fixing the parameters of our classroom cultural *material* at all, as every situation, every event, every act, every conversation, every word is a culture entree that loops and coils and projects onto others to provide a transformative journey

that is pretty much eternal. The notion that one's access to fractal *content* is governed by one's orientation tells us that we need different vantage points, voices, settings and temporal lenses. Indeed, everything around us, virtual and material, affords a new text to be interpreted for its relationship to other texts and to all texts. Exploring complexity and connection requires as well the wide-open plain of big issues and intractable questions that engage the diverse voices of a culture interacting with itself and with others. For Crawford and McLaren (2003) this means *problemetizing* cultural themes through provocative questions that motivate critical engagement in values of a culture to reveal cultural contradictions that reflect "not only the lived experience of the present humans responsible for the making of their own cultural world, but those groups whose voices have been marginalized or silenced" (p. 139).

The Sustainable Oyster

As ecosystem engineers, oysters are a model of sustainability, resilient and adaptive survivors of the harsh, stressful and changeable sea environments (Sjögren). Until recently, the mysteries of their vitality and self-healing properties have been explained solely by one scientific model: a strange, out-of-cellular-body process in which synthesis of ingredients for shell formation occurs outside cell walls and runs autonomously *without any direct control from the oyster itself* (Stephenson, 2014). New research, however, is refuting this model: Scientists have discovered deep within the oyster "busy intracellular factories where the 'bricks' of shell construction" are being made and where "cells appear to be crawling out of the oyster's body and transporting crystals wherever they were needed" (Stephenson, 2004, pp. 33-35). The process of production and repair is not coming from the outside after all, but from *within*.

A similar within-or-without debate is that of the impact of globalization on cultures, often viewed as the advancing flood of the Western world washing away distinctions and making culture obsolete and irrelevant. Indeed, the culture clash of globalization creates two contrasting illusions: One is that *our* way of life is under siege from outside. The other is that culture and cultural values are no longer relevant in a post-modern world, says Shaules (2007): The former is founded on a deep fear of cultural difference; the latter results from a naive blindness. In contrast to the uniform exterior of cell phones and Starbucks, Medina-Lopez-Portilla and Sinnigen (2009) remind us of the tensile strength and dynamism of cultural identities that, rather than museum pieces stagnant and frozen in time, evolve and hybridize with intercultural contact (Shaules, 2007, p. 249).

Indeed, argues Hymes (1975), "Intact tradition is not so much a matter of preservation as it is a matter of recreation, by successive persons and generations and in individual performances" (pp. 354-55). St. Claire (2007) employs a sedimentation metaphor to illustrate this process: The constant flood of images, artifacts and events on the cultural space of the landscape leaves behind a new layer of *sediment*, some of which washes off and some of which is integrated in a *re-presentation* of the past (the old present) from the perspective of the new present, containing meanings of both the past and present. "As unbounded, mutable, and emergent as life itself," Magoulick says, "cultural expressions are to be discovered, created, and re-created by each generation, even while that generation, in coming to life, will come with awareness of and connection to the past." (p. 1)

Tomlinson (1999) contends, in fact, that the phenomenon of globalization itself cannot be properly understood until grasped through the conceptual vocabulary of culture. Rather than homogenizing, technology and the mediatization of neoliberal globalization have triggered the self-mending responses of marginalized (particularly indigenous) communities to wound and threat of wound, with the result that “globalization has accentuated tribalization. People are simultaneously coming together and pulling apart” as ethnic, religious or linguistic affiliations and affinities get played up (Kumaravadivelu, 2012, pp. 11-12). While intensified values conflicts as well as their competing and contesting metaphors of individual, society, nature, time and space, pit an indigenous imaginary against a hegemonic discourse of the imaginary indigenous, willful acts of cultural repair and remaking bring the periphery to the plaza to create new cultural space as those excluded from the power play employ globalization’s tools to extend their reach physically and psychologically across previous boundaries, absorbing vitalizing substance from without for nourishing production from within.

For Kumaravadivelu (2008), understanding cultural sustainability means that “interlocking structures of power, class, race, spirituality, environment and so forth must be explicitly discussed as content” in the classroom (p. 158). For O’Sullivan (2002), it requires a shift of consciousness that dramatically and permanently alters our way of being in the world: an understanding of ourselves and our self-locations; of our relationships with other humans and with the natural world; of relations of power in interlocking structures of class, race, and gender and alternative approaches to living; and a sense of possibilities for social justice and peace and personal joy.

The World as Oyster

In this section we have mined the oyster-as-world metaphor to examine perceptions of culture and its teaching-learning enterprise: from an entitative existence abstracted from all circumstances or relations; to a complex dynamic process of co-dependent interaction; to a symbiotic, self-renewing and individuating system that intertwines with infinite others in the vast planetary sea. As products of cultures, metaphors filter our perceptions and guide our learning and action, giving us a conceptual handle on complexity. But whereas they provide the imagination with keystones, metaphors can capture only a partial image of complex realities (Metaphor Project 2006). Moreover, as self-fulfilling prophecies for how we ascribe the functioning of reality and formulate our visions and goals, metaphors can be inhibitors as well as enablers, say Barter and Russell (2013), who provide the example of the common medical metaphor “blight” applied to depressed urban areas to justify excision through radical surgery rather than seeking to enhance the life of the community. Likewise, the “marketplace of ideas” metaphor infuses innovation with profit-seeking competition rather than a sharing of revelations; our desire to “get back to nature” reflects man not as *part of* but as *apart from* the natural world--a “place” reserved for visitation--whereby, once distanced, nature becomes an adversary to tame or harness, the holder of “resources” to capture as efficiently as possible because, after all, time is money.

We might ask how compatible are our metaphors with those of other cultures. How adequate for the global challenges of sustainable development are our abun-

dant metaphors that mechanize, “monetise, militarize, and materialize” the world? (Goulah, 2008, p. 145). There are, in contrast, metaphors that speak to other ways of viewing the world in which environmental sustainability, for example, is less a matter of conservation of nature and more a matter of conversing with nature: The Quechua metaphor of the *ayllu* as both nature and society, a merged present-past-future space kept in balance by a community of reciprocity where no organism--plant, animal or mineral--is superior to another; the Maya metaphor of the *milpa*, a system of sustainable agriculture and a view of the world that binds together family, community and cosmos.

O’Sullivan (2012) envisions education for the 21st century as one that expands our horizon of consciousness as earthlings sharing a planet, a cosmological context that is “much more breathtaking than the market vision of our world” (p. 7). Moreover, Barter & Russell (2013) argue that critiquing our dominant metaphors for their compatibility with ideas of interdependence that are the backbone of *sustainable development* is the first step in designing metaphors that reflect new vistas of human possibilities. Needed, say the authors of the Metaphor Project (2006), are individual self-reflective metaphors that creatively redesign cognitive environments so that new opportunities become apparent, yet leave free space for the imagination to explore.

The following section highlights some principles of educating for sustainable development, how they might contribute to our mission as teachers of languages and cultures, and how we might catalyze learning experiences that develop intercultural sensitivities and a sense of O’Sullivan’s (1999) planetary interdependence. Along the way, we will hear students construct personal intercultural metaphors that reflect mind-opening moments in the context of overseas immersion in the oysterbed of Mexico City.

II. Sustainable Development: I-sight and Depth Perception

Man must now embark on the difficult journey beyond culture, because the greatest separation feat of all is when one manages to gradually free oneself from the grip of unconscious culture. ~Edward T. Hall (1976, pp. 139-240)

In 1967 Nostrand spoke of the transforming potential of a curriculum that would open ethnocentric minds, humble the superiority complex and build self reliance, responsibility, reflection and personal meaning. He called for language programs to be “horizontally coordinated” with learning across disciplines, and directed toward the development of “deep cultural knowledge” through immersive experiences, especially study abroad. Forty years later, his words echo in the Modern Language Association’s (2007) call for a structural and ideological transformation. Centralizing the role of overseas study and resituating the campus classroom as the place for structured learning that first sets the stage and later reinforces learning absorbed in study abroad, the MLA urges holistic approaches that are intellectually driven and interdisciplinary; structured to produce informed and capable interlocutors; situated in cultural, historical, geographic and cross-cultural frames; and attentive to reflection on stereotypes, competing traditions, background realities and the specific *metaphors* that inform culture.

Language learner demographics support such a paradigm shift: Today's students are not *en route* to literary scholars--only 6.1% of language majors pursue doctoral degrees (National Science Foundation as cited in MLA, 2007)—and their interest lies less in language *as* a career and more in language *in* a career—only 7.2% of overseas sojourners are FL majors (Allen, 2010). We are being asked to “imagine a new generation of highly skilled, multilingual Americans” (Chow) who are our future engineers, social scientists, business leaders, political activists, city planners, computer programmers, and healthcare workers. As language departments heed these invitations to become a vital part of their institutions' professional formation of *all* students, they find themselves participants in broader educational missions and agendas, engaged in new dialogues from which new sets of priorities emerge in preparing future citizens for the realities of international teamwork. Calls for content-based approaches that prepare learners to engage interculturally as active professionals in overseas contexts reflect the realities of our future engineer consulting on an innovative water distribution system in rural Peru; our future doctor assisting in the prenatal education of women in a Bolivian village; our future executive facing a land dispute that impedes his company's construction project in Mexico; or our social worker coordinating with an NGO in Guatemala for the improvement of rural education. Rather than export U.S. textbook solutions to such plausible scenarios, our future professionals will need to learn how to learn from and about cultural others, hear and accept the knowledge of others, communicate without presumption or arrogance, adapt to different needs, resources, traditions and beliefs, and adopt more expansive, inclusive, metaphors of “development.”

In its 1997 report, *Educating for a Sustainable Future*, the UNESCO cited sustainable development as the key issue of the 21st century and called for reshaping education to eschew the supremacy of hegemonial and ethnocentric approaches and promote understanding of development in its four interdependent dimensions: *environmental, economic, social and cultural*, typically illustrated by the interlocking circles of a Venn diagram, in which the center overlap is *human* well-being. Many institutions now proclaim sustainable development as a primary educational mission; yet its interpretation has tended toward the green and the greening (economic and environmental) in neglect of the more “invisible” human pillars of society and culture.

The last decade, however, has witnessed heightened discussion of the fourth lens of *cultural* sustainability, commonly viewed as the protection and enhancement of identities, tangible and intangible heritages, communities of beliefs and languages and cherished spaces and enduring relationships, including a culture's perceived relationship with the natural world. While acknowledging that in an era of homogenizing pressures, local histories, traditions, forms of linguistic, artistic and spiritual expression are among our most endangered resources and precious asset, UNESCO (2003) goes a step further, citing biological, cultural and human diversity not as an unchanging deposit in need of preserving, but as a “setting for continuous, unifying dialogue between all expressions of identity” (p. 7). The UNESCO has been emphatic in its declaration that sustainable development itself is a localized and contextualized concept in which “culture” is not just a dimension, but *a new anchor and entry point* for approaching the interrelationship of all dimensions: social, cultural, economic and environmental. Urging more involvement from the humanities and social sci-

ences in educating for sustainability, their report urges a flexible *intercultural* approach to educating for a sustainability ethic that explores the *interdependence* of all dimensions through multiple vantage points with a wide range of stakeholders; that is locally grounded but globally connected to expose diverse ways of thinking, valuing and acting; that is rooted in *cultural specificity* and the unique challenges of *culture-specific* realities, histories and political structures, including those of the marginalized. In other words, educating for sustainability is not simply casting an eye toward cultural patrimony when making economic decisions; rather, *culture is the eye itself*, the lens through which all dimensions of development must be seen. This *cultural eye* is what we aim to nurture in the language-learning enterprise.

Adopting a sustainability mindfulness for language and culture learning means, among other things, having a lens to give sight and vision, to zoom in and capture the angles to critically examine and engage in complex issues, events and dilemmas in terms of human meanings, connections and consequences. As a place-based and problem-based framework, sustainability is grassroots and of global impact, uniting past and present in future-oriented discussion. As an interdisciplinary concept, it relies on the knowledge and perspectives of many different fields at the same time that it begs de-territorialized thinking, a constant connection and massaging of learning, a longitudinal approach, and the engagement of students in the complexity of real-world relationships to incite passion and voice. The guiding principles of ESD (Educating for Sustainable Development) are, in fact, those that also guide our efforts toward intercultural communication (ICC):

- *Interconnectedness and Impact.* As holistic concepts, ESD and ICC insert learners into the real-life tangle of unanswerables to promote nonlinear “systems thinking.” In contrast to “event-oriented thinking” that observes a problem, attributes a cause and delivers a fix, Senge (2006) sees systems thinking as “thinking inside the box,” recognizing that a change to any part or connection affects an entire system (p. 74-75).
- *Interaction and Inclusiveness.* “Where different ways of looking at the world meet, dissonance is created and learning is likely to take place” (Wals & Jickling, 2002, p. 230). At the heart of sustainable development are human stakeholders as decision-makers and stewards, humans as individuals of infinite diversity, humans in cultures with different systems of meaning, humans with generational investment in traditions and historical memories and ways of enduring in the world. Sustainability as an interactive framework opens the mind to conceptual connections formerly unseen; inserts us into contexts for which we have no scripts, to connect to people with whom we may not have considered connecting and integrates diverse narratives for understanding global issues in a local context and local issues in a global context. Sustainability encompasses *all* human beings, not just some people some of the time (Barter & Russell, 2013, p. 147), bringing to the fore issues of power relations, equity, justice, aspiration, responsibility and fostering attitudinal values of curiosity, tolerance of ambiguity and withholding of judgment.
- *Introspection, Investigation, Investment.* ESD is a mind-opening reflective process of developing an understanding of ourselves and our self-location, of seeing

alternatives and possibilities, of constructing durable habits of critical inquiry, the skills of information literacy in research, and an acceptance that our knowledge is always incomplete.

- *Inversion.* The ESD classroom, like the ICC classroom, resituates the traditional teacher-learner structure: Students are viewed as repositories of knowledge and speak as experts; teachers view themselves as both catalysts and learners (Wals & Jickling, 2002). Likewise, the ESD-ICC classroom reverses our image of language-culture teaching: rather than integrating culture into language, allowing language to emerge organically from cultural content, contexts and communicative needs.
- *Inseparability of language and culture.* Understanding sustainability as a *culture-specific* concept means accessing its voices through the language that codifies perspective. It is only through the language that we can excavate a culture's powerful metaphors or access the subtleties in sparring discourses. Indeed, perhaps nowhere are we more deceived by translation than in the seemingly neutral language of sustainability itself. The language of sustainability contains some powerful words, not just for the explicit sense we think they have, but for their implicit association and cultural charge. What is meant by *developed* and *developing*? What do we imply about ourselves and about others by our use of these words? Why are complex phenomena so often explained away by the word *poverty* and what assumptions does this word secretly index for us? In the U.S. we may proudly proclaim our value of *individualism*, but does this word evoke the same positive sense in another culture? And if it does not, does that mean respect for the individual is absent? Is *history* just a textbook subject or is it our subjectivity itself? Likewise, does *tradition* imply old-fashioned, primitive, in need of modernization? What is *modern*? Can we be modern and eschew Western technology? Is that *progress*? As O'Sullivan (2012) states: "creative visionary education must include a conception of development that will transcend the limitations of our western ideas" (170).

Thus, sustainability as used here has a fourfold reference: 1) sustainable development as interdisciplinary content--that is, an issues-based approach and set of lenses to direct the situated cultural eye to the connection of economy, environment, society and culture; 2) sustainable development as intercultural process, aimed at the emergence of self awareness, emancipatory skills of critical and creative thought and reflective habits to build learner autonomy in *learning how to learn* about other cultures; 3) sustainable development of communicative skills and strategies sensitive to diverse stakeholders, the contexts of discourses and the semantic traps of words; and 4) sustainable development as ethic and attitude; a sense of connection, consequence and responsibility and an awareness of the potential impacts of decisions, especially as they relate to powerless groups.

The examples here are drawn from a faculty-led study abroad immersion program in Mexico City, termed an OVER-SCEES program by Kelly Comfort (personal communication, June 5, 2014) for its focus on turning the cultural eye toward the four interdependent dimensions: Social, Cultural, Environmental and Economic Sustainability. The intensive seven-week program is conducted entirely in Spanish and enrolls students of intermediate-level proficiency (low to high) in all academic

disciplines (but primarily STEM fields) with the aim of stretching language skills and intercultural competence toward professional-oriented contexts. The curriculum is content-based and interdisciplinary, using only authentic texts (oral, written and visual) and has both predictable and unpredictable elements, consisting, in part, of a fixed content designed to foster a sense of Mexico's historical development and, in part, a set of integrated experiential and fieldwork components designed to connect what Kumaravadivelu (2008) identifies as the four realities of cultural life: the global, mediatized and technological reality, the national or institutional reality, the social reality and the personal reality of individuals. Extra-classroom components include homestay, fieldwork tasks, professional site visits (e.g. businesses, government, NGOs and social enterprises), service learning, and a final case-study project. Although constant language feedback is provided, there is no syllabus of grammar topics or vocabulary lists; rather, the language is the medium for learning content and context is the resource for stretching language (Stoller, 2002) through the rigors of the content, through communicative needs expressed by students, and through the discourse demands of a variety of intercultural tasks (e.g. surveying and reporting, interviewing, contacting businesses and professionals via phone and email, presenting site visit reports, conducting ethnographies and case studies, developing advertising or public service announcements, formulating cogent argument in debates).

It has been said that the development of civilizations is essentially a progression of metaphors (Metaphor Project, 2006) and, indeed, the fixed-content component of the program as described in Galloway (2006) traces Mexico's development to the present challenges of sustainability by excavating the monster metaphors, such as *maíz* (maize), that fractal their way through Mexican economy, politics, law, commerce, spirituality, community identity and family, in continual re-appropriation and re-signification from pre-Columbian narratives to corporate advertising and international trade agreements. Mexico's story is an unending construction of new discourses of power from the palimpsestic words, objects and images whose agglutinated meanings hold the minds and hearts of its peoples. While course content provides the chronology of Mexico's story, it is one that constantly loops and coils, cycling back and forth to give pastness to present.

A substantial part of the program's content, however, is non-fixed, driven in directions generated by student experiences or insights, ethnographic and fieldwork tasks, and project selection and investigation areas, as well as current events and issues reflected in local news, dialogue and debate. All students, for example, dedicate one day per week to a *tequio*, or service learning project, with a local NGO, social enterprise or community outreach program. The *tequio* itself, an ancient aztec custom of required community service that is as much a part of Mexican society today, gives glimpse of a value system that weights the collective as *part* of the individual. It is generally these field experiences that significantly shape the final case-study project, in which students work in committees (assisted frequently by their Mexican university peers) to identify a concrete issue or situation related to Mexico's sustainable development, for example, from water access, education, unemployment, land use, health care, energy, to indigenous artisanry or the national film industry. Case study tasks consist of identifying a problem via a news article or other local source (an important

step that situates and frames the problem from a local perspective rather than as outsider imposition); conducting background research in the language to expand their knowledge of the problem's roots and history of proposed solutions; conducting an impact assessment by analyzing the problem from all four sustainability perspectives; identifying at least three local professionals or experts positioned to offer diverse perspectives on causes and solutions (e.g. a vendor or shopkeeper, a businessperson, a lawyer, a government official, a social activist, an artist), and requesting and scheduling chat time with these individuals, using appropriate phone and email protocols. Students then conduct 30-minute videotaped chats with their professional sources and select segments of these interviews to caption (in Spanish) and integrate with their research for an oral committee report and written executive summary.

