Dimension 2017

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Paula Garrett-Rucks

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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 published professionals, committed to second language education at research universities. 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made: "accept as is," "request a second draft with minor revisions," "request a second draft with major revisions," or "do not publish."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 initialdraft. These revised manuscripts are reviewed a second time before a final decision to publish is made.

The editor of *Dimension* 2017 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 2016 annual meeting of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching. Starting as a proceedings publication, *Dimension* has now become the official peer-reviewed journal of SCOLT and is published once annually in the spring. Under the direction of the former editor, Dr. Peter Swanson, *Dimension* transitioned from a proceedings publication to an official peer-reviewed journal, and the board decided to place the journal online via SCOLT's webpage. This transition has dramatically improved the international visibility of the authors' work. In the first few years of being placed online for global consumption, authors' work is being read and cited globally.

SCOLT Editorial Review Board 2017

Languages: Your Global Fast Pass

The Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) held its annual conference March 16-18, 2017, at the Orlando Airport Marriott Lakeside in Orlando, Florida in collaboration with the Southeastern Association of Language Learning Technology (SEALLT) and the Florida Foreign Language Association (FFLA). Starting as a proceedings publication, *Dimension* is now the official peer-reviewed journal of SCOLT that publishes national and international authors once a year. In this year's volume, there are seven articles that provide readers insight into a variety of research on the teaching and learning of languages and cultures.

This year's volume begins with a chapter in which authors Linwood J. Randolph Jr. (University of North Carolina—Wilmington) and Stacey Margarita Johnson (Vanderbilt University) respond to the growing momentum in the field around social justice themes in language instruction. Their timely work skillfully intertwines common tenets of traditional Standards-based instruction to critical pedagogy and transformative learning. The authors bridge theory and praxis in their section "Social Justice Pedagogy: Considerations in Various Contexts