Indeed, with sustainability as an intercultural mindfulness, everything becomes a case study, in which the teacher's role is to help connect, rather than direct, via a set of learning lenses that trigger critical thought and reflection. Begging once more the indulgence of our now-exhausted bivalve, the way the lenses of the *cultural eye* fit together evokes the image of an oyster shell: banded horizontally with overlapping arcs of awareness, through which run vertical striations of bidirectional dialogue to connect learning. Not to be confused with stages of learning or instruction, each band or layer is a transparent lens applied simultaneously with its under-layers, as activity feeds into and flows from one without obscuring the others.

1. We may envision the first lens as the I-focused eye: impressions and observations initially understood only in terms of one's own cultural template. While questioning one's eye is the first learning layer, it underlies and is activated in all subsequent layers.
2. The second layer is that of cross-cultural meta-awareness, exploring the general notions of "culture" (e.g. the existence of different realities, the use of symbolic systems) and the phenomena of culture-culture contact, and learning how to *see* not in terms of fixed meanings but as a matter of possibilities and plausibilities.
3. The third layer is a culture-general or *etic* lens and employs the cognitive framework of cultural commonalities to approach the exploration of differences in our cultural unconscious via the most basic set of questions human cultures share: a) what is self in relation to others; b) what is society and self in society; c) how do we perceive and interact with the natural world; d) how do we sense time, its rhythm and continuation; and e) how do we perceive space, physical and psychological. Beginning with these universals helps to convey the idea that similarity, far from a surface phenomenon, is to be found deep in the human condition and the need of cultural groups to structure their realities; what makes values different is how groups *prefer* to respond to these needs in the construction of cultural realities from different imaginaries. Robinson-Stuart & Nocon (1996) suggest guiding learners to focus on a temporary framework of universals as an initial point of departure so that the tendency to exaggerate and generalize difference can be undermined with positive affective and perceptual results (436).

4. A fourth lens is the *emic* exploration of inner industry, a fleshing out of how certain values preferences and orientations become perceptible in the routine behaviors of groups in situations. It is with this lens that we meet “the stakeholders” to access the simultaneous existence of multiple, indeed conflicting, values and assumptions.
5. The fifth lens is that of the interlocking dimensions of sustainable development, which serve as a template for deep exploration of issues, problems or dilemmas from an insider, multi-voiced, values-systems perspective. It is through this lens that problems reveal multi-causality, tangled historical roots and the complexity of resolution.
6. The sixth lens is that of the sustainability ethic, as issues are taken into the global arena where clashes of values will be amplified in the grand dramas of power-players and space-makers. It is through this lens that we examine and debate the human impacts and consequences of policies, decisions and actions at local, national and international levels to foster a sense of what O’Sullivan (1999) calls “planetary consciousness.”

Like other big ideas, such as language proficiency or intercultural communication, educating for sustainable development is a wishful concept. There is no ‘aah, I have arrived’ point at which we can claim ‘I’ve done it, I need do no more.’ Rather, it is all about the *aha!* moments, the flashes of insight that, if left unexpressed and unconnected to learning, may fade from learners’ minds. Perhaps these instances of personal revelation, *if we knew about them*, might be more valuable to our mission as teachers of language and culture than all the frameworks and models our research has devised. As Moeller and Nugent (2014) state: “The possibility of self-awareness and identity transformation will only exist once students are given the opportunity to recognize where they begin the journey.” (4) In the effort to capture these *aha* moments and, indeed, even trigger them, one of the learning tasks during the program is the individual development of an intercultural metaphor that derives from a moment of personal insight or connection. Some of these student metaphors have been integrated into the following discussion, in which a thematic thread of the Mexican marketplace is used to illustrate how the various lenses can give depth perception to the cultural eye in learning for sustainability. Student metaphors occupy the entire range of types identified by Denroche (2014); for example, attitude or emotion shift, explanation, reconceptualization, analogy and learning connection. All metaphors are presented orally to the class in their chosen format; thus, no attempt is made here to recreate them in their original Spanish.

Sight-seeing

Thinking for sustainability jars our complacency by making us examine our own conceptual baggage to recognize that sometimes our know-how just doesn’t know how. So too, developing the intercultural eye necessarily shocks conditioned ways of seeing that limit the types of information we are able to perceive and process. Opening the mind to other associative possibilities invites conflict essential to understanding.

Students' first task in Mexico City is to take photos as they walk to their host-families' homes. One of these, purloined for discussion in the classroom, shows a tranquil plaza of the type found along the tree-lined avenues of Mexico City's Colonia Roma neighborhood. Centered in the far background of the photo is a statued fountain surrounded by benches on which several children are playing. In the foreground of this photo is the avenue itself, strewn with scattered items of litter, including an unfolded newspaper. The photo was shown to the class for open discussion.

Predictably, the first thing students saw was "trash". How do we see this trash? Trash can mean a bad neighborhood, students said. Poverty. Trash is lawlessness, disrespect, laziness. Messy people have no pride. Claiming her photo, the student explained why she selected to see and capture this scene, for the trash had indeed been her focal point. It had caught her eye because it marred the view and confirmed her stereotype: 'I was worried about what I'd gotten myself into and I saw something that fit my fear about Mexico and where I'd be living.'

This photo, seen another way as the suburban eye settling in lived urban streets already portrayed by U.S. media, became a visual metaphor of sorts for the distortion of confirmation bias, the tendency to draw out and interpret information in a way that confirms held beliefs. Indeed, unbeknownst to us, overseas sojourners are giving sense in one way or another to everything they see and hear at every moment in their new environment. Yet Wright (2000) notes the absence of studies that investigate patterns in students' initial perceptions about another culture, in what is selected for mental photograph, lingered processing and ultimate assembly into personal and unique C2 montages. Allen et al. (2006) contend that deep cultural understanding cannot be guaranteed if students are limited to their own devices and perspectives when attempting to comprehend their new context. Because so many things go unvoiced, hanging like shadows in the back of minds, the most dangerous place for student sojourners is the hiding space of silence; what is needed, rather, are risk-free, nonjudgmental spaces for the complex dialog of the moment, for wondering, hypothesizing, reframing and re-synthesizing perspectives, airing confusions and frustrations, at the same time that learners are becoming comfortable with the idea that their cultural template is framing them.

As Porto (2003) observed of learners stuck in their own way of seeing: they "approached otherness from a generally ethnocentric position, overlooked incongruencies with their own cultural codes, failed to recognize the importance of a larger context for cultural practices, assumed that many aspects of the other culture or subculture were similar to their own, and assimilated the unknown to the known" (p. 358). Guest (2002) cites a tendency to over-attribute culture as cause: "When we interact with people from our own culture, we tend not to culturize them, but to ascribe personalities to them. Why then, do we interpret the behavior of a foreigner as if it is entirely a product of culture?" (p. 157).

All good metaphors are multilayered, and our "trash photo" would have much more to offer than a lesson in I-sight. Much like our always incomplete observations and cultural knowledge, photos are boundaried and cannot entirely situate themselves in their context. Indeed, the importance of *context* was an early lesson learned painfully well, as recounted in the following personal metaphor.

Aaron's Metaphor: The No of Yes

Aaron's story opens as a question to the class: How do we know we have communicated what we think we have? He had met a girl through friends of his host family's neighbors and, walking her home, invited her to see a movie the next night. She said "yes". The next night he went to her home, but no one was there. Later, with nothing to do, he went to his host's neighbor's home. And there was the girl, hanging out with her friends. Embarrassed, he left immediately before she saw him. Why had she said *yes* but meant *no*? The first reaction of his classmates was to inquire about *context*: Where were you when you invited her, was she in a hurry, were you alone or with others? Then they turned to *language*: What *exactly* did you and she say? *How* did she say yes, verbally *and* nonverbally? The next avenue was to consider the girl's behavior *idiosyncratic*: she forgot, she was saving face and avoiding mutual discomfort. The discussion then turned to their own cultural framework and the *individuality* of situations: How would they refuse an unwelcome invitation? It depends. Culture is not, after all, a fixed set of values and behaviors, but an imagination of possibles in which each situation will trigger different desired options in each individual. Ultimately Aaron had mustered the nerve to ask the girl what had taken place. Indeed, she had said 'yes' and meant 'yes', but in the assumed context of a group activity. She had expected him to just join the group, who would all *maybe* see that movie later. (How Mexican of her.)

Our *trash photo* could not extend itself backward or forward in time to access the pastness and futureness in that moment of its capture. Were we able to see beyond its edges to its temporal context, however, we might construct from it an entire cultural narrative. Shot at the end of a Saturday, the photo shows the uncollected debris of a *tianguis* or itinerant street market, a pre-Columbian custom that has morphed into its unique expression in the contemporary urban setting as part of Mexico's informal economy. As a space of unauthorized commercial activity, it juxtaposes an indigenous market imaginary with the globalized, technologized world of malls and superstores.

For initial exploration of values in the marketplace, students conducted ethnographies first in the municipal market--the permanent, government-monitored enterprise whose variety of goods represents an alternative to both the *tianguis* and commercial giants. The aim of the ethnography was for students to connect culturally: first to their sense of smell, taste and touch as well as sight in an attempt to produce the most particularistic and provocative description; then to their setting: What are the spaces? How do you know? How are they organized and occupied?; finally, to eavesdrop and chat with the people: Who are the vendors? How do they interact with each other and with their clients and with you? How long have they worked there? What personal stories can they tell you? What are their products, how are they purposed and prepared and combined, where do they come from, what is done with those that don't sell? As a space where culture, society, economy and environment merge, the market serves not only as an affective and sensory awakening, but as a meaning awakening as well.

Annie's metaphor: Maíz is Mexico

- ¿Es maíz? pregunto a la vendedora
- Es *elote*, me contesta
- ¿Pero es maíz, no?
- Es *elote*
- ¿Pero no es maíz realmente?
- E-L-O-T-E

'At the time, I didn't understand the vendor's impatience. She seemed rude and it made me angry. Now I understand that she was simply clarifying that she sold *elote* [young, fresh corn] and not *maíz* [dried kernels]. For me, *maíz* was corn and corn was *maíz* and *elote* was just another name for it. This exchange was my entrance into the world of Mexican maize, a world where everything does not have translation.' Annie's metaphor, presented during the final week of the program, looks back with a new perspective on her first confusing encounter in the market. Initially frustrated by the vendor's refusal to see her "corn" perspective, Annie recites the differences between several of the words that have now become part of her maize vocabulary, concluding that one word is insufficient to express all the meanings of this foundation of Mexican life and spirit. Far from a mere American side dish, Annie notes, *maíz* is part of the mental diet of all Mexican peoples, its "beard and teeth" evoking its humanness. First she compares her supermarket corn with Mexico's *elote*: 'Corn is bright yellow, soft, with uniformly even kernels. *Elote* is harder, duller in color, more diverse and irregular. My corn is probably genetically modified. *Elote* is organic, not only in its production, but in its meaning as the Mayan structure of the universe and origin of the human species. My *corn* is anonymous, a disconnected commodity that feeds industry and fuels motors; *maíz* is the people impacted by the policies that protect that industry and so is also marginalization and migration and monopoly, and resistance and revolution. Corn is Monsanto, *maíz* is the *milpa*, the story of Mexico, the challenges of sustainable development.

Directing students' attention to the perception of space (physical and psychological) in the municipal market stimulates a wealth of observations and emotions. Students commonly express revulsion at the intrusion of the sight and smell of exposed animal parts and organs into that of the fragrant fruits and flowers and insist that the meat should be relocated elsewhere. In chatting with vendors they learn that no assignment of vendor space is made in the government-supervised municipal market; yet, habitual use of a space implies informal proprietorship and respect for the belongingness of spaces to others, often passed down through generations of family. What particularly jars students at first, however, is that within this space of commercial transaction, within each vendor's space, is the space dedicated to the syncretic cultural figure of the Virgin of Guadalupe.

Taylor's Metaphor: An Altered View of "Altar"

Taylor's metaphor of the domestic *ofrenda* captures a psychological space dilemma. She shares her first impression of the "altar" in her host family's home, of the type that can be found in any Mexican home: This must be a very religious woman and, since Taylor was not herself religious, she felt discomfort and fear of

being judged. She found the display “inappropriate” for the living room and even a bit scary, and was puzzled that she never saw the *señora* go to church; in fact, she worked Sundays as a store clerk. Taylor confesses that she avoided even looking at this altar with its photos of the deceased husband surrounded by candles, the figure of a suffering crucified Christ, the ubiquitous Virgin of Guadalupe. It was not until the Virgin of Guadalupe was discussed in class as a *cultural* metaphor that she decided to venture a closer look. She explains that mixed in with the religious and cultural icons were objects whose meaning she could not discern: a shell, a miniature guitar, assorted figurines. As she examined it for the first time, her host mother approached and spoke to her. And it was hearing her host mother’s story that joined this collection of artifacts to embed them in personal significance and emotional value: how the woman’s husband had suffered a long and painful illness, how she had taken strength and comfort from family and friends both during his illness and still many years after his death. The shell, the guitar, the photos told stories of their times together. Taylor concludes with her reflection on the *ofrenda* as sacred space of memory and honor, a space of connection. And it was in this space that she connected to her host family as well. She posed this question: How would your *ofrenda* tell your cultural and personal story? What memories do you honor?

In the municipal marketplace, similar discomfort is often expressed regarding the space *feel*: ‘In the grand market I felt like an intruder, an uninvited person at a club meeting who was interrupting a conversation.’ ‘It was hard to find ways to get the women to chat with me, even after I bought something.’ In contrast to a view of the marketplace as impersonal, goods-centered, consumer focused and competition-driven, chats and overheard conversations with vendors revealed a tightly knit social space of friends and families, where successful transactions were only a part of the dynamic and where relationships between the women (for this is a distinctly gendered space) sometimes seemed illogical to students: ‘How can one woman sell the same avocado at the same price side by side with another woman and not feel *competition*? How can they make money that way?’ And ‘how can one vendor, whose avocados are not yet ripe, take one from another vendor and sell it as her own, and then keep chatting with her as if nothing happened?’ Either there were no rules here, or the rules were very different.

Subsequent visits to NGOs such as Semillas (dedicated to indigenous women’s entrepreneurship and financial stability), to the *Tianguis Indígena EECO* (indigenous network dedicated to economic solidarity and social equality), to a women-run microfinancing cooperative and a fair-trade community, helped students fill in some these blanks, introducing the ideas of solidarity economies, use value over exchange value and alternative currencies, while hearing personal stories of the impact of globalization and NAFTA market structures on local issues of equity, food sovereignty, community lands, unemployment, migration and family articulation and stability. Indeed, it was one of these visits that inspired the following student metaphor.

Dasha’s Metaphor: Paper Flowers

Lippman (1922) says that for the most part we do not first see and then define, we first define and then see, selecting what our cultural mind has already defined for us and perceiving it in a form stereotyped for us by our culture. One of the themes

that predictably produces a rush to judgment, especially among female students, is that of gendered spaces. Students, for example, quite commonly denounce as unfair and discriminatory the courtesy practice in Mexico City of reserving certain metro cars for “women and children only” during rush-hour transit. Dasha’s story, while of the same bent, is unique in its insight and introspection. It is set in the context of a service-learning project in Michoacan. The leaders of a fair-trade farming cooperative had planned for the students to spend the day assisting in the harvest of guavas on one of the *ranchos*. On arrival the students gathered in the basketball court of the village. And there they waited, as the men of the village stood around leisurely chatting. After an hour, the students grew uncomfortable and impatient: When were they going to be allowed into the field? Suddenly, down the hill came the women of the *ranchito*, who settled in the court to chat with the students. Dasha confesses she did not want to *waste time* conversing with these women because she was at the cooperative to have the new experience of harvesting the field. Another full hour passed until finally word began to spread (this indirectness of communication would form another layer of analysis) that the group would not be allowed to go into the field with the men because of the group’s preponderance of females (23 of a group of 27). Instead, the women of the ranch warmly invited the girls to their homes. All of the girls accepted except Dasha and a classmate. Dasha tells of how the two sat stewing in the basketball court all day, angry that they did not get what was promised them, refusing to take seconds in the gendered space of the women. Hours later, the other girls returned excitedly displaying elaborate newspaper flowers, which they had been taught to make by the women. On reflection, Dasha explains how the paper flower that she never created symbolized the stubbornness of her own “feminism” template that had ironically spurned the women and the opportunity to partake of their world. She then adds another layer of reflection to this symbol: how women both create within their space and expand their space through this creativity. Here is paper, the ancient symbol of masculine, wrought by women into the symbol of their gender, the flower; the newspaper, symbol of global communication, connected to the local by women through tradition. It was the women, through their improvisational arts of the home, who turned trash into treasure, cultivating as in the field the values of the fair trade cooperative itself: resourcefulness, conservation, cultural continuity, sustainability. It was the *women*, not the men, who had dictated where Dasha belonged. In true *feminist* principle, the women had made their space.

Experiences in and discussions of the marketplaces and cooperatives were a small but important part of the emergence of a different perception of individual and group, of social relations and work, of time and its permanence and passing, of the connection between humans and the plant and animal world, and of quality space, appropriated space, improvised space. The real impact of these values differences, however, was to come from a close-up of the *tianguis*, the unlicensed and unregulated itinerant street markets whose makeshift stalls, elaborate tangles of improvised electrical connections, and hodgepodge of merchandise from global market knock-offs to repaired or repurposed appliances to elaborate hand-women textiles, are part of Mexico’s massive informal economy, estimated by some to be as high as 60 percent.

In referring to the articulated relationships that space has with society, Lefebvre (1974) refers to two types: *dominated* space, in which practices and technolo-

gies impose new forms on pre-existing space, and *appropriated* space, in which natural space is modified according to the needs or habitual uses of a group. As implied by its name “Wal-Mex”, Mexico’s Wal-Mart captures the image of the top-down space dominator, whereas the *tianguis*, rooted in prehispanic traditions and hooked into today’s indigenous identity, is the space appropriator (Mete, et al, 2012). In Mexico City, these two paradoxical aspects of the country’s economy often coexist, as two different working cultures collide: “on the one hand the global(ized) US market and on the other hand the Mexican traditional model, with its own roots and rules, considerably shaped by a tough culture of poverty” (Mete et al., 2013, p. 9).

In the *tianguis*, student ethnographies focus on much the same elements as in the municipal market. Students observe that work is, once again, very much a social affair; vendor space is, once again, predominantly indigenous and female. Space ‘ownership’ is again a matter of habitual occupation but, positioned between legal and illegal, functions in the *tianguis* via the facilitation, protection, negotiation and mediation of networks of *tianguis* leaders and local authorities. Moreover, in contrast to the climate of the municipal market, where students had perceived a closed social system, the *tianguis* had an open, inviting feel of *fiesta*, family, inclusiveness and abundant conversation.

Indeed, more than a reaction to poverty, the *tianguis* is an economic system, social structure, and political ecosystem that fills the cracks to give “a sense and content and shape to public space,” modifying “the anonymous, ephemeral, transient and partial space that constitutes the core of the dimension of the modern age” (Duhau & Giglia, cited in Mete, 2012, p. 5). It fulfills not only the employment need for those blocked from formal routes by bureaucracy, resources or ascribed status, but the need for social network, interpersonal ties and deep links to local cultural heritage and traditional practices. The *tianguis* is a testament to the ability of culture to shape urban environments (Mete, 2012) and it is a lesson in sustainable development.

Mexico City’s own controversy over its *ambulantes* or street vendors in the tensions between intrinsic and instrumental values hearkens the student photo that opened this discussion, as *trash talking* is indeed part of the city’s discourse. Recently, in the effort to attract tourists (who viewed the *tianguis* as dirty and dangerous), the city undertook a very controversial “clean-up” and gentrification of its main plaza that swept out *tianguis* (the “blight” metaphor), relocating vendors to authorized sites at the city’s periphery. Students were asked to examine in detail the roots of the conflict and the impacts of the city’s action as a sustainability dilemma, attending to the interdependence of cultural, social, economic and environmental dimensions. As systems thinking counsels analysis through all contributing factors and assessment of potential short-term and long-term impacts of solutions on its diversity of stakeholders, this was a task that could not be confined to the made-in-USA minds of our classroom: Students invited their Mexican university peers to participate in a roundtable discussion of the intricately entwined issues that embed the *tianguis* in cultural psyches and the myriad human impacts of their uprooting.

Several final case-study projects have derived from some of the themes directly or indirectly addressed in this thematic “market” thread, such as the women’s movement, indigenous entrepreneurship, and government plans for tourism expansion. Luke’s case study, in particular, stands out for its provocative question related very

directly to the *tianguis* discussion: Is the new informal economy a virtual one? His project explored through the lenses of sustainable development the growth and implications of online crowdsourcing in Mexico. In chats with several young entrepreneurs, motives for social-media solicitation of gifted start-up funds fleshed out not only the problems of inadequate resources and unresponsive institutional financing structures for formal entrepreneurship, but a *tianguis*-like longing for 'a constant cultural connection', and 'a type of personal and social friendship and trust.' These are youth,' says Luke, 'who understand their country and the frustrations of its peoples, who have a strong nationalism, and who are willing to improvise, to adapt, 'to do things they don't know how to do.' They are integrating the virtual world into the concrete community, linking online solicitations to donation-delivery parties and social events and, in this process, forming real-life bonds and social networks as they work to construct their futures.

Sylvie's Metaphor: Hecho en México with an X

'My Spanish friend spells Mexico with a *j* (Méjico),' Sylvie reports telling her host mother the first day. 'Oh no, you can't do that,' the mother replies. 'The *X* is our history.' Sylvie's metaphor begins with her research on scholars' belief that the original [3] sound of the *x* in "Mexicas" (Aztecs) evolved into a *j* sound due to Spanish orthography, and she takes this as significant: The *X*, she says, is the convergence of two very different belief systems. For the indigenous peoples the *X* is the structure of the universe, a reflection of the heavens on earth and the sacred duality of dualities that is equilibrium. For the European peoples, it is the cross of Christianity. But, Sylvie says, the *X* is a symbol that also eliminates, crosses out, as some peoples are marginalized, excluded in decision making. And an *X* in mathematics is an unknown. In the middle of this country's name, Sylvie continues, is an *X* that is *una encrucijada* (crossroads). Mexico is at a crossroads and what is unknown is whether one set of values will eradicate another or if its diverse peoples will converge through a dialogue of sustainability. The *X* in my culture is also a kiss, Sylvie says, which I send to the Mexican people who have made this country my second home.

Conclusion

We think we know a culture until we meet the people. We think we understand sustainability the abstraction until we are face to face with its decision making. Diversity, the fundamental principle of sustainability, makes things complex. The small and slow mantra of educating for sustainable development might guide not only our students' understanding of themselves and others in intercultural communication, but our own focus and expectations for student gains. There are immense challenges in accepting such a mission, not only in the new ways it requires us to stretch our learners, but in the ways it requires each of us as teachers to stretch ourselves, to reach beyond our own educational backgrounds and to become collaborators with learners. Indeed, imagining and experimenting with new ways to address the challenges of sustainable development through intercultural growth is part of the excitement and energy of language teaching in our era as we guide our future global citizens to think in links, think in context, think in time, think in people, think in consequences and think in responsibility. We are not, as Walker (2012) interprets

the oyster metaphor, trapped inside a shell, unable to break out, forced to live with its finite and declining resources, powerless to make the best use of the treasures that lie within. If the world is our oyster, may it be instead the one that creates the intercultured pearl.

References

- Abu-Lughod, L. (2009). Writing against culture. In E. Lewin (Ed.), *Feminist anthropology: A reader* (pp. 153-169). Philadelphia: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Allen, H. W. (2010). Language-learning motivation during short-term study abroad: An activity theory perspective. *Foreign Language Annals*, 43(2), 27-49.
- Allen, H. W., Dristas, V., & Mills, N. (2006). Cultural learning outcomes and summer study abroad. In M. Mantero (Ed.), *Identity and second language learning: Culture, inquiry, and dialogic activity in educational contexts* (pp. 189-215). Charlotte, NC: Information Age.
- Barter, N. & Russell, S. (2013). Organizational metaphors and sustainable development: Enabling or inhibiting? *Sustainability Accounting, Management and Policy Journal*, 4(2), 145-162.
- Bennett, M.J. (1993). Towards ethnorelativism: A developmental model of intercultural sensitivity. In R.M. Paige (Ed.), *Education for the intercultural experience* (2nd ed., pp. 21-71). Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.
- Bhawuk, D. P., Sakuda, K. H. & Munusamy, V. P. (2008). Intercultural competence development and triple-loop cultural learning: toward a theory of intercultural sensitivity. In S. Ang & L. Van Dyne (Eds.), *Handbook of cultural intelligence: Theory, measurement and applications* (pp. 342-355). Armonk, NY: M.E. Sharpe.
- Bucklin, B (1970). Anglo and Latin: The cultural difference. In Balder, R. W. (Ed.), *Proceedings: Pacific Northwest Conference on Foreign Languages*, 21, 306-311. EDRS: ED 044 977.
- Byram, M. (1997). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Chow, L. (2014). Imagine a new generation of highly skilled multilingual Americans. In Moving America Forward. Available from, <http://nationswell.com/universities-stem-foreign-language-study-abroad/>
- Crawford, L. M. & McLaren, P. (2003). Critical perspective on culture in the second language classroom. In D. L. Lange & M. Paige (Eds.), *Culture as the core: Perspectives on culture in second language learning* (pp. 127-157). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Crozet, C. (2007). Cultural knowledge and intercultural learning: Issues to consider from a teacher's perspective. *Intercultural language teaching and learning practice*. Commonwealth of Australia: Research Centre of Languages and Cultures Education. Available from, iltp.unisa.edu.au/doclibpapers/iltp_paper10.doc
- Deardorff, D. K. (2006). Identification and assessment of intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalization. *Studies in International Education*, 10(3), 241-266.

- Deardorff, D. K. (2009). Synthesizing conceptualizations of intercultural competence: A summary and emerging themes. In D.K. Deardorff (Ed.), *The SAGE handbook of intercultural competence* (pp. 264-270). Thousand Oaks CA: SAGE Publications.
- Denroche, C. (2014). *Metonymy and language: A new theory of linguistic processing*. Oxon: Routledge Studies in Linguistics.
- Galloway, V. (2006). Tearing down the walls to cultivate connection. In V. Galloway and B. Cothran (Eds.), *Language and culture out of bounds: Discipline-blurred perspectives on the foreign language classroom* (pp. 3-36). Mason, OH: Thomson.
- Gleick, J. (1987). *Chaos: Making a new science*. NY: Penguin Books.
- Goulah, J.(2008). Transformative world language learning: An approach for environmental and cultural sustainability and economic and political security. *Journal of Language and Literacy Education*, 4(1), 6-23.
- Guest, M. (2002). A critical 'checkbook' for culture teaching and learning. *ELT Journal*, 56(2), 154-161.
- Hall E.T. (1976). *Beyond culture*. New York: Anchor Books.
- Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Holliday, A., Hyde, M., & Kullman, J. (2010). *Intercultural communication: An advanced resource book for students*. NY: Routledge Applied Linguistics.
- Humphrey, D. (2002). Intercultural communication: a teaching and learning framework. Center for Languages, Linguistics and Area Studies, University of Southampton. Available from, <https://www.llas.ac.uk/resources/paper/1303>
- Hymes, D. (1975). Folklore's nature and the sun's myth. In *Journal of American Folklore*, 88, 345-69.
- Johnston, G. (1850). Shell-fish: Their ways and works. In Bidwell, W. H. (Ed.), *The Eclectic Magazine of Foreign Literature, Science and Art 1850*, 25 (pp. 354-361). London: Leavitt, Trow & Co.
- Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Kluckhohn, F. R. & Strodtbeck, F. L. (1961). *Variations in value orientations*. Evanston, IL: Row, Peterson.
- Kumaravivelu, B. (2012). Individual identity, cultural globalization, and teaching English as an international language. In L. Alsagoff, S.L. McKay, G. Hu, & W.A. Renandya (Eds.), *Principles and practices for teaching English as an international language* (pp. 9-27). NY: Routledge.
- Kumaravivelu, B. (2008). *Cultural globalization and language education*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Lakoff, G. (1993). The contemporary theory of metaphor. In A. Ortony (Ed.), *Metaphor and thought* (pp. 202-252). Cambridge University Press.
- Lang, G. (1997). Papiamentu, the Caribbean paradigm and cultural fractality. In R.A. Young (Ed.), *Latin American postmodernisms* (6th ed). Amsterdam: Rodopi.
- Lefebvre, H. (1974). *The production of space*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Lippmann, W. (1922). *Public opinion*. NY: Harcourt Brace.

- Lu, X. (1998). An interface between individualistic and collectivistic orientations in Chinese cultural values and social relations. *The Howard Journal of Communications*, 9, 91-107.
- Magoulick, M. (n.d.). *Culture*. Available from, <https://faculty.gcsu.edu/custom-web-site/mary-magoulick/culture.htm>
- McSweeney, B. (2002). The essentials of scholarship: A reply to Hofstede. *Human Relations*, 55(11), 1363-1372.
- Medina-López-Portillo, A., & Sinnigen, J. H. (2009). Interculturality vs. intercultural competencies in Latin America. In D. Deardorff (Ed.), *SAGE handbook of intercultural competence*, 249-263.
- Metaphor Project* (2006). *Governance: Appropriate metaphors of sustainable development*. *Encyclopedia of world problems and human potential*. Available from, <http://www.un-intelligible.org/projects/metaphor/304opapp.php>
- Mete, S., Tomaino, L., & Vecchio, G. (2013). Tianguis shaping ciudad: Informal street vending as a decisive element for economy, society and culture in Mexico. *Plannum, Journal of Urbanism*, 1(26), 1-13.
- Miike, Y. (2003). Beyond eurocentrism in the intercultural field. In W. Starosta, & G. Chen (Eds.), *International and intercultural communication annual: Ferment in the intercultural field: Axiology/value/praxis* (pp. 243-277). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Modern Language Association Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages. (2007). Foreign languages and higher education: New structures for a changed world. Available from, <http://www.mla.org/pdf/forlang.news.pdf>
- Moeller, A. J., & Nugent, K. (2014). Building intercultural competence in the language classroom. In S. Dhonau (Ed.). *Unlock the gateway to communication* (pp. 1-18). 2014 Report of the Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. Richmond, VA: Robert Terry.
- Neulipp, J. W. (2012). *Intercultural communication: A contextual approach*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Nostrand, H. L. (1967). Culture-wide values and assumptions as essential pedagogical content. Paper presented at the 82nd Annual Meeting of the Modern Language Association, Chicago, IL. Available from, <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED039801.pdf>
- Nostrand, H. L. (1967a). Toward a bi-cultural curriculum. Report 1: Areas where research is needed in bilingual education. Available from, <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED018285.pdf>
- O'Sullivan, E. (2002). The project and vision of transformative education: Integral transformative learning. In E.V. O'Sullivan, A. Morrel & M. O'Connor (Eds.), *Expanding the boundaries of transformative learning: Essays on theory and praxis* (pp. 1-12). New York: Palgrave.
- O'Sullivan, E. (2012). Deep transformation: forging a planetary worldview. In E. W. Taylor & P. Cranton (Eds.), *The handbook of transformative learning: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 162-177). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Pajewski, A., & Enriquez, L. (1996). *Teaching from a Hispanic perspective: A handbook for non-Hispanic adult educators*. Phoenix, AZ: The Arizona Adult Literacy and Technology Resource Center.

- Peitgen, H.O., & Richter, P. (1986). *The beauty of fractals*. Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag.
- Pike, K. (1954). *Language in relation to a unified theory of the structure of human behavior*. The Hague: Mouton.
- Porto, M. (2003). Stereotyping in the representation of narrative texts through visual reformulations. *Foreign Language Annals*, 36(3), 347-368.
- Rimington, G. M., & Alagic, M. (2008). *Third place learning: Reflective inquiry into intercultural and global cage painting*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age.
- Robinson, G. (1988). *Cross-cultural understanding*. NY: Prentice-Hall.
- Robinson-Stuart, G., & Nocon, H. (2011). Second culture acquisition: Ethnography in the foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 80(4), 431-449.
- Rutherford, J. (1990). The third space: Interview with Homi Bhabha. In Johnathan Rutherford (Ed.), *Identity: community, culture, difference* (pp. 207-221). London: Lawrence and Wishart.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1994). Are there universal aspects in the structure and contents of human values? *Journal of Social Issues*, 50(4), 19-45.
- Seagh, E. (2005). Consciousness and culture: Fractal culture Available from, <http://ceeandcee.blogspot.com/2005/11/fractal-culture.html>
- Senge, P. M. (2006). *The fifth discipline: The art & practice of the learning organization*. NY: Doubleday.
- Schaules, J. (2007). *Deep culture: The hidden challenges of global living*. Buffalo: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Singer, M. R. (1975). Culture: A perceptual approach. In D.S. Hoopes (Ed.), *Intercultural communication workshop: Readings in intercultural communication 1*(pp. 6-21). Pittsburgh, PA: Intercultural Communications Network.
- Sjögren, K. (2012). Oysters are more complex than we think. *Science Nordic*. Available from, <http://sciencenordic.com/oysters-are-more-complex-we-think>
- St. Claire, R. N. (2007). The sedimentation theory of cultural time and space: The present is embedded in the past. *Círculo de Lingüística Aplicada a la Comunicación (CLAC)*, 31, 52-90. Universidad Complutense de Madrid. Available from, www.ucm.es/info/circulo
- Stephenson, F. (2014). A sea change in shell science. In *Glimpse: Research and creative discovery*, Fall, 30-39. Available from, www.clemson.edu/glimpse/?p=5248
- Stoller, F. (2002). Promoting the acquisition of knowledge in a content based course. In J. Crandall & D. Kaufman (Eds.), *Content-based instruction in higher education settings* (pp. 109-123). Alexandria, VA: TESOL.
- Ting-Toomey, S. (2009). Intercultural conflict competence as a facet of intercultural competence development: Multiple conceptual approaches. In D. K. Deardorff (Ed.), *The SAGE Handbook of intercultural competence* (pp. 100-120). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Tomlinson, J. (1999). *Globalization and culture*. University of Chicago Press.
- Triandis, H. C. (1995). *Individualism & collectivism*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Trompenaars, F. & Hampden-Turner, C. (1998). *Riding the waves of culture: Understanding diversity in global business*. NY: McGraw-Hill.

- UNESCO (1997). Educating for a sustainable future: A transdisciplinary vision for concerted action. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. EPD-97/CONF.401/CLD.1. Available from, www.unesco.org/education/tlsf/mods/theme_a/popups/mod01t05s01.html
- UNESCO. (2003). Cultural diversity and biodiversity for sustainable development: A jointly convened UNESCO and UNEP high-level roundtable of the World Summit on Sustainable Development, Johannesburg, 2002. Retrieved Feb. 9, 2015, from, <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001322/132262e.pdf>
- Vahdany, F. (2005). Culture and language teaching. *Peyke Noor Journal* 3(2), 93-98. Cited in *Journal of Education and Practice*, 3(10). Available from, www.iiste.org
- Walker, G. (2012). Tea and oysters: metaphors for a global education. *International Schools Journal*, 31(2), 8-17.
- Wals, A. E. J., & Jickling, B. (2002). "Sustainability" in higher education: From doublethink and newspeak to critical thinking and meaningful learning. *International Journal for Sustainability in Higher Education*, 3(3), 221-232.
- Watkins, M. (2003). Dialogue, development, and liberation. In I. Josephs (Ed.), *Dialogicality in development* (pp. 1-40). Westport CT: Greenwood.
- Whorf, B. L. (2012). Language, thought and reality. In J. B. Carroll, S. C. Levinson, & P. Lee (Eds.), *Language, thought and reality: Selected writings of Benjamin Lee Whorf*. NY: John Wiley.
- Wright, D. A. (2000). Culture as information and culture as affective process: A comparative study. *Foreign Language Annals*, 33, 330-341.

Study Abroad as Professional Development: Voices of In-Service Spanish Teachers

Christopher J. Jochum

University of Nebraska at Kearney

Jared R. Rawlings

Stetson University

Ana María Tejada

University of Nebraska at Kearney

Abstract

The purpose of this qualitative inquiry was to understand how four in-service Spanish teachers interpreted their participation in a summer study abroad program and how the experience contributed to their ongoing professional development and language proficiency. Using a multiple case design (Simons, 2009; Stake, 2005; Yin, 2009), the researchers conducted interviews, recorded field observations and collected participant journals. By analyzing these teachers' voices, it was found that the experience revealed a newfound realization of their language proficiency and its impact on their professional practice. A salient finding of the study abroad experience was that these teachers expressed a commitment to further develop their language skills outside of the classroom. Implications for foreign language educators include the need for sustained professional development that focuses on both content and proficiency.

Over the past 30 years, the notion of best practices within the field of foreign language instruction has seen a shift from a more traditional, grammar-based approach focused on what learners know about the language to one that emphasizes proficiency and what learners can do with the language (Brown, 1994; Richards, & Rodgers, 1986; Shrum, & Glisan, 2009). This is evidenced through the continued development of the *ACTFL Performance Descriptors for Language Learners* (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, ACTFL, 2012a) as well as the *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines—Speaking, Writing, Listening and Reading* (ACTFL, 2012b). Subsequently, there is a need for foreign language teachers to possess minimum oral proficiency levels in their respective languages. In support of this effort, the ACTFL / CAEP (Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation) *Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers* suggests a minimum proficiency level of Advanced-Low for Spanish teachers (p. 15). While it is important to have minimum proficiency requirements for new foreign language teachers, practicing teachers should also take steps to maintain and/or improve their oral proficiency in order to be effective in the classroom.

The need for continued professional growth and development for in-service teachers is well-documented (Desimone, 2009; Guskey, 2000; Opfer, & Pedder, 2011). In response to a national focus on school accountability, teacher quality and student achievement, professional development initiatives adopted by many school districts have used programs based on general (non-subject specific) educational research (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001) or, at best, related to the core subjects such as math and science (Ball, Thames & Phelps, 2008; Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman & Yoon, 2001). While it is possible for all teachers to benefit from these *one-size fits all* models, the intricacies of each content specialization require specific training for teachers to develop a deep understanding of both their content and pedagogy. Such training can be especially important for foreign language teachers due to their need to maintain and/or improve their proficiency in their respective languages. Lafayette (1993) stated that language proficiency is the most important component to foreign language teachers' content knowledge and Peyton (1997) added that:

Foreign language teachers must maintain proficiency in the target language and stay up to date on current issues related to the target culture. Regardless of the skills and knowledge that foreign language teachers possess when they commence teaching, maintenance and improvement must be an ongoing process (p. 1).

Certainly, foreign language teachers must be proficient in their respective languages in order to effectively deliver instruction and create a classroom environment conducive to student learning and language acquisition.

School or district-wide professional development programs are not enough for in-service foreign language teachers to maintain and/or improve their language proficiency (Opfer & Pedder, 2011). For many of these teachers, especially those who are unable to use their foreign language outside of class in meaningful, native-like interactions, studying abroad is the most appropriate viable option.

While the literature base for study abroad is quite vast, the majority of the studies have examined the effect of study abroad on undergraduate students, focusing on variables such as homestays, program length and improvements in proficiency (Allen & Herron, 2003; Brecht, Davidson & Ginsberg, 1995; Freed, 1995; Magnan & Back, 2007; Rivers, 1998; Schmidt-Rinehart & Knight, 2004; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004; Wilkinson, 1998). The impact of study abroad on other populations including teachers is much more limited. As a result, there is a need to better understand the experiences and benefits of studying abroad as a means of professional development for in-service foreign language teachers, with special attention to how the experience contributes to their language proficiency and subsequent instructional practice. According to Allen (2010), "there is a woeful paucity of research on continuing education that is developed specifically for world/foreign language teachers" (p. 93). Therefore, the purpose of this inquiry was to understand how in-service foreign language teacher participants interpreted the meaning and value of studying abroad.

In order to develop a better understanding of how foreign language teachers interpret the meaning of studying abroad, the following research question guided this inquiry: How did in-service Spanish teachers describe the study abroad experience as a form of professional development?

Research Methods

Research Design

Following Institutional Review Board approval, the researchers chose to use a case study approach in order to capture the lived experience of in-service teacher participants (Creswell, 2007) within a study abroad program. Simons (2009) aligns with well-documented scholars of case study design (Stake, 2005; Yin, 2009), but extends further to articulate powerful outcomes:

Case study is an in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and uniqueness of a particular project, policy, institution, programme, or system in a “real life” context. It is research-based, inclusive of difference methods and is evidence-led. The primary purpose is to generate an in-depth understanding of a specific topic (as in a thesis), programme, policy, institution, or system to generate knowledge and/or inform policy development, professional practice and civil or community action (p. 21).

Case study design allows for flexibility with data generation and analysis in order to capture the lived experience of in-service teacher participants within a study abroad program (Creswell, 2007). The phenomenon of interest with this inquiry is situated within the theoretical frame of professional development with the case or bounded system identified as the study abroad program participants.

Sampling and Participants

Utilizing a criterion-sampling strategy for quality assurance (Patton, 2002), four participants were selected for this inquiry based on: (a) enrollment in an on-line graduate program in Spanish Education at the University of Nebraska Kearney (b) participation in the Costa Rica Study Abroad Program during the summer of 2014; and (c) attendance at the same language institute in Costa Rica. These participants were the only students who participated in the trip that met all of the criteria and were invited to participate through an email sent by the study's primary author. While it would have been possible to include other graduate students (e.g., from other institutions) in the study, the researchers did not have access to this information prior to their arrival in Costa Rica.

As reflected in Table 1, all participants were female, self-identified as Caucasian and native English-speakers. Each is referred to by a pseudonym given by the authors.

Table 1

Participant Demographics

Participants	Age	Teaching Experience	Level Taught	Approximate Size of School	Previous Study Abroad Experience
Audrey	24	2 years	High School	1500 students	4 months
Cindy	27	3 years	High School	1300 students	6 months
Mary	36	13 years	High School	2000 students	6 months
Jasmine	56	19 years	Middle & High School	200 students	No previous study abroad experience

Note: Pseudonyms were used to protect participants' identities.

Research Setting

This study took place in San José, Costa Rica during the summer of 2014. The participants attended the same language school, which is a well-established institution with over 25 years of experience teaching Spanish to students from all over the world and placing them with local host-families. The language school offers courses designed for students at all levels of Spanish proficiency. In addition, students are able to attend additional workshops (outside of the school day) where they can work on their conversational skills. Audrey, Mary and Jasmine lived with host-families and Cindy stayed at an apartment close to the language school.

Data Collection and Analysis

In order to determine how the participants interpreted their experiences of studying abroad in Costa Rica, data sources included (a) individual teacher interviews (Appendix A), (b) teacher participant journals, and (c) observation notes from authors one and three.

Because the participants were from different states, thus preventing the researchers from conducting face-to-face interviews prior to departure, the pre- and post-trip interviews were conducted online using Skype. The use of computer-mediated communication, such as Skype, to conduct interviews is supported in the literature (James & Busher, 2009; Huffaker & Calvert, 2005; Salmon, 2000). Table 2 shows the timeline for the interviews and other sources of data collection. It is important to note that the pre-trip interviews took place within two weeks of participants' departure for Costa Rica in order to better capture their thoughts related to their professional development needs. Likewise, post-trip interviews were conducted within two weeks of participants finishing their program.

Table 2

Study Timeline and Procedures

Timeline	Data Source
Early May 2014	Participant recruitment
Late May 2014	1st Interview (Skype); and participant journaling begins
June 2014	2 nd Interview (in-country/face-to-face); and research observations begin in-country.
Late June, Early July 2014	3 rd Interview (in-country/face-to-face); participant journaling concludes; and researcher observations conclude.
August 2014	Peer-researcher corroboration of emergent themes; and participant member check procedures initiated.

Authors 1 and 3 examined the initial transcript from the first interview and each made suggestions for follow-up questions for the in-country interviews. All individual interviews were conducted and recorded by Author 1 and/or Author 3 and transcribed by Author 3. All of the interviews conducted for this study lasted approximately 30 minutes. Of the numerous ways to analyze interview data, coding and categorization approaches are commonly used (Saldaña, 2013). Author 1 conducted the first coding of the in-country interviews and then he and Author 3 were

involved in collaborative coding and discussion. Using a model of semi-structured interviews supported by Seidman (2012), the initial interview questions were developed based upon a review of the relevant literature as well as the expertise of the authors. Follow-up interview questions were related to the initial interview questions but modified based upon the previous responses of the participants.

Secondary data sets included teacher participant journals and researcher observation field notes (two separate logs, one for each researcher) including communication with the participants through phone, email, and informal interactions. As data-collectors, Authors 1 and 3 functioned as both passive participants and observers (Spradley, 1980).

In consonance with Lincoln and Guba (1986), the researchers ensured the trustworthiness and quality of the data with subsequent analysis by employing three measures of rigor and accuracy: credibility, dependability, and transferability (Merriam, 2009). Additionally, Denzin (1978) proposed triangulation between multiple sources of data and multiple investigators to confirm emerging findings as a strategy to address a study's credibility. Thus, the researchers worked together to determine themes and the findings were shared with participants as a member check as a validation strategy and to demonstrate dependability (Patton, 2002). None of the participants requested modifications to their interview transcripts.

Findings

The research question that guided this study was how in-service Spanish teachers described the study abroad experience as a form of professional development. In the following section, we present the findings from the participants' interviews that revealed a unique realization about the professional development demands placed upon foreign language educators, especially as it relates to language proficiency and subsequent instructional effectiveness. Additionally, we document the findings from our primary data source, the pre-trip, in-country and post-trip interviews, in a chronological pattern, presenting each of the four participants in turn.

Pre-Study Abroad Interviews

As part of the pre-study abroad interviews, all of the participants were asked the following question: *What do you do to maintain your Spanish proficiency skills and how could you do more?* (See Appendix A for the Interview Protocol). In the following, we present a brief context about each participant and the pre-trip responses of Audrey, Cindy, Mary and Jasmine, all of whom recognized the unique professional development need of engaging in meaningful interaction with their content in order to improve their foreign language proficiency.

Audrey. Audrey had just completed her second year as a high school Spanish teacher in a mid-sized Midwestern community and was preparing to teach *Advanced Placement* (AP) Spanish for the first time during the upcoming academic year. Given the proficiency requirements needed to teach an AP course, she was motivated to improve her oral proficiency and pedagogy while studying abroad. When we asked her what she did to maintain her Spanish oral proficiency, she said that while her enrollment in graduate-level Spanish courses was helpful, professional and personal demands did not allow her to use Spanish in meaningful ways outside of the classroom.

Furthermore, she mentioned that even though she worked in a department with three other Spanish teachers, they rarely used the language to communicate with each other.

Cindy. Cindy was a high school Spanish teacher who had just completed her third year of teaching in the Northwest of the United States in a school with approximately 1500 students. Due to the licensure demands in her state, which require candidates to pass a foreign language pedagogy exam as well as achieve a minimum Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) score of Advanced-Low, Cindy was primarily motivated to study abroad in order to improve and/or maintain her OPI rating. Similar to Audrey, she also identified her graduate courses as a source of language enhancement, yet admitted that she could do more to improve her Spanish oral proficiency. However, unlike Audrey, Cindy mentioned a commitment to reading in Spanish as well as speaking with her colleague:

John is the name of the teacher that I teach with. He and I are the only Spanish teachers and we try to speak Spanish as much as we can with each other. I try to read probably every other book that I read in Spanish. That's the goal but that doesn't always happen, and I try to interact with people in the community who speak Spanish as much as I can.

Mary. A veteran Spanish teacher of 13 years who teaches in a large, urban high school on the West Coast of the United States shared that she was *very confident* in her language abilities, which was evidenced by the fact that she had passed state certification exams in two different states, which require an overall oral proficiency level of at least Advanced-Low. While Mary said that taking graduate courses in Spanish was helpful, she also felt as though she could improve her oral performance. Unlike Audrey and Cindy, Mary mentioned that she practices her Spanish with colleagues and also tries to read and listen to Spanish outside of school as well as talk to native-Spanish speakers. In addition, she noted that she and her colleagues routinely speak Spanish to each other in order to maintain their skills. Nonetheless, she felt as though her language proficiency could improve and that it had actually declined over the years as she had been teaching.

Jasmine. Unlike the other participants who were in larger school settings and cities, Jasmine teaches middle through high school Spanish in a small, rural Mid-western community with fewer than 1000 people. Her school only offers Spanish levels I, II and III. A veteran teacher of 19 years, she described her Spanish proficiency as "rusty but very proficient for what I have to teach at the school level." Jasmine is the only Spanish teacher in her school so she does not have access to Spanish-speaking colleagues. Furthermore, the community in which she lives has very few native-Spanish speakers. However, she still tries to read and watch movies in Spanish and access Spanish-language sites online.

While all four of the participants demonstrated an awareness of the importance of engaging in activities designed to maintain and/or improve their Spanish language skills, there was still a difference among the participants both in terms of the activities they engaged in, the frequency with which they did these, and their perceptions of what was enough or adequate, based upon their individual needs. Furthermore, through their pre-trip interviews, the participants all recognized that they needed to improve their Spanish proficiency, which was one of their primary reasons for going abroad.

In-Country Interviews

Given the research question, *How did in-service Spanish teachers describe the study abroad experience as a form of professional development?*, we conducted at least one in-country, semi-structured interview with each of the four participants. These interviews were approximately 30 minutes and were conducted in-country with the participants by Author 1 and/or Author 3. In these interviews, we asked them all to comment on how they would describe their proficiency after having been abroad for a few weeks, what steps they were taking to improve and how it might impact their instruction in the upcoming school year.

Audrey. During her in-country interview, after having spent more than two weeks in Costa Rica, Audrey commented that the experience had given her greater insight into her proficiency and the steps she would need to improve, especially as she prepared to teach AP Spanish. When asked about her preparation for this course and, given the proficiency demands, how studying abroad may have affected her feelings, she admitted that she was confident in her abilities to be creative, design lessons and manage the classroom. However, she also indicated that she was scared and nervous about the proficiency demands needed to teach AP and felt as though she would have to review the lessons beforehand to ensure that she was comfortable with the Spanish proficiency required to teach the lessons.

Cindy. Similar to Audrey, Cindy also acknowledged a need to improve her Spanish proficiency prior to her arrival in Costa Rica. After only 10 days in the country, she felt as though her speaking skills were improving and understood the connection this would have to her teaching: She stated that “Being more fluent in speaking Spanish is going to improve my teaching styles.” Furthermore, she was able to connect with another high school Spanish teacher who was also studying abroad and found that they were able to support each other “without being offended or feeling judged.”

Mary. Prior to the trip, Mary was confident in her Spanish abilities but felt she could improve. After spending more than two weeks studying abroad, she commented that she understood the value of the experience and the impact it would have on her teaching. Furthermore, she made a commitment to continue to improve her Spanish after returning home and also revealed an understanding of the connection between her proficiency and pedagogical effectiveness:

I feel like this experience has shown me how much improvement I need to make to be a better teacher. Honestly, I already can tell that I’m going to spend a lot of time this year figuring out ways to speak, and finding opportunities to have conversations with people, and possibly with native-speaking friends that I have, but also I need to go back and I need to study more. I think I’m going to spend some time, a lot more time reading.

Jasmine. While the other participants readily shared how the study abroad experience was shaping their self-assessment of their proficiency and its connection to their teaching, Jasmine seemed a bit more reluctant to share during her first in-country interview. As researchers, we noticed that, despite her pre-trip assertions that she would be comfortable with the study abroad experience, she was frustrated as she tried to adapt to the classes as well as to the linguistic demands with which

she was confronted on a daily basis. Because she was somewhat guarded, her comments revealed that she didn't feel as though she needed to change her instructional practices since, in her words, she "had a system that worked."

Compared to their pre-trip comments, the data showed that the candidates' study abroad experience developed a more refined awareness of the connection between language proficiency and instructional practice for Audrey, Cindy and Mary. However, a comparison of Jasmine's pre-study interview responses and her study abroad interview responses (and in-country behavior) indicated that the experience led her to become more unsure of her language abilities and reluctant to make changes in her classroom.

As a whole, all of the participants realized varied levels of need related to their proficiency and related professional development prior to studying abroad. However, after they had been in the country and had opportunities to use the language, Audrey, Cindy and Mary quickly acknowledged the experience was beneficial as it enabled them to recognize more accurately their limitations in oral performance and either make the necessary changes or explore opportunities to improve. While Jasmine was also able to self-assess her proficiency and related professional development needs, her responses were more guarded and, based upon her comments, she seemed to regress to her comfort zone and rationalize that her abilities were adequate for the demands of her job rather than to commit to working harder to improve her levels of proficiency.

Post-Study Abroad Interviews

In order to further determine how the participants described the study abroad experience as a form of professional development, we interviewed them within two weeks of their returning from Costa Rica. Again, using a semi-structured interview format, we further explored the research question by determining how the study abroad experience affected their professional development needs—especially related to their perceived language proficiency—and the steps they might take as a result of their realizations.

Audrey. Audrey was preparing to teach AP Spanish in only her third year of teaching and the study abroad experience appeared to have a profound impact as it caused her to reflect on her in-class behaviors and how they might be causing her to not maximize the use of the target language. Audrey's candor and self-assessment was profound as she said "I realized that I'm a bad teacher." For example, she mentioned that in order to maximize her use of the target language in class, she needed to resist the urge to "take a free minute to check that email from my administrator or from a parent" because she finds it difficult to get back into Spanish immediately after reading or writing in English. In addition, she also realized that, despite her busy life outside of school which often times keeps her from practicing her Spanish, she could still do more by committing the first ten minutes of her planning period to reading a book or listening to the radio in Spanish. We were encouraged by this commitment as it is something that other foreign language teachers could easily adopt in order to maintain and/or improve their own language proficiency.

Cindy. Like Audrey, Cindy also went abroad with similar goals related to improving her proficiency and professional practice, which she felt she accomplished.

However, the experience also caused Cindy to realize the need to improve her pronunciation, which she had not realized prior to studying abroad. Cindy commented "I feel like my proficiency has increased. I think that I'm more confident. I also think that my pronunciation has improved dramatically, because I started hearing errors that I was making."

In addition, Cindy felt as though the unique experience of studying abroad with other Spanish teachers contributed to her professional development and growth and enabled her to recognize the need to continue to work on her speaking proficiency, especially as it relates to being a more effective teacher, stating, "If I'm in the target language more they [the students] are going to have to pay more attention to me when I'm speaking."

Mary. Mary also described the study abroad experience as being beneficial to her language development and, once again, committed to using the language more in order to maintain and/or enhance her skills. Like Audrey, she also committed to reading more authentic texts in Spanish. In addition, the experience of being a language student caused her to reflect upon her own students and the challenges of learning another language. "I think sometimes I still forget that it doesn't matter how relaxing or comfortable the classroom is it's still hard to use that second language. It just is, especially when working with kids."

Jasmine. Toward the end of the trip, Jasmine's comments revealed that the study abroad experience caused her to re-assess her language abilities and, as a result, commit to taking steps to improve once she returned home. However, unlike the other three participants, this was a powerful departure from her pre-trip and initial in-country comments, which seemed to be more superficial and did not reflect an accurate portrayal of her language proficiency and related instructional practices.

My language ability is probably a little lower than I thought. I'm going to make myself watch all my movies and television in Spanish more often so that I can listen to it and understand it. I'm going to be getting online and instead of just watching the news in English I'm going to switch it over to Spanish a couple times a week so I'm hearing it in Spanish.

Although the participants expressed different levels of self-awareness of their language proficiency and its impact on their teaching, based upon their interview responses, there was still a noticeable change in how the study abroad experience contributed to their acknowledgement of necessary changes. Furthermore, as in-country observers, we noticed that it was not until the participants experienced a powerful, often times frustrating jolt that represented a professional lack of congruence between their perceived and actual proficiency that they finally admitted a more accurate assessment of their abilities in the foreign language. For example, when we asked the participants if they had any recent experiences using Spanish (while abroad) where there was a breakdown of understanding or a realization of their inability to adequately function they responded affirmatively indicating that at times they felt inadequate, overwhelmed or simply out-of-place and unable to be as fluent as they would have liked. Audrey offered the most powerful response when she said "I lie to people and just tell them that I teach the beginning [Spanish] levels because I'm embarrassed. I'm afraid they'll think 'Who the heck is this woman teaching Spanish? She's terrible.'"

Discussion

While previous research related to in-service foreign language teachers studying abroad has confirmed that the experience can impact teachers' actual and/or perceived proficiency (Barfield, 1994) along with their cultural knowledge and pedagogy (Allen, 2010), this research did not reveal how teachers experienced, and most importantly, responded to studying abroad.

As documented in the findings section, the professional development needs of foreign language teachers are very complex as it incorporates both content knowledge, foreign language pedagogy and language proficiency. Lozano, Padilla and Sung (2004) noted that "professional development for foreign language teachers should help them maintain proficiency in their target languages, develop content knowledge, and learn what constitutes successful foreign language pedagogy" (p. 303). Regrettably, the traditional model of in-service professional development for all teachers—the workshop—may fail to address the complex needs of foreign language teachers.

Additionally, while it is possible for foreign language teachers to take advantage of at-home opportunities to enhance their language skills, it may be difficult. Fraga-Cañadas (2010) surveyed over 100 high school Spanish teachers to determine how often they practiced the language outside of the school setting and found that almost half (44%) of the respondents indicated that, since finishing their last Spanish courses, their Spanish proficiency had either remained the same or declined. Moreover, 48% of the teachers indicated that their teacher preparation program had only prepared them *to some extent* in listening and speaking. In response to open-ended survey questions, teachers reported that their teaching assignment, or level of Spanish taught, can also affect their proficiency. One student wrote: "I feel that my fluency has not improved since I started teaching because of the basic level of Spanish that students learn and I teach" (Fraga-Cañadas, 2010, p. 401). Another student echoed this sentiment: "I've been teaching level one and two and have really forgotten stuff like the subjunctive that is not part of my curriculum" (p. 401). Finally, 66% of the surveyed teachers indicated they had not participated in any type of professional development designed specifically for Spanish teachers within the past three years (p. 403). As a result of her findings, Fraga-Cañadas called for more "authentic opportunities designed exclusively for Spanish teachers" (p. 412). Similarly, Cooper (2004) surveyed over 300 foreign languages teachers in Georgia to assess their perceptions of the effectiveness of their professional preparation, and found that in-service foreign language teachers identified the need to spend more time in the target countries (i.e. study abroad) and engage in activities related to their language proficiency.

Implications for Foreign Language Professional Development

Clearly, there is a need to encourage study abroad among foreign language teachers as a primary source of professional development. We feel as though the findings from this study offer a unique perspective of the importance of a study abroad experience and how it leads teachers to recognize the need to enhance their content knowledge, pedagogy and language proficiency that they otherwise would not have realized.

Furthermore, through documenting the experiences of our participants, we were able to confirm the findings of previous research, but more importantly, we

were able to further explore how this experience in Costa Rica and subsequent realizations lead to self-reflection and a commitment to self-improvement. In other words, we have documented the voices of foreign language teachers which acknowledged that the study abroad experience is an authentic way for these teachers to truly engage in the development and/or refinement of their Pedagogical Content Knowledge, which Shulman (1987) defined as “that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding” (p. 8). However, recognizing the need for all teachers to have a sound command of their content, Shulman (1986) further noted: “What pedagogical prices are paid when the teacher’s subject matter competence is itself compromised by deficiencies of prior education or ability?” (p. 8). Therefore, foreign language teachers must continue to engage in professional development activities, such as studying abroad and language use outside of the classroom, in order to deliver instruction that fosters the development of their students’ language acquisition.

The implications of the findings from this study can not only benefit in-service foreign language teachers but also pre-service foreign language teachers who are still developing their language proficiency. Of primary importance is the realization that beyond improving proficiency and cultural awareness, the study abroad experience can result in a more accurate self-assessment and identification of areas in need of improvement. The most salient finding was the extent to which the participants developed a more accurate assessment of their language skills—especially related to oral proficiency—as a result of studying abroad. All of the participants commented that if they had not traveled abroad, they would not have realized their language deficiencies. Without this insight, the participants would not have committed to pedagogical changes or improving their out-of-class language use. As Jasmine said in her post-trip interview, “If I had just sat here at home I would have figured that everything was OK and just kept going and going.”

Therefore, it is important for both future and current foreign language teachers to understand that the demands of their content require them to continue to use the foreign language outside of the classroom.

Limitations and Future Research and Practice

Perhaps future research could examine developing community-based or virtual programs that connect both future and current foreign language teachers with native speakers as a means of language development, such as mentoring or peer-coaching. These programs could be administered through both public schools and universities.

The findings of this study could also be used to investigate the impact of study abroad on other important pedagogical variables such as teacher self-efficacy, which Bandura (1997) defines as “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (p. 3). Previous studies have reported the benefits associated with more efficacious foreign language teachers and areas such as job satisfaction and retention (Swanson, 2008, 2010, 2012), student achievement (Swanson, 2014) and language proficiency (Chacón, 2005; Yilmaz, 2011). However, there is a need to examine how studying abroad is associated with in-service Spanish teachers’ perceptions of self-efficacy—especially as it relates to

language proficiency and instructional competence. Furthermore, to more thoroughly understand the connection between studying abroad and foreign language teachers' self-efficacy, future research could employ a mixed-methods design, which would consist of both semi-structured interviews and survey instruments designed to assess general (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) and foreign language-specific teacher self-efficacy (Swanson, 2010).

Although this study offered unique insight into the experiences of in-service foreign language teachers studying abroad, our findings are not without limitations. While case studies can provide a more in-depth understanding of participants' lived experiences, they are limited to the boundaries of the respective cases. In this study, one of the primary limitations was that our participants were similar because they were all graduate students who identified a need to further enhance their proficiency and instructional practice through studying abroad. Another consideration with respect to the generalizations of this study is that the subjects' deficiencies and/or gains in language proficiency were self-reported and not based on a standardized assessment.

However, despite the aforementioned limitations, the implications of this study are still relevant and timely to the field of foreign language education. For example, the results could be used to better inform the post-secondary curriculum for future foreign language teachers by requiring a study abroad experience. As previously mentioned, the *ACTFL/CAEP Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers* (2013) suggest a minimum proficiency level of Advanced-Low for Spanish teachers (p. 15), which can be difficult to attain without studying abroad (Malone, Rifkin, Christian, & Johnson, 2005). Furthermore, the commitment found among this study's participants to continue to use the foreign language on a regular basis, beyond the study abroad experience, could also be used to develop a professional development framework designed for in-country language maintenance and development for both current and future foreign language teachers.

References

- Allen, H. W., & Herron, C. A. (2003). A mixed methodology investigation of the linguistic and affective outcomes of summer study abroad. *Foreign Language Annals*, 36(3), 370-384. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2003.tb02120.x>
- Allen, L. Q. (2010). The impact of study abroad on the professional lives of World Language Teachers. *Foreign Language Annals*, 43(1), 93-104. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2010.01062.x>
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (2012a). *ACTFL performance descriptors for language learners*. Alexandria, VA: Author.
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (2012b). *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines—Speaking, Writing, Listening and Reading*, (3rd ed.) Alexandria, VA: Author.
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (2013, August). *ACTFL/CAEP program standards for the preparation of foreign language teachers*. [Electronic version]. Available from, <http://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/ACTFL-Standards20Aug2013.pdf>

- Ball, D. L., Thames, M. H., & Phelps, G. (2008). Content knowledge for teaching: What makes it special? *Journal of Teacher Education*, 59(5), 389-407. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0022487108324554>
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: W. H. Freeman.
- Barfield, S. C. (1994). *Evaluation of the National Endowment for the Humanities fellowships for foreign language teachers K-12*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Brecht, R. D., Davidson, D. E., & Ginsberg, R. B. (1995). Predictors of foreign language gain during study abroad. In B. F. Freed (Ed.), *Second language acquisition in a study abroad context* (pp. 37-66). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1075/sibil.9.05bre>
- Brown, H. (1994). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Chacón, C. T. (2005). Teachers' perceived efficacy among English as a foreign languages teachers in middle schools in Venezuela. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21(3), 257-272.
- Cooper, T. C. (2004). How foreign language teachers in Georgia evaluate their professional preparation: A call for action. *Foreign Language Annals*, 37(1), 37-48.
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions*. (2nd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Desimone, L. M. (2009). Improving impact studies of teachers' professional development: Toward better conceptualizations and measures, *Educational Researcher*, 38(3), 181-199.
- Denzin, N. K. (1978). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Fraga-Cañadas, C. P. (2010). Beyond the classroom: Maintaining and improving teachers' language proficiency. *Foreign Language Annals*, 43(3), 395-421.
- Freed, B. F. (1995). What makes us think that students who study abroad become fluent? In B. F. Freed (Ed.), *Second language acquisition in a study abroad context* (pp. 123-148). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.
- Garet, M. S., Porter, A. C., Desimone, L., Birman, B. F., & Yoon, K. S. (2001). What makes professional development effective? Results from a national sample of teachers. *American Educational Research Journal*, 38, 915-945.
- Guskey, T. R. (2000). *Evaluation professional development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Huffaker, D. A., & Calvert, S. L. (2005). Gender, identity, and language use in teenage blogs. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 10(1). Available from, <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1083-6101.2005.tb00238.x/full>
- James, N., & Busher, H. (2009) *Online interviews: Epistemological, methodological and ethical considerations in qualitative research*. London: Sage.
- Lafayette, R. C. (1993). Subject matter content: What every foreign language teacher needs to know. In G. Gunterman (Ed.). *Developing language teachers for a changing world* (pp. 124-158). Chicago: National Textbook Company.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1986). But is it rigorous? Trustworthiness and authenticity in naturalistic evaluation. *New directions for program evaluation*, 1986(30), 73-84. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/ev.1427>

- Lozano, A. S., Padilla, A. M., & Sung, H. (2004). A statewide professional development program for California foreign language teachers. *Foreign Language Annals*, 37(2), 301-309.
- Magnan, S. S., & Back, M. (2007). Social interaction and linguistic gain during study abroad. *Foreign Language Annals*, 40(1), 44-61.
- Malone, M., Rifkin, B., Christian, D., & Johnson, D. (2005). Attaining high levels of proficiency: Challenges for foreign language education in the United States. *CAL Digests*.
- Marzano, R. J., Pickering, D. J., & Pollock, J. E. (2001). *Classroom instruction that works: Research-based strategies for increasing student achievement*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Opfer, V. D., & Pedder, D. (2011) Conceptualizing teacher professional learning. *Review of Educational Research* 81(3), 376-407.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3rd. ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Peyton, J. K. (1997). *Professional development of foreign language teachers*. ERIC Digest. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. Available from, <http://www.ericdigests.org/1998-2/teachers.htm>
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (1986). *Approaches and methods in language teaching: A description and analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rivers, W. P. (1998). Is being there enough? The effects of homestay placement on language gain during study abroad. *Foreign Language Annals*, 31(4), 492-500.
- Saldaña, J. (2013). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. (2nd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.
- Salmon, G. (2000). Computer mediated conferencing for management learning at the Open University. *Management Learning*, 31(4), 491-502.
- Schmidt-Rinehart, B. C., & Knight, S. M. (2004). The homestay component of study abroad: Three perspectives. *Foreign Language Annals* 37(2). 254-262.
- Segalowitz, N., & Freed, B. F. (2004). Context, contact, and cognition in oral fluency acquisition: Learning Spanish in at home and study abroad contexts. *Studies In Second Language Acquisition*, 26(2), 173-199.
- Seidman, I. (2012). *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences* (4th ed.). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Shrum, J., & Glisan, E. (2009). *Teacher's handbook: Contextualized language instruction*. (4th ed). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher*, 15(2), 4-14.
- Shulman, L. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1), 1-22.
- Simons, H. (2009). *Case study research in practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Spradley, J. P. (1980). *Participant observation*. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Stake, R. E. (2005). Qualitative case studies. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research*, (pp. 443-466). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Swanson, P. (2008). Efficacy and interest profile of foreign language teachers during a time of critical shortage. *NECTFL Review*, 62, 55-74.
- Swanson, P. B. (2010). Teacher efficacy and attrition: Helping students at introductory levels of language instruction appears critical. *Hispania*, 93(2), 305-321.
- Swanson, P. (2012). Second/foreign language teacher efficacy and its relationship to Professional attrition. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 68(1), 78-101. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.68.1.078>
- Swanson, P. (2014). The power of belief: Spanish teachers' sense of efficacy and student performance on the National Spanish Examinations. *Hispania* 97(1), 5-20.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 783-805.
- Wilkinson, S. (1998). Study abroad from the participants' perspective: A challenge to common beliefs. *Foreign Language Annals* 31(1), 23-39.
- Yilmaz, C. (2011). Teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy, English proficiency and instructional strategies. *Social Behavior & Personality: An International Journal*, 39(1), 91-100.
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods*. (4th Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Appendix A

Interview Protocol

1. What is your name?
2. How old are you?
3. How do you describe your race or ethnicity?
4. How many years have you been teaching Spanish?
5. What is your highest earned degree?
6. Have you ever had to take a language proficiency test, such as the OPI, or a language-based exam for your teaching certification? If so, what test/tests did you take and what were the results?
7. Describe any recent experiences you've had using Spanish where there was a breakdown of understanding or a realization of your inability to adequately function.
8. Do you have previous study abroad experience(s)? If so, please explain.
9. What is your current teaching assignment? What levels of Spanish do you teach?
10. What size of school do you teach in?
11. Self-assess your Spanish abilities in reading, writing, listening and speaking.
12. How comfortable are you / would you be teaching upper level Spanish? What about native or heritage speakers?
13. When you're planning lessons and activities, do you ever take into account your own level of proficiency?
14. What do you do to maintain your Spanish proficiency skills and how could you do more?

Changes in Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching by Foreign Language Teachers in an Applied Linguistics Course

Laurel Abreu

The University of Southern Mississippi

Abstract

This article presents the results of a study on the language learning and teaching beliefs of graduate students enrolled in an applied linguistics course in a language teaching program. Ten participants completed a questionnaire at the start of the course and another at the end; their responses were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. Following the course, changes were identified in the participants' beliefs about the difficulty of learning a second language and their goals for their future students.

Background

Classes in linguistics, such as applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, and second language acquisition (SLA), regularly form part of language teacher education programs, even though the relationship between theory and practice and the role of linguistics in second/foreign language¹ (FL) teaching have not always been clear in recent years. From these classes in linguistics, it is expected that students will gain advanced knowledge of their subject matter that will allow them to make principled decisions in the classroom and evaluate teaching materials (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig, 1997). However, when student expectations for these classes do not match those of instructors, students may not be open to learning about linguistics and may even reject what is presented to them in class (e.g., Lo, 2005; Siebert, 2003). Language teachers are often encouraged to undertake research and examine their own practice, commonly through action research projects, yet teacher educators of linguistics courses have been slow to adopt this practice themselves (Bartels, 2002). Therefore, it is important to research how these courses are implemented and to analyze student outcomes in order to ensure that course material adequately addresses students' needs and is relevant to teachers' current and future practice (e.g., Ellis, 2010; Morrison, 1979; Thornbury, 1997).

In recent years, researchers have responded to Bartels's (2002) call to analyze both quantitatively and qualitatively the gains that are made in linguistics classes for teachers (see in particular Bartels, 2005a). The present study seeks to add to that body of work; it is believed to be the first to explore the beliefs of FL teachers with different first languages (L1s) before and after a graduate course in applied linguistics.

Review of the Literature

Theory and Practice in Language Teacher Education

The relationship between theory and practice in language teacher education, as well as the role of the study of linguistics for language teachers, has been debated for decades. Several proposals will be reviewed here, followed by an exploration of the constructs of teacher beliefs, knowledge about language, and language awareness. However, the bulk of this review focuses on studies of outcomes of courses in linguistics for FL teachers, due to their similarities to the present study.

In order to know what teachers should learn about language in their preparation, it is useful to review the history of applied linguistics and language teaching. Language teacher education programs are usually located in one of the following departments: education, languages and literature, or applied linguistics (Crandall, 2000). The study of linguistics is mandated by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) *Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers* (2013) as part of Standard 3. Yet, diverging views on the relationship between linguistics and language teaching are readily apparent in the literature, particularly in that of the 1970s through the 1990s. Some cautioned against a direct relationship between the two fields (Morrison, 1979; Thornbury, 1997; Wilkins, 1972); it was felt that the teacher's own insight could be more valuable than knowledge of linguistics for some components of FL teaching (Ogasawara, 1983). However, Bardovi-Harlig (1997) outlined several practical uses for SLA for teachers as a justification for its inclusion as a course in language teacher education programs, including evaluating methods and materials, dispelling myths, suggesting areas for teaching, showing what language acquisition actually looks like, characterizing processes and factors involved in SLA, outlining the roles of the teacher and the learner, and permitting greater access to professional literature. In more recent years, the centrality of applied linguistics in language teacher education has been affirmed (e.g., Crandall, 2000; Ellis, 2010). Ellis (2010) asserted that a "close connection between theory and research in SLA and language pedagogy was established from the start" (p. 183).

Knowledge of linguistics has been deemed advantageous for language teachers in that it increases their familiarity with second language acquisition and helps with decision-making in the classroom. Familiarity with the linguistic development of language learners can aid teachers in holding realistic expectations for students (Rogers, 1988), and most language teaching decisions can be better made when one understands language deeply (Wilkins, 1972). Though many have agreed that knowledge of linguistics is useful, teachers have not always been able to access this knowledge, because of the academic discourse used in reporting it. Ellis (2010) advocated for the writing of research summaries that would be more useful for teachers; according to Ellis, these summaries should emphasize pedagogical concepts over theoretical constructs and a narrative discourse style over an expository style.

Although knowing about language and language learning is crucial, Bartels (2005b) pointed out that what teachers do in practice goes beyond simply using this knowledge. As noted by Freeman and Johnson (1998), "teacher educators have come to recognize that teachers are not empty vessels waiting to be filled with theoretical

and pedagogical skills; they are individuals who enter teacher education programs with prior experiences, personal values, and beliefs that inform their knowledge about teaching and shape what they do in their classrooms” (p. 401). In the 1990s, Woods (1996) highlighted that, in general, most research had tended to focus on the learner or the process of second language learning, rather than what the teacher brings to that process. This has changed in the intervening years; therefore, the next section reviews the concepts of beliefs and knowledge as they relate to teacher education and practice that have been investigated since that time. It is important to note that the beliefs described here relate to teachers’ *educational* beliefs, which are only one part of teachers’ entire belief systems (Pajares, 1992). Nonetheless, as Pajares notes, these particular beliefs are not detached from the wider belief system of the individual.

Teacher Beliefs, Knowledge, and Attitudes

The literature reveals many different definitions of terms that represent teacher cognition, such as *belief*, *knowledge*, *attitude*, and *awareness*; this abundance of labels can make comparisons across studies difficult, yet provides for nuances in describing teacher cognition. Arnett and Turnbull (2007) provided an enlightening discussion of studies in second language (L2) teaching between 1990 and 2005 that examined beliefs, finding three trends: explicit discussion of the construct of teacher beliefs, implicit discussion of the construct, and no discussion of the construct. Richardson (1996), not included in that review, gave the following definition in her discussion of the terms in use in the literature: “Attitudes and beliefs are a subset of a group of constructs that name, define, and describe the structure and content of mental states that are thought to drive a person’s actions” (p. 102). However, Attardo and Brown (2005) noted the confusion in the literature over the two terms and opted to use them interchangeably, since “in practice, the distinction is very seldom clear” (p. 102). Busch (2010) also avoided making any distinction among the many terms used in previous related studies, labeling any views on second language teaching or learning in her study “belief” (p. 320).

The relationship between belief and knowledge has been studied a great deal, with some researchers proposing that they are different but related, while others take them to be synonymous (Pajares, 1992). Furthermore, there is debate over the types of knowledge that teachers possess and use in their practice. Woods (1996) posited that teachers’ knowledge can be described as both declarative and procedural; he also mentioned other types of knowledge involved, among them, content knowledge (of the subject matter) and instructional knowledge (knowledge of how to teach). In Woods’ comprehensive study of eight ESL teachers’ planning for the classroom and their interpretations of classroom events, he encountered difficulty in ascertaining whether the participants’ decisions were related to their knowledge, their beliefs, or what they believed they knew. He speculated that knowledge, assumption, and belief are points located on a continuum that may overlap; he therefore proposed a hypothetical construct of belief, assumptions, and knowledge (BAK). BAK can change over time and was found to be in use at each stage of lesson planning and delivery. MacDonald, Badger, and White (2001) agreed that BAK is intimately related to classroom practice; therefore, changes in beliefs can lead to perceptual changes and changes in routines.

Though, as noted above, the term *belief* and other related concepts have been defined in various ways over the years, Pajares (1992) indicated in his seminal review on the topic that the construct of teacher beliefs is “less messy, far cleaner, and conceptually clearer than it may appear,” calling it potentially “the single most important construct in educational research” (p. 329). The widely cited *apprenticeship of observation* (Lortie, 1975) refers to the fact that teacher candidates have already witnessed thousands of hours of teaching in their own education and formed their beliefs of how teaching should be. The importance of these beliefs lies in their potential to affect or filter the knowledge that teacher candidates take in while enrolled in education programs (Horwitz, 1985; Johnson, 1994; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996). These beliefs may not be at the level of conscious awareness, and if they are not dealt with in the teacher education program, teachers may continue to teach as they were taught (Bailey et al., 1996; Johnson, 1994).

By the time a student reaches college, his or her beliefs about teaching are set (Pajares, 1992); among pre-service teachers, attitudes have been found to vary by gender (Siebert, 2003), planned level of teaching, and age (Richardson, 1996). Furthermore, language teachers have been exposed all their lives both to folk conceptions of language and theoretical claims about language learning (Siebert, 2003; Woods, 1996). The resistance of teachers’ beliefs to change has been duly noted. Along with raising teacher candidates’ awareness of their own beliefs, practical experiences and opportunities for reflection should be provided throughout the teacher education program, in order to address the role that prior beliefs may play in the formation of teachers’ views of effective practices (Crandall, 2000; Johnson, 1994). In order to change, an individual must not only have an awareness of the potential for change but also be dissatisfied with current beliefs and able to accept and understand a new belief (Pajares, 1992). Furthermore, one belief cannot be changed by itself, as beliefs are part of a network with interwoven elements (Woods, 1996). For these reasons, a top-down approach to changing beliefs, such as one that might be taken by a teacher education program in response to research findings on beliefs, may not be successful; belief change comes about through interaction and the experience of putting knowledge into practice (Woods, 1996).

Applied Linguistics in Teacher Education

Throughout the years, authors have proposed changes to the traditional components of the language teacher education curriculum, which usually includes courses in linguistics, methodology, and some sort of practical experience. Morrison (1979) urged teacher educators to consider relevance as the key factor in designing course content in linguistics; Bartels (2005c) echoed this concern in advising that language teacher education begin from a point of taking into account teachers’ current knowledge and what they need, rather than from the point of what programs can offer them in the way of applied linguistics. Ellis (2010) proposed 11 principles for designing an SLA course for a TESOL/FL teaching program, among them the ideas that the teacher educator is to serve as mediator, and that the teachers or teacher candidates themselves ultimately should determine the relevance of the course material. Popko (2005) went beyond making recommendations for individual courses to consider the articulation between courses in a program, maintaining that “a more deliberate articulation of

methodology and linguistics within MA-TESL programs might provide teachers with a more disciplined approach to utilizing their KAL [knowledge about language] in ESL classrooms" (p. 402). For instance, he noted that the methodology course could address the connections between diagramming sentences and explaining grammar, and phonology could be followed up with information on how to teach pronunciation.

The recommendations described above, along with others, have come as much from authors' perspectives on the relationships between theory and practice as from empirical research. However, the early 2000s saw an increase in research on outcomes in language teacher education programs and courses; much of the research on courses in linguistics is contained in the series of chapters in Bartels (2005a). Bartels noted that it is "not enough to simply provide a short apprenticeship in applied linguistics and hope for the best because the knowledge that teachers use in their practice is more complicated than [*sic*] just knowing facts and general conceptions of language and language learning" (2005c, p. 419). He called for research into how language education programs and courses affect teachers' knowledge. These and other similar studies will be reviewed in detail below.

Research on outcomes related to training in linguistics has been conducted with students in courses such as introduction to linguistics, sociolinguistics, and SLA; these outcomes are encouraging about the nature of belief change. For instance, a survey of pre-service teachers of L1 English before and after a third year, undergraduate introductory linguistics course found that simply being exposed to facts about language produced greater acceptance of features of African American Vernacular English (AAVE) among 25% of the participants (Attardo & Brown, 2005). Another 2005 study focused on attitudes towards a variety of languages (Riegelhaupt & Carrasco, 2005). Elementary, middle, and high school teachers, administrators, and counselors in Whiteriver, Arizona, took part in a course provided by the researchers that focused on specific linguistic phenomena, such as past-tense formation, as manifested in Apache English. By the end of the study, the teachers' journal entries showed more openness towards Apache English and an understanding that their students were not deficient—they merely needed assistance to be able to manage another variety of English. These studies seem to suggest that, contrary to what can be found in the literature on teacher beliefs, exposure to information on varieties of language may be sufficient for teachers to reevaluate their attitudes towards them.

Four recent studies have examined the effects of an SLA class for teachers, and what appears to be consistent across the studies is students' perception of SLA theory. In Angelova (2005), it was observed that the students in an MA-TESOL program had difficulty relating to theory in an SLA class. Angelova, also the instructor of the course, changed the course content to include mini-lessons in Bulgarian (her L1) that incorporated aspects of theory about which the students were learning, such as transfer, error correction, and inductive and deductive reasoning. Not all of the students experienced the lessons positively—they were anxiety-inducing for some—but on the whole, the study concluded that students had internalized some SLA concepts through their experiences as L2 students of Bulgarian.

What seems to have been a less contextualized SLA course served as the backdrop for an in-depth case study carried out by Lo (2005) that included interviews with the instructor in an MA-TESOL program, interviews with one teacher-learner,

and the analysis of assignments and textbooks. The instructor and the teacher-learner, Peiling, were found to have a complete mismatch of goals and understandings of the course objectives. Peiling felt that the course was too theoretical, the readings did not help her know what to do in the classroom, and the instructor did not answer students' questions, nor ask them what the research meant to them. It was her teaching context that played the most important role in her determination of what was useful to her. However, her own beliefs also played a role in limiting her intake of the SLA course material; for example, she was unconvinced by the morpheme order studies presented by the instructor, because she did not think she herself had gone through those stages. A key implication of this study is that instructors of SLA courses must avoid mismatches like the one described here, or it will not matter what is taught or how it is packaged—students will not be convinced.

Another study that examined the possible effects of an SLA course, with a particular focus on theory, is one by MacDonald, Badger, and White (2001). Using L2 statements adapted from Lightbown and Spada (1995), the researchers designed a questionnaire that was given to both graduate and undergraduate students in SLA courses at the same institution, at the start and end of the semester, along with a control group—a significant advantage of the study as compared to others. At the end of the course, results indicated all students had moved away from a behaviorist view of language learning. Students also expressed less agreement at the end of the semester with the idea that language learning must begin early in school. Therefore, the SLA course seems to have been helpful in changing even long-held beliefs about language learning.

A study by Busch (2010) differs from the other studies of SLA courses described here in the instrument used and the large number of participants. She employed the widely used Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) (Horwitz, 1988) before and after the same SLA course taught over three years, with a total of 381 pre-service teachers. The inventory contained 23 statements with which participants expressed the level of their agreement. In addition, participants were instructed to compare their pre- and post-course survey answers at the end of the course and to write about the four beliefs that had changed the most, which provided insight into the course and the process of change. One of the most salient results of the study was the dramatic change in belief regarding the number of years the participants thought it would take a person to learn a second language in just one hour a day, from a pre-course mean of 3-5 years to the post-course mean of 5-10 years. This finding seems to correspond to Siebert's (2003) study of ESL student and teacher beliefs in intensive ESL programs, in which the majority of the students chose 3-5 years for the same item on the BALLI (although males tended to select less time, and females tended to select more time), while the selection of half of the teachers was 5-10 years. Therefore, increased KAL (in the form of the expertise represented by teachers' training) may lead to increased expectations of difficulty of language learning.

Bartels (2005b), as mentioned above, called for research into the effects of knowledge about applied linguistics for teachers, affirming the following:

Not only might the relationship between applied linguistics knowledge and language teaching be more complex than theorized, it is also possible that we are, unwittingly and with the best of intentions, im-

posing practices of the applied linguistics discourse community on language teachers during teacher education which are not helpful for the practice or language teaching. . . something I refer to as 'linguistics imperialism.' (p. ix)

However, Bartels noted in reviewing the chapters from his (2005a) edited volume that it is clear that teachers find applied linguistics courses relevant to their professional development and to their practice, and that "applied linguistics can also change teachers' intentions of how they will teach" (Bartels, 2005c, p. 406). The importance, then, of investigating teachers' beliefs cannot be overstated. Furthermore, in the studies reviewed above, beliefs about language learning among FL teachers are underrepresented, owing to the predominance of studies on ESL programs and ESL teaching. It is not clear whether differences may be found in a different population, and Busch (2010) noted the need for further research to add to the body of literature on language teacher beliefs.

In an attempt to answer these calls for research, the present study examined beliefs about language teaching and learning among pre-service and in-service teachers of world languages and ESL teachers who were enrolled in an applied linguistics course. The study contributes knowledge of the ways in which these participants' beliefs changed following their participation in the class.

Methods

The study described in the following sections investigated beliefs about language, language learning, and language teaching among 10 graduate students in a language teaching program, each with different background characteristics and teaching experience. Specifically, the questions that guided this research study are as follows:

1. What changes can be observed in practicing and pre-service teachers' stated beliefs about the topics below, following a graduate course in applied linguistics?
 - prescriptivist views of language
 - difficulties in FL learning
 - similarities between first and second language acquisition
 - the utility of linguistics for the FL teacher
 - their personal goals for their students
2. What do participants feel they gain from the applied linguistics course?

The following sections describe the participants in the study, the procedures, and the methods of analysis.

The Course

Applied Linguistics in Second/Foreign Languages is one of the required core courses in the Master of Arts in the Teaching of Languages (MATL) program at the University of Southern Mississippi, and it is regularly offered both online and on campus. The course topics comprise the main subfields of linguistics, including phonetics and phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, language variation in space and time, and first and second language acquisition. The course

textbook is Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams's (2013) *An Introduction to Language*; in addition, students read Pinker's (2007) *The Language Instinct* on their own and write a reaction paper. Course assignments require students to make connections between what they learn about linguistics and their current or future practice in the classroom; such assignments include reflection papers and instructional activities that are based on textbook chapters. The researcher was also the instructor of the course. The study was conducted in accordance with the policies of the Institutional Review Board at the university.

Participants

Eleven graduate students in the MATL program were enrolled in an on-campus section of the course described above in the fall of 2013; ten completed both the pre-questionnaire and the post-questionnaire. Their characteristics are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

Participant Characteristics.

#	Gender	L1	Fluent In	Studied Formally	Teaching
1	M	English	English, Spanish	Spanish, Greek, Latin	TA - Spanish
2	F	English	English	Spanish	TA - Spanish
3	M	Chinese	Chinese, English	English, Japanese	None
4	F	English	English	Spanish, Korean, Mandarin Chinese	None
5	M	French	French, English, Spanish	English, Spanish, Italian, Russian, Arabic, Ancient Greek	Teaching French
6	F	English	English, Spanish	Spanish	TA - Spanish
7	F	Spanish	Italian	English, Italian, French	TA - Spanish
8	F	Spanish	English, French	English, French, Italian	Teaching Spanish
9	M	English	English, Spanish, Portuguese	Spanish, Portuguese, Mandarin, Greek, Catalan, Nahuatl, Yucatec, Ch'ol	TA - Spanish
10	F	English	English	Spanish, Italian	None

There were six females and four males, ranging in age from 22-28, with a mean age of 24. Two of the participants were teaching their own lower-level FL courses at the university, while five were teaching assistants, working with instructors in 100-level FL courses. The other three participants were not teaching or assisting at the time of the study, but planned to teach in the future. There was diversity among the group in terms of language background: six of the participants were native speakers (NSs) of English, two were NSs of Spanish, one was a NS of French, and one was a NS of Mandarin Chinese. It should be noted that the fluency referenced in the fourth column of Table 1 is according to the participants' own perceptions; also, the questionnaire did not request specifics such as length of study or level of proficiency in the languages participants had studied formally. The teaching situation in the final column refers to the participants' situation during the semester of the applied linguistics course. There are three language emphases offered in this master's program: ESL, French, and Spanish.

Participants 3, 4, and 10, all in the ESL emphasis, were not teaching at the time of the study, as Table 1 indicates, but Participant 3 did provide tutoring in Mandarin in the language laboratory to undergraduate students. Each of the three planned to teach ESL following the program, with Participants 3 and 4 planning to teach high school, and Participant 10, from elementary school to college. Participants 1, 2, 6, 7, and 9 were teaching assistants in 100-level Spanish classes, which involved assisting instructors with grading, exam creation, and activity preparation; participating in classroom management; and teaching two lessons independently. Participant 8 was teaching Spanish 201 and 202 on her own. Of the students in the Spanish emphasis, Participant 2 planned to teach high school Spanish, and Participant 8 wrote on the post-questionnaire that she wanted to teach at the university level, but the rest did not specify a level. Participant 1 planned to teach both Spanish and ESL and wrote on the post-questionnaire that he was considering opening a language school. Participant 5 was teaching French 101 and planned to pursue a doctorate degree in linguistics.

It is worth noting the participants' previous experience with linguistics; Participants 3, 5, 7, and 8 had already taken two or more courses in linguistics, prior to the applied linguistics course. Participants 5 and 8, as observable in their status as teaching their own classes, were in their second year of the program and had taken two other core courses: teaching methods and sociolinguistics. Participants 1, 4, and 9 were also judged to have considerable familiarity with linguistics, despite having had only one course in the subject, based on their answers to the question, "Please describe your current familiarity with the field of linguistics" on the pre-questionnaire. Only Participants 6 and 10 had never taken a linguistics course. Therefore, the applied linguistics course did not serve as an introduction to the field for the majority of the students.

Materials

This study employed two questionnaires that included both closed-ended and open-ended questions, in order to provide as complete a picture as possible of participants' beliefs regarding language teaching and learning. Busch (2010) and others have used Horwitz's (1988) BALLI; however, because the goal of this study was to assess beliefs that related to specific course topics, the present study's questionnaires

were created. The questionnaires were hosted on Qualtrics; the pre-questionnaire was administered close to the start of the semester, and the post-questionnaire was administered after the class had ended. The post-questionnaire mainly differed from the pre-questionnaire in that three questions were included for participants to evaluate the course following its completion. The items from both questionnaires are included in the Appendix.

The questionnaires consisted of three sections, with 22 questions on the pre-questionnaire and 18 on the post-questionnaire. Though the focus of the course was not language learning, many of the questions referred to the topic, because this was the central area of concern for the participants and the emphasis of several of the course assignments. Like the BALLI (Horwitz, 1988), the questionnaires contained many questions that did not have black-and-white answers. The first section was designed to collect the demographic and biographical data described in the previous section, while the second section asked open-ended questions of the participants about language, language learning, and language teaching, because one of the goals of the study was to examine beliefs that would not easily be quantified, such as how FLs are learned and participants' desired outcomes in the classroom. Following Attardo and Brown (2005) and Busch (2010), no distinction is made here between such constructs as beliefs, attitudes, or assumptions—any view on language teaching or learning is termed “belief.” The third section contained statements about the same topics, plus others, such as prescriptivist views of language and whether having knowledge of linguistics can help the FL teacher, and the participants indicated the strength of their agreement with each statement, using a five-point scale. They were also invited to explain their ratings in a text box that followed each rating. The open-ended questions were designed to elicit more in-depth answers from the participants that would shed further light on their numerical ratings. While some questions might be perceived to be repetitive, a pilot study carried out in the fall of 2012 that used the questionnaires with an online section of the same course revealed that asking differently worded questions on similar topics often elicited more detail from the participants. With no specified length, the responses in the current study varied from single-word responses (though these were uncommon—most were at least two sentences long) to several paragraphs in length.

Procedure

At the beginning of the semester, the students enrolled in the course were invited to take part in the study by completing a pre-questionnaire at the start of the semester and the post-questionnaire when the course was over; they were made aware of the post-questionnaire during the informed consent process. They were notified that the surveys were not part of the class in any way, and that furthermore, the instructor/researcher would not see or analyze any of their responses until after the fall semester had ended and final grades had been turned in. Students took the surveys online, out of class. The questionnaires were not discussed in class, nor were they included in the syllabus as a class assignment. No class activities directly addressed the questions on the questionnaires.

Data Analysis

The ratings the participants gave the statements on the final section of the pre- and post-questionnaires were analyzed quantitatively through independent and paired *t*-tests. Responses to the open-ended questions were analyzed qualitatively. These were first organized in tables in order to enable pre- and post-questionnaire comparisons. The responses were then examined for themes and labeled accordingly; in order to do this, key words were highlighted in individual responses, and the researcher then identified repetitions of the key words across participants. Key words were also compared across questionnaires. This process was repeated twice, in order to ensure that all data had been accounted for. The principles of thematic analysis (cf. Boyatzis, 1998) guided the interpretation stage. The next section presents the results of the analyses.

Findings

This section is organized by the research questions presented in the previous section. First, all parts of the first research question will be answered in turn by addressing each of the following components and the changes that were identified: beliefs about language, beliefs about language learning, and beliefs about language teaching. Both the numerical ratings and the answers to the open-ended questions were analyzed, and both are addressed in each subsection below. Table 2 provides the means of the numerical ratings for each statement on the questionnaires. The reader will recall that on the scale used for the majority of the statements on the questionnaire, there were five possible points, with five being *Strongly Agree* and one, *Strongly Disagree*.

Table 2

Mean Scores for All Statements on the Pre- and Post-Questionnaires.

Item	<i>M</i> (Pre)	<i>M</i> (Post)
How difficult is the task of the second/foreign language learner? ^a	2.90	1.90*
An understanding of linguistics can help you as a foreign language teacher.	4.60	4.80
It is important for a foreign language teacher to possess knowledge of second language acquisition.	4.80	4.40
Learning a foreign language is difficult.	3.70	4.00
Second languages are learned in a similar fashion to first languages.	2.67	2.44
Some dialects are better than others. ^b	1.67	1.40
Some dialects are more correct than others.	1.78	1.40

^aThere were seven possible answers for this question, from 1 (Very Difficult) to 7 (Very Easy).

^bOne participant did not rate this statement or the following one on the pre-questionnaire.

**p* < .01

Beliefs about Language

The questions regarding beliefs about language in general had to do with prescriptivist notions of language. Little change was observed from the beginning to the end of the semester in participants' responses, as they already disagreed with the statements "Some dialects are better than others" and "Some dialects are more correct than others" on the pre-questionnaire. It was found that participants were already aware that these were prescriptivist statements at the start of the course, well in advance of their study of language variation. Similar ideas were illustrated in the explanations of the numerical ratings as well as the open-ended responses ("Is there a correct way to speak your native language? How about your second language?"), as participants stated that all languages are dialects, that there is no one correct dialect in any language, and that dialect usage varies by context. Even the participants who assigned higher ratings (i.e., less disagreement) to the statements mentioned similar factors as those who gave them lower ratings; some of them also took issue with the wording of the statements. These responses demonstrate the importance of having included open-ended questions on the questionnaires, because a merely quantitative analysis that only took into account the ratings would have missed these details. Overall, participants' beliefs in this particular area did not change per se but rather seemed to have been merely reinforced.

Beliefs about Language Learning

In a paired samples *t*-test that compared the mean scores of the ratings portion of the pre- and post-questionnaires, the only statistically significant difference² found was for the question "How difficult is the task of the second/foreign language learner?" At the beginning of the semester, the mean score was 2.9 on a seven-point scale, ranging from *Very Difficult* (1) to *Very Easy* (7). By the end of the semester, the mean rating for this question had fallen to 1.90 ($p = .02$). No one rated the task of the FL learner as *Neither Difficult nor Easy* by the end of the semester. It was found that those whose L1 was not English judged the task of the FL learner to be easier than did the NSs of English, both at the beginning of the semester and at the end of the semester, though all participants rated that task as more difficult at the end, as noted.

The responses to the statement, *Learning a foreign language is difficult*, followed the expected pattern, based on the perceived difficulty of the task of the FL learner. At the beginning of the semester, the statement, *Learning a foreign language is difficult*, received a mean score of 3.70 on a five-point scale, from *Strongly Disagree* (1) to *Strongly Agree* (5); by the end of the semester, this had changed to 4.00, indicating stronger agreement, though this finding was not statistically significant. The non-native English speakers (NNESs) tended toward a more neutral rating of the statement, *Learning a foreign language is difficult*, both at the beginning of the semester (3.25 versus the NS group's 4.00) and at the end (3.75 versus the NS group's 4.17).

Three of the participants were not currently teaching or assisting in a classroom, so the next step of the analysis took their views into account, in comparison with those participants who were teaching or helping to teach FL classes, in an independent *t*-test. The rating for the question of *How difficult...* was significantly different on the post-test for these two groups, with those in the classroom rating the task as a mean of 2.29, and those not in the classroom, at 1.00 ($p < .05$); in other words,

those who were actually teaching or helping to teach believed the task of the FL learner to be less difficult. Likewise, in response to the statement, *Learning a foreign language is difficult*, another significant difference was found, with those not in the classroom rating it with a mean of 4.67 (*Agree*) on the post-survey, and those in the classroom displaying a more neutral mean of 3.71.

The results from this point forward are presented solely in descriptive terms, through numerical means and qualitative analysis of the textual responses of the participants. The statement that *Second languages are learned in a similar fashion to first languages* represents a case where there is no one correct answer. Five of the participants showed no change by the end of the semester from their previous rating, while one participant did not select a rating on the pre-questionnaire, and one increased her rating by just one point. However, the remaining three participants flip-flopped from their pre-course scores. Participant 5 went from *Disagree* to *Agree*, though he noted in the justification for the score that “*Partly Agree* would be [his] real answer³.” He stressed on both the pre-questionnaire and the post-questionnaire that L1 learning is largely unconscious, which makes it different from L2 learning. However, on the post-questionnaire, in response to the question, *What does learning a second language have in common with learning a first language? What is different?*, he cited both lexicon building and learning to articulate sounds as tasks that are more difficult when learning an L2.

Problems with pronunciation were also cited as a difference on the post-questionnaire by Participant 7. Participants 8 and 10 moved in the opposite direction from Participant 5, from *Agree* to *Strongly Disagree* for Participant 8 and *Agree* to *Disagree* for Participant 10. Participant 8 was the only one to mention instructed versus naturalistic L2 learning on the pre-questionnaire and claimed that similarity between L1 and L2 learning depended on the teacher and the learner. However, on the post-questionnaire, she cited as a similarity the necessity of exposure to the language in either case, but that instruction is usually needed for L2 learning. The only observable change for Participant 10, based on a comparison of her answers on the two questionnaires, is that she wrote on the post-questionnaire that “much more effort is needed” when learning a new language. She also noted that “in most cases it seems to be very different.”

The next question asked, *How can people best learn a FL?* It was not associated with a statement to be ranked. There seemed to be minimal change in the answers from the pre-questionnaire to the post-questionnaire. Six participants cited the importance of immersion at both times; some allowed that this could be simulated outside the context of the L2 if necessary, either by the teacher or the learner. Participants 1 and 5 noted that the best way to learn depends on the learner and his or her personal characteristics or preferences. Participant 3 recommended exposure to culture at both times as the best way to learn, and on the post-questionnaire added the importance of repeated practice. Participants 7 and 9 named practice as the best way to learn.

The open-ended question, *What barriers do you think hold students back from succeeding at learning a FL?*, elicited responses that were strikingly similar at the pre- and post-questionnaires for each participant. The overarching themes were time, effort, practice or exposure, anxiety or fear, and lack of confidence. Interestingly,

Participants 5 and 10 listed ineffective teachers at the start of the course but not at the end; Participant 5 was teaching his own classes at the time, but Participant 10 was not in the classroom at all. Eight of the 10 participants cited affective factors as barriers on the pre-questionnaire, and the same number did so on the post-questionnaire. Five cited lack of opportunities to use the FL or lack of exposure to the FL on the pre-questionnaire, and this number dropped to three on the post-questionnaire. Finally, three mentioned age on the post-questionnaire, whereas they had not on the pre-questionnaire: Participant 6 referenced age in terms of affective factors, indicating that college-aged students are afraid to make mistakes, whereas young children are not, while Participant 7 merely listed age as one of five barriers, with no elaboration. Participant 9 simply stated that “older students have a lot of difficulty.”

In the analysis of the textual data provided by the participants for the statements and questions having to do with language learning, providing personal examples emerged as a general tendency for contextualizing beliefs. Personal examples appeared in all of the topics on language learning, with the most listed for *How difficult is the task of the second/foreign language learner?* on the pre-questionnaire; Participants 4, 5, and 7 engaged in this strategy. Participant 7 wrote: “I think I am a shy person, so this factor doesn’t allow me acquire fluency quickly. Other problems are the lack of self-confidence and the fact that I didn’t practise foreign language in a realistic situation.” Participant 4 explained the following:

For me, it was impossible to gain any sort of fluency in Spanish having to learn an entire semester’s worth of information in a short 10 weeks, never having much in the way of conversation or reading practice, and simply being told to memorize grammar and vocabulary. I could write a paper decently enough, but I could never understand someone speaking to me. I was also only ever exposed to the language in class or through an hour of tutoring a week.

Two personal examples were provided for *Second languages are learned in a similar fashion to first languages*, by Participants 4 and 9 on the pre-questionnaire, and Participant 3 on the post-questionnaire. Participant 9 explained, “I think it depends on how they are taught. I studied Portuguese in a very natural environment but Mandarin in a very structured environment.”

Beliefs about Language Teaching

For this category, there were two statements to be rated, with their corresponding opportunities for explanation, and one open-ended question. The first statement read as follows: *An understanding of linguistics can help you as a FL teacher*. Very little change was observed from the start of the semester to the end: all but three participants had rated the statement as *Strongly Agree* (5) on the pre-questionnaire. Participant 1 chose *Agree* at both times, while the remaining two participants each increased their ratings on the post-questionnaire by one point. Participant 2 changed from *Agree* to *Strongly Agree* by the post-questionnaire; her explanation at the start of the semester referenced how knowing about language universals (though she did not use that term) would help aid students. On the post-questionnaire, she wrote, “Understanding how language works will help a teacher better explain language teaching and implement lessons in the classroom.” Indeed, the theme of explaining language

was mentioned by three other participants on the post-questionnaire. The idea that understanding language leads to understanding language learning was pervasive in the participants' answers on both the pre- and the post-questionnaires. Participant 6, who went from a neutral rating on the pre-questionnaire to *Agree* on the post-questionnaire, remarked that "linguistics helped me to realize how the Spanish language is as it is today. I was able to recognize patter[n]s in the language that I never saw before."

There were differences among the participants in terms of previous coursework undertaken in linguistics, and this appeared to be related to their beliefs at the start of the course. Those who had taken two or more linguistics courses ($n = 4$) already strongly agreed that *an understanding of linguistics can help you as a FL teacher*. Although those who had taken no previous linguistics courses ($n = 2$) expressed agreement with this statement, with a mean of 4.00, by the end of the semester this rating had increased to 4.50. The mean for this question for the group that had had one prior linguistics course also increased, from 4.5 to 4.75 by the end of the semester; these particular findings were not statistically significant.

For the second statement, *It is important for a FL teacher to possess knowledge of SLA*, again, little change was observed, as it seemed that at the start of the semester, the participants agreed with the idea. Nine of the 10 selected *Strongly Agree*, while one was neutral. On the post-questionnaire, two selected *Agree*, and seven selected *Strongly Agree*. However, Participant 7 selected *Strongly Disagree* but did not provide a justification. Most of the other participants echoed what they had written on the pre-questionnaire. However, Participant 6, who increased her rating from neutral to *Agree* by the end of the semester, started out with this explanation: "I do agree that it would be important to understand how a second language is acquired; however, I have yet to study this topic." On the post-questionnaire, she stated emphatically: "I just believe you cannot teach other students how to possess a second language with[out] having an understanding of it yourself."

The final question for this section was: *What do you want your students to learn in your FL classes?* This is certainly a difficult question to answer succinctly, so the answers cannot be considered to be comprehensive representations of the participants' teaching goals. It is also important to note that this topic, like the others, was not explicitly discussed in class, and perhaps it is even more true for this question than for the others that the answers cannot necessarily be attributed solely to the participants' experience of the applied linguistics class. Nonetheless, five of the 10 participants named specific goals for their students that did not appear at the beginning of the semester and were related to course topics. At the beginning of the course, students' *being able to communicate* in the target language was prevalent in the participants' stated goals, along with either grammar and culture, or the four skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) and culture. By the end, Participant 1 added "a greater appreciation for the language"; Participant 2 added "cultural and social aspects and a little bit of history of the language and the countries it is spoken in"; and Participant 9 added "how languages work and are related." These are all topics that encompass the course content studied and that were discussed explicitly during the semester in the applied linguistics course.

The post-questionnaire answers of Participants 4 and 5 did not resemble at all their pre-questionnaire answers. Participant 4 wrote in response to the question,

“Respect. Nearly every person I have met that speaks English as a second language has spoken very poorly of AAE and Southern dialects and accents. I want them to learn that non-standard dialects are not ‘incorrect’ so that they won’t judge so harshly. Maybe in return, they will not be judged harshly for any perceived mistakes they make with English.” Participant 5’s answer read as follows: “French through French culture (C & c) [referring to the existence of multiple Francophone cultures, and to culture with both a “big” and “little” c], and also some slang (yes) and awareness about some of the French views around the world. I also like them to discover part of the culture (movies, songs, etc.) that relates to my own growth and experience (because I think it probably affected the way I speak my native language as well)...” Dialects and accents formed part of the unit of the course on language variation, and slang had been discussed as part of the unit on semantics and pragmatics. As can be seen, these answers, in addition to Participant 3’s, also provided personal examples both of contact with L2 learners and their own first language use.

Evaluation of the Course

The second research question of the study focused on students’ gains in knowledge as a result of the course. At the end of the post-questionnaire only, participants were asked to *describe anything you have learned about language or linguistics in Applied Linguistics this semester that has influenced your beliefs about language teaching and/or language learning*. Two of the participants said they were now more open to language varieties. Participant 1 wrote, “I definitely had some prescriptive opinions about language and propriety that have been replaced by descriptive opinions.” Participant 4 echoed that sentiment: “I had leanings towards prescriptivism before taking FL 663. Now, I’m a hardcore descriptionist [*sic*], and that has completely changed my view about languages. It has expanded my horizons and made me want to teach tolerance of other dialects to my students. It also showed me that you can do more for students learning a language by helping them to code switch rather than correct, even native speakers of English.” Two participants named phonetics and phonology as areas where they had gained knowledge. Apart from these two commonalities, each participant seemed to have felt he or she had gained something different from the course. Table 3 reports the themes that appeared in the participants’ answers; the first column gives the participant number.

Table 3

Knowledge Gained That Has Influenced Participants’ Beliefs about Language Teaching and Learning.

#	Theme(s)
1	Descriptivist attitude
2	History of languages Language universals
3	Linguistics as useful for language learning and teaching
4	Descriptivist attitude
5	Deeper knowledge of SLA Language and the brain

- 6 Language policies
Language attitudes
- 7 Phonetics and phonology
- 8 Sapir-Whorf theory
Misconceptions related to teaching
Differences between L1 and L2 learning
Universal Grammar as a theory
Exposure to language as necessary for learning
Linguistics as difficult
Culture and language not always related
- 9 L1 acquisition
- 10 Phonetics
Assignment design for L2 students

The final piece of this section sought to understand if and why participants would recommend the course to someone who wanted to be a FL teacher. All participants chose the option for *Definitely Yes*, except Participant 6, who chose *Probably Yes*. In their written explanations, three themes appeared frequently: teachers should know about linguistics (which is consistent with their ratings of the questionnaire statement to that effect); looking at language as a whole; and applications for teaching. The participants' own words are enlightening and are thus provided below in Table 4.

Table 4
Reasons Participants Would Recommend the Applied Linguistics Class⁴

#	Explanation
1	[The course] was great because it explored many different theories and turned them into practical applications. To me that was the most valuable part of the course. The fact that the material came to life through the teaching activities and papers.
2	This class makes you take a step back and look at language as a whole not just through the eyes of English. Its important that a teacher know where language comes from and how it changes. Just as in class we learned about idioms, slang terms, new phrases, etc. Its important to know these things in the languages we teach so that students will feel part of the language. I also think that its important that a FL teacher understand how the brain works in acquiring language which is briefly touched on in the textbook but a teacher should be able to recognize how her students are learning to meet their needs. Understanding Sociolinguists and pragmatics are two others things that a teacher should be familiar with to better teach students in the FL classroom.
3	As i mentioned, linguistics solved many of my questions and let me think more about the language. i benefited a lot from learning linguistics, so i hope other person can enjoy this process.

- 4 You need to learn the life and art of language in order to teach language.
 - 5 It covers most (all?) areas of linguistics, and is thus a perfect introduction to the concepts to know in order to teach. Even if some chapters cover elements already known by the potential student, it also allows to refresh memory and link it with personal reflections on teaching.
 - 6 This class gives a great history and introduction to what is exactly "linguistics".
 - 7 I think this class is very interesting because i love linguistics, and I think everyone that wants to teach need this knowledges.
 - 8 This was a great class where I learned a lot about the theories that I have been studying but since the perspective of a researcher that is not worried about proving anything but study it. I would recommend it because it is interesting, entertaining, and very practical.
 - 9 A foreign language teacher needs to have a good understanding of linguistics and second language acquisition.
 - 10 Learn important terminology and strategies to teaching language
-

This section has presented the major trends in the findings of this research study. The next section discusses these findings in more depth, along with their implications for the program.

Discussion and Conclusion

Applied linguistics courses are common components in language teacher education programs, but as noted in the literature review, student outcomes are not always what the instructors of those courses intend. The purpose of this study was to analyze beliefs among pre-service FL teachers and whether they changed after taking a graduate course in applied linguistics. The findings indicate that the course was indeed valued by students and that beliefs regarding language learning did change somewhat over the course of the semester. This discussion focuses on the most salient results of the study.

The first component of the questionnaires dealt with attitudes toward varieties of language, asking in three different ways (two closed-ended and one open-ended question) whether there is a correct way to speak a language. Even though the ratings of the two prescriptivist statements decreased from the beginning to the end of the semester, the justifications that the majority of participants wrote demonstrated their disagreement with them from the start of the semester. This separates them in terms of their attitudes about language from many participants in studies by both Riegelhaupt and Carrasco (2005) and Attardo and Brown (2005), who, prior to (and to some extent following) taking the courses whose outcomes those studies analyzed, expressed support for the use of a standard variety of English over other varieties (Apache English and AAVE, respectively). The difference between participants in those studies and the participants of the present study may be that these students were both at the graduate level and engaged in the study of *language* and were thus more open to the topic. Nonetheless, when Participants 1 and 4 described themselves

as having been more prescriptivist in their views of language prior to the course, they may have known enough to recognize the statements on the questionnaire as incorrect, yet were not personally convinced of the value of nonstandard varieties until having studied the issue in depth later on in the course.

The most notable change in the participants' stated beliefs had to do with the perceived difficulty of language learning. While no one rated the task of the L2/FL learner as easy at the beginning of the semester, there were four participants who selected *Neither Difficult nor Easy*. By the end of the semester, all the ratings selected were solidly on the "difficult" end of the scale. It seems that the applied linguistics course, in which much time was spent discussing the complexities of language, may have helped to convince the students that language learners really do have much to learn. The reader will recall that the participants' teaching situation at the time of the study was significantly related to this belief, with those who were teaching or assisting rating it as less difficult than those who were not teaching or assisting. It was hypothesized that those who were not in the classroom at the time perhaps did not have a frame of reference or real contact with what the task of learning a FL looks like, beyond their own experience. It is important to note, though, that both those in the classroom and those who were not estimated the task of the FL learner to be more difficult following the completion of this course. Though not analyzed statistically due to the small sample size, the factor of the participants' L1 also appeared to be related to the perceived difficulty of L2 learning, with NNEs selecting higher ratings (i.e., less difficulty) than NSs. This could be because, while all the participants had studied FLs (six of them had studied three or more), the NNEs were living in the context of their L2 and had undertaken a graduate program of study in that language. In contrast, three of the NSs of English, despite the fact that two of them were enrolled in the Spanish emphasis of the graduate program, indicated in the background information portion of the pre-questionnaire that they felt they were fluent only in English. Perhaps more experience with an L2 and self-perceived fluency make the language learning task seem easier.

With regard to the issue of how people can best learn a FL, the predominance of the theme of immersion in the participants' answers is noteworthy. It is important to point out again here that the applied linguistics course did not emphasize SLA over the other course topics. However, some participants qualified their answers with the statement that where an immersion situation might not be available to learners, they can simulate aspects of it for themselves in multiple ways. The participants clearly have a grasp of the fact that the context of learning does not convey any guarantees about L2 acquisition—the use of input is up to the learner (Bardovi-Harlig, 1997, p. 34). The identification of immersion in any form did not seem to relate to participants' L1s, as both NSs and NNEs included it in their answers. The importance assigned to immersion did seem to relate to the participants' emphasis on the potential lack of opportunities for language practice and exposure to the L2 in their answers to the question of what barriers hold students back from succeeding at learning a FL. For some participants, on both questions, there was little change in the wording they used on the pre- and post-questionnaire for the barriers, even though they did not have access to their previous answers. This demonstrates the deep-seatedness of their beliefs about language learning.

While the belief in the role of immersion and opportunities for language practice (interpreted among the participants' responses as opportunities for language use, and not rote practice) does not seem to be detrimental in any way (cf. Peacock, 2001), but rather connected to the participants' own experience and coursework, attention should probably be drawn to these beliefs in the future, so that participants may become even more aware of where their beliefs come from and how they may affect their language teaching (e.g., Bailey, et al., 1996). If real-world practice is so important to these participants, what does that mean for their future teaching, and how could they be best supported in a language education program so that they are able to implement teaching that aligns with their beliefs? For instance, having already recognized the plight of the FL learners they teach or will teach, most of whom won't have access to communities of NSs with whom to use the target language, perhaps they could study how best to aid their students in creating simulated immersion experiences.

In describing their views of how people can best learn language and what barriers hold students back from success at language learning, the participants by and large showed a belief in the central role of the learner and a number of factors that are under learners' control, such as effort, time, motivation, laziness, not believing they can do it, and fear of failure or making mistakes. This awareness on the part of the participants that language learning depends in great part on the learner represents a shift in the field of SLA (Bardovi-Harlig, 1997) that has clearly filtered down to students. Additionally, they characterized teachers' knowledge as enabling them to help students.

The final piece of the data on participants' beliefs is about language teaching and particularly the role of knowledge of linguistics for the FL teacher. Strong agreement with both of the closed-ended statements, *An understanding of linguistics can help you as a foreign language teacher* and *It is important for a foreign language teacher to possess knowledge of second language acquisition*, was already present on the pre-questionnaire. This could have been due to participants' high expectations at the start of the course, perhaps because of their awareness that the course was required for their program. However, the ratings were even higher at the end of the semester for the statement about an understanding of linguistics. It is suspected that this would have actually been the case for the SLA statement as well; however, Participant 7 selected *Strongly Disagree* and did not provide a justification.

The participants' stated goals for what they wanted their students to learn in their FL classes did change from the start of the semester to the end. Nearly all of the participants at the beginning referenced general terms such as *grammar*, *culture*, the four skills, and being able to communicate in the FL. However, the answers Participants 1, 2, 4, 5, and 9 gave to the same question at the end of the semester displayed more variety and a broader focus that, as described in the previous section, encompassed course topics, suggesting that having taken the course, either alone or in combination with other courses in the program, could lead to change in participants' intentions for teaching. It is possible that those five participants engaged in more reflection on the applied part of the course than the others.

As described in the Findings section, participants made use of personal examples in explaining their language learning and teaching beliefs. It is important to

be aware that even when not explicitly stated in the responses, many of the beliefs the participants described likely came from their own experience. It seems that there is an *apprenticeship of observation* (Lortie, 1975) not only for classroom experience in general, but also one of a more introspective and specific nature that allows participants to absorb the factors in their own language learning in order to organize and make sense of their language teaching beliefs. The fact that the question about the difficulty of the task of the L2 learner was not framed in personal terms, (i.e. *How difficult has your language learning been?*) but rather in impersonal terms, and yet it resulted in the descriptions of three participants' own language learning, makes it clear that their experience has framed their views of language learning and the factors involved. It was observed that the strategy of relating personal examples was frequently used by Participants 3, 4, and 5; Participant 3 gave three personal examples but only on the post-questionnaire; Participant 4 provided three examples on the pre-questionnaire and one on the post-questionnaire; and Participant 5 provided two on the pre-questionnaire and one on the post-questionnaire. Perhaps this tendency is simply a characteristic of personality, such as introspection or self-awareness, but it seems that it would be a good quality to exploit in a teacher education program, as it is likely that not all learners are fully aware of potential relationships between their experiences and beliefs. Interestingly, these personal examples relate not to specific teachers or courses as in Bailey et al. (1996) or Johnson (1994), but to the way courses were structured or to the learning context in general.

The second research question sought to understand what participants felt they had gained from taking the applied linguistics course. As indicated previously, all but one said they would strongly recommend the course (Participant #6 answered that she would probably recommend the course), and their reasons were given in Table 4. It is interesting to note that only Participants 1 and 10 mentioned concrete uses of the knowledge gained in the course for their teaching practice. Participant 1 lauded the practical applications of the course and that "the material came to life through the teaching activities and papers." Participant 10 stated that she had learned about designing assignments for L2 students. Both of these participants were referring to the instructional activities assignments completed during the semester, in which students applied what they had learned in specified units to the creation of classroom activities for students. The activities themselves went through multiple drafts and received peer feedback as well as feedback from the professor. No other participant made direct reference to course activities. Nonetheless, the gains that participants named are on target with the topics presented and discussed in the course.

The variety of topics identified by participants as areas where knowledge was gained seems to represent the individual nature of their beliefs; it also speaks to the importance of relevance in course design in language teacher education programs (Bartels, 2005c; Thornbury, 1997). It is also clear that the course has at least some potential to influence what teachers desire that their students learn, based on the participants' answers to that question in this study, as half of them showed marked changes from the beginning of the semester. Therefore, one implication of this study is the importance of student reactions in helping to determine course content (cf. Ellis, 2010). Instructors of this type of course (and any such course in language teacher education programs) could present the same questions to students over multiple se-

mesters about whether they would recommend the course to FL teachers and what knowledge they feel they gained; this process could help instructors to better understand what resonates with students. On the other hand, topics that students do not mention as helpful or useful over time on the questionnaire could be reevaluated, or presented in class with an explicit explanation for students of why the material is relevant or how it could be applied in practice, if possible.

This study has brought to light pertinent factors related to pre-service teachers' language learning and teaching beliefs. The findings, however, are subject to two main limitations: the relatively small participant group and the singular mode of data collection. The low number of participants made it impossible to analyze some of the questionnaire results statistically and to find statistical significance in some analyses. Nonetheless, this study set out to investigate the possible effects of the applied linguistics course specifically, and only eleven students were enrolled in the course during that semester (with 10 completing both the pre-questionnaire and the post-questionnaire). Despite the specific nature of the course investigated here, it is suspected that some findings may be generalizable to other master's programs in teaching languages with a similar curriculum (e.g., linguistics, language, and methodology courses). In any case, instructors of linguistics courses and researchers may wish to explore further the issues raised by these findings, in light of their potential implications for course design and relevance.

The study would also have been made stronger with an additional method of data collection, one that went beyond the written answers on the questionnaires. Observation of the participants in the classroom, which is recommended in the literature on teacher beliefs, was not a viable option in this case, since only two of the participants were teaching at the time; in addition, the beliefs measured on the questionnaires were not directly observable. Carrying out interviews with the participants, though, would have allowed for the opportunity to clarify answers on the questionnaires and for the researcher to seek more detail from participants. However, because the researcher was also the instructor, it was seen as problematic to ask more of the participants than filling out the two questionnaires, which might have put undue pressure on students to participate in the study. Future studies that examine the outcomes of linguistics courses for language teachers should probably, to the extent possible, work with students of other instructors so that they can avoid this issue.

This study has contributed an understanding of what beliefs of students in a language education program may change over the course of a semester-long linguistics class; in some cases, it seems that the participants' own beliefs were confirmed or perhaps even reinforced by course material. Future research should address how it is that beliefs actually change during such a course and attempt to control for or identify other factors that may influence teacher beliefs. The results of this study do appear to confirm the perceived importance of the applied linguistics course among future FL teachers (Bartels, 2005c). The course appears to have encouraged students to reflect on the complexity of language and may have helped them see L2 learning as more difficult than they did prior to the course.

The study has also contributed insight into how students' perceptions of the difficulty of L2 learning may relate to their own L1s and their teaching experience.

These factors do not appear to have been studied previously in this way in connection with language learning beliefs. This information is useful for language teacher educators and for the students themselves, as they may become more aware of their own beliefs as they undertake advanced degrees (cf. Borg, 2011). Teacher educators can leverage this awareness on the part of the students as a way to increase relevance and assist with the intake of course material. It is proposed that teacher educators research their own students' beliefs to inform methodology courses, as this would serve to help strengthen the articulation of courses in language teacher education programs and ensure the relevance of content across courses.

Notes

¹ In the course described as part of the study presented in this paper, the technical distinction between second and foreign language learning was presented to students; however, during the course of the semester, the terms were often used interchangeably. Similarly, the terms are used interchangeably in this paper.

² It is important to note that the small number of participants may have limited the possibility of finding statistical significance for other items.

³ Participant responses are given verbatim and have not been edited, except for occasional clarifications where needed; these are provided in brackets.

⁴ Participant responses are provided exactly as they were written on the post-questionnaire, with the exception of one bracketed clarification.

References

- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (2013). *ACTFL program standards for the preparation of foreign language teachers*. Available from <http://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/ACTFLStandardsAPRIL2014.pdf>
- Angelova, M. (2005). Using Bulgarian mini-lessons in an SLA course to improve the KAL of American ESL teachers. In N. Bartels (Ed.), *Educational Linguistics Series: Vol. 4. Applied linguistics and language teacher education* (pp. 27–42). New York: Springer.
- Arnett, K., & Turnbull, M. (2007). Teacher beliefs in second and foreign language teaching: A state-of-the-art review. In H. J. Siskin (Ed.), *AAUSC 2007: From thought to action: Exploring beliefs and outcomes in the foreign language program* (pp. 9–28). Boston: Thomson Heinle.
- Attardo, S., & Brown, S. (2005). What's the use of linguistics? Pre-service English teachers' beliefs towards language use and variation. In N. Bartels (Ed.), *Educational Linguistics Series: Vol. 4. Applied linguistics and language teacher education* (pp. 91–102). New York: Springer.
- Bailey, K. M., Bergthold, B., Braunstein, B., Fleischman, N. J., Holbrook, M. P., Tuman, J., Waissbluth, X., & Zambo, L. J. (1996). The language learner's autobiography: Examining the "apprenticeship of observation". In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher learning in language teaching* (pp. 11–29). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1997). The place of second language acquisition theory in language teacher preparation. In K. Bardovi-Harlig & B. Hartford (Eds.), *Beyond methods: Components of second language teacher education* (pp. 1–16). Boston: McGraw-Hill.

- Bartels, N. (2002). Professional preparation and action research: Only for language teachers? *TESOL Quarterly*, 36(1), 71-79.
- Bartels, N. (Ed.) (2005a). *Educational Linguistics Series: Vol. 4. Applied linguistics and language teacher education*. New York: Springer.
- Bartels, N. (2005b). Researching applied linguistics in language teacher education. In N. Bartels (Ed.), *Educational Linguistics Series: Vol. 4. Applied linguistics and language teacher education* (pp. 1-26). New York: Springer.
- Bartels, N. (2005c). Applied linguistics and language teacher education: What we know. In N. Bartels (Ed.), *Educational Linguistics Series: Vol. 4. Applied linguistics and language teacher education* (pp. 405-424). New York: Springer.
- Borg, S. (2011). The impact of in-service teacher education on language teachers' beliefs. *System*, 39(3), 370-380.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Busch, D. (2010). Pre-service teacher beliefs about language learning: The second language acquisition course as an agent for change. *Language Teaching Research*, 14(3), 318-337. doi: 10.1177/1362168810365239
- Crandall, J. (2000). Language teacher education. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 20, 34-55.
- Ellis, R. (2010). Second language acquisition, teacher education, and language pedagogy. *Language Teaching*, 43, 182-201.
- Freeman, D., & Johnson, K. (1998). Reconceptualizing the knowledge-base of language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(3), 397-417.
- Fromkin, V., Rodman, R., & Hyams, N. (2013). *An introduction to language* (10th ed.). Boston: Cengage.
- Horwitz, E. K. (1985). Using students' beliefs about language learning and teaching in the foreign language methods course. *Foreign Language Annals*, 18(4), 333-340.
- Horwitz, E. K. (1988). The beliefs about language learning of beginning university foreign language students. *The Modern Language Journal*, 72(3), 283-294.
- Johnson, K. E. (1994). The emerging beliefs and instructional practices of pre-service English as a second language teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 10(4), 439-452.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (1995). *How languages are learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lo, Y.-H.G. (2005). Relevance of knowledge of second language acquisition: An in-depth case study of a non-native EFL teacher. In N. Bartels (Ed.), *Educational Linguistics Series: Vol. 4. Applied linguistics and language teacher education* (pp. 135-158). New York: Springer.
- Lortie, D. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- MacDonald, M., Badger, R., & White, G. (2001). Changing values: What use are theories of language learning and teaching? *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17(8), 949-963.
- Morrison, J. W. (1979). A good servant, but... Linguistics in teacher training. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 34(1), 11-18.

- Ogasawara, L. (1983). Problems encountered in applying linguistics to the teaching of English in Japan. In J. E. Alatis, H. H. Stern, & P. Strevens (Eds.), *Georgetown University Roundtable on Language and Linguistics 1983* (pp. 303-311). Washington, D. C.: Georgetown University Press.
- Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, 62(3), 307-332.
- Peacock, M. (2001). Pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning: A longitudinal study. *System*, 29(2), 177-195.
- Pinker, S. (2007). *The language instinct: How the mind creates language*. New York: HarperCollins.
- Popko, A. J. (2005). How MA-TESOL students use knowledge about language in teaching ESL classes. In N. Bartels (Ed.), *Educational Linguistics Series: Vol. 4. Applied linguistics and language teacher education* (pp. 387-404). New York: Springer.
- Richardson, V. (1996). The role of attitudes and beliefs in learning to teach. In J. Sikula (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education*, 2nd ed. (pp. 102-119). New York: Macmillan.
- Riegelhaupt, F., & Carrasco, R. L. (2005). The effects of training in linguistics on teaching: K-12 teachers in White Mountain Apache schools. In N. Bartels (Ed.), *Educational Linguistics Series: Vol. 4. Applied linguistics and language teacher education* (pp. 103-118). New York: Springer.
- Rogers, M. (1988). Developments in applied linguistics and language teaching. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 26(1), 1-18.
- Siebert, L. L. (2003). Student and teacher beliefs about language learning. *The ORTESOL Journal*, 21, 7-39.
- Thornbury, S. (1997). *About language: Tasks for teachers of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wilkins, D. A. (1972). *Linguistics in language teaching*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Woods, D. (1996). *Teacher cognition in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Appendix

Questionnaire

Please answer the questions on the following survey as honestly as you can.

What is your native language?

What languages have you studied formally?

In what languages do you consider yourself to be fluent?

Please indicate each of the following that applies to your teaching of foreign/second languages.

- I have taught in the past but am not currently teaching.
- I am currently teaching my own class(es) at USM.
- I am currently teaching my own class(es) at a location other than USM.
- I am currently assisting someone in class, as a TA.

- I am neither teaching nor assisting now but am planning to teach in the future.
- I am neither teaching nor assisting, and I don't plan to teach in the future.
- I provide tutoring.

How many years have you been teaching or did you teach?

- Less than 1
- 2-5
- 6-10
- 11-15
- 16-20
- More than 20

Please state what language(s), class(es), and level(s) you either currently teach or plan to teach.

Please describe your current familiarity with the field of linguistics.

What other core courses have you taken in the program? (Check all that apply.)

- Teaching Methods
- Second Language Acquisition
- Sociolinguistics and Sociocultural Perspectives

What previous linguistics courses have you taken, and where and when?

What do you want your students to learn in your foreign language classes?

How difficult is the task of the second/foreign language learner?

- Very Difficult (1)
- Difficult (2)
- Somewhat Difficult (3)
- Neither Difficult nor Easy (4)
- Somewhat Easy (5)
- Easy (6)
- Very Easy (7)

Please explain your answer to the previous question.

How can people best learn a foreign language?

What barriers do you think hold students back from succeeding at learning a foreign language?

Is there is a "correct" way to speak your native language? How about your second language? Describe.

What does learning a second language have in common with learning a first language? What is different?

Please indicate which of the following terms you could define without looking them up.

- phonetics
- phonology
- morphology
- syntax
- sociolinguistics
- dialectology
- lexicon
- pragmatics
- semantics

Please express your agreement or disagreement with the following statements, and explain your answers in the text boxes that follow each question.

An understanding of linguistics can help you as a foreign language teacher.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly Agree (5)

Please explain your answer to the previous question.

It is important for a foreign language teacher to possess knowledge of second language acquisition.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly Agree (5)

Please explain your answer to the previous question.

Learning a foreign language is difficult.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly Agree (5)

Please explain your answer to the previous question.

Second languages are learned in a similar fashion to first languages.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly Agree (5)

Please explain your answer to the previous question.

Some dialects are better than others.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly Agree (5)

Please explain your answer to the previous question.

Some dialects are more correct than others.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly Agree (5)
- Please explain your answer to the previous question.

The following questions appeared on the post-questionnaire only:

Has anything changed about your current teaching situation or your plans to teach in the future since you took the pre-survey in September? If so, please describe.

Please describe anything you have learned about language or linguistics in FL 663 this semester that has influenced your beliefs about language teaching and/or language learning.

Would you recommend this class to someone who wants to be a foreign language teacher?

- Definitely Yes (1)
- Probably Yes (2)
- Maybe (3)
- Probably Not (4)
- Definitely Not (5)

Please describe your reasons for your answer to the previous question.

Is there anything else you would like to comment on?



**Southern Conference on Language Teaching
Board of Directors
2014-2015**

Linda Zins-Adams
President

Linda Markley
Recording Secretary

Carol Anne Costabile-Heming
Vice President and Director of Exhibits
and Advertising

Clarissa Adams-Fletcher
Director of SCOLTalk
and Social Media

June C.D. Carter
Immediate Past President

Thomas Soth
Director of Awards

Carmen Scoggins
Director of Scholarships

Caroline Switzer Kelly
SCOLT Representative to ACTFL

Alisha Dawn Samples
Director of Advocacy and Outreach

Pete Swanson
Dimension Editor

David Jahner
Executive Director

2014 Individual Sponsors

Clarissa Adams-Fletcher	GA	Amanda Dennis	AL
Martha Dow Adams	MS	Greg Duncan	GA
David Alley	GA	Marjorie Duvall	GA
Janis Antonek	NC	Lydia Ellis	AL
Greg Armstrong	AR	Leila Falt	AL
Jason Bagley	SC	Catherine Fortin	NC
Leslie Baldwin	NC	Anne Fountain	CA
Greg Barfield	GA	Mary Ellen Foye	VA
Alice Barrette	KY	Lynn Fulton-Archer	DE
Sue Barry	AL	Angela George	GA
Jennifer Bartlett	GA	Ransom Gladwin	GA
Laura Beasley	TN	Jennifer Godwin	SC
Fleming Bell	GA	John C. Green	GA
Pamela Benton	FL	Ann Marie Gunter	NC
Sara Betler	NC	Donna Guzzo	FL
Peggy Bilbro	AL	Carrie Haight	GA
Hannah Bollinger	NC	Laura Hall	MS
Herman Bostick	MD	Terri Hammatt	LA
Laura Bosworth	KY	Sandra Hammond	FL
Christopher Botero	GA	Elizabeth Harrison	MS
Peggy Boyles	OK	Ellen Hart	NC
Janet Bunch	MS	Edee Heard	GA
Patricia Carlin	AR	Mirela Helberi	GA
June Carter	SC	Grace Helguero Balcells	FL
Rosalie Cheatham	AR	Mildred Hernandez	NC
Elizabeth Combier	GA	Kristin Hoyt	GA
Diane Clark	GA	Shirley Hurd	GA
Michaela Claus-Nix	GA	Irmgard Immel	GA
Carol Anne		David Jahner	GA
Constabile-Heming	TX	Yohanna Jimenez	MS
Nicole Curran	NC	Norah Jones	VA
Kelly Davidson Devall	SC	Susanne Kelley	GA
Dianne Davis	AL	Caroline Kelly	NC
Susann Davis	KY	Charli Kinard	SC

2014 Individual Sponsors

Vernon LaCour	MS	Jana Sandarg	GA
Audrey Laird	AL	Monika Santiago	SC
William Michael Lake	GA	Carmen Scoggins	NC
Elizabeth Lawrence-Baez	SC	Vanessa Shepherd	KY
James Linos	GA	Gilda Socarras	AL
Mark Linsky	GA	Thomas Soth	NC
Sheri Spaine Long	NC	Ken Stewart	NC
Steven Lownes	SC	Janene Sullivan	GA
Cheryl Maqueda	MS	Peter Swanson	GA
Linda Markley	FL	Jennifer Teply	AL
Elaine McAllister	GA	Karen Tharrington	NC
Susanna Miller	GA	Valerie Theriez	LA
Elena Moore	FL	Joanne Thomas	GA
Juan Carlos Morales	FL	Joe Frank Uriz	GA
Maire Morenilla	AL	Nancy Valdes	FL
Dana Mucci	AL	Jon Valentine	GA
Lori Nielsen	AR	Jacque Van Houten	KY
Michelle Olah	FL	Aurora Fiengo-Varn	MS
Amy Olsen	NC	Laurie Veillon	GA
Denise Overfield	GA	Nolvía Ventura	MS
Linda Paragone	AL	Maria Villadoniga	FL
Carlos Parra	TN	Alyssa Villarreal	TN
Edwin Perez	GA	Dana Vinson	AL
Beth Pierce	MS	Edward Weintraut	GA
Lisa Podbilski	KY	Meredith White	TN
Stacey Powell	AL	Ivonne Jeannette	
Shirley Price	TN	Whitehead	MS
Sherrie Queen	FL	Carol Wilkerson	WA
Sharon Rapp	AR	Melissa Willing	KY
Mary Lynn Redmond	NC	John Wilson	GA
Pamela Reynolds	AR	Carolyn Wright	NC
James Robinson	AL	Jenee Wright	MS
M. Janet Robles	FL	Margaret Young	SC
Greg Sanchez	GA	Linda Zins-Adams	OH
		John Zyck	GA



2014 Patrons Representing Institutions and Organizations

ACTFL, VA
Martha Abbott

FLAG, VA
Mary Ellen Foye

AATF, IL
Jayne Abrate

Stevens Learning Systems, GA
Jamie Hincemon

NC
Bonnie Jean Avilez de Hudson

NNELL, TN
Nadine Jacobsen-McLean

University of Central Arkansas, AR
Phillip Bailey

Arkansas DOE, AR
John Kaminar

University of Alabama
at Birmingham, AL
Krista Chambless

FLAVA, VA
Dick Kuettner

AATG, NJ
Keith Cothrun

Pine Crest Academy, FL, FL
Frank Kruger-Robbins

South Carolina DOE, SC
Ruta Couet

FFLA, FL
Gudrun Martyny

AL,
Catherine Danielou

VA
Lynne McClendon

AFLTA, AR
Sephania Dhonau

Perry County Schools, TN
Joe Murphy

North Carolina State University, NC
Susan Navey-Davis



2014 Patrons Representing Institutions and Organizations

FLANC, NC Cornelia Okraski	AATSP, MI Emily Spinelli
University of Alabama at Birmingham, AL Malinda O'Leary	Mount St. Mary Academy, AR Maureen Stover
Fulton County Schools, GA Jamie Patterson	SCFLTA, SC Art Turfa
Pine Crest Academy, FL, FL Roselyne Pirson	SCFLTA, SC Cristy Vogel
AFLTA, AR Sherrie Ray-Trevino	KWLA, KY Jocelyne Waddle
University of Florida, FL Mary Risner	FLAVA, VA Annette Waggoner
JNCL/NCLIS, MD Bill Rivers	AAFLT, AL Heather West
Valdosta State University, GA Victoria Russell	University of Tennessee, TN Dolly Young
	IL Helene Zimmer-Loew

ISBN 1-883640-29-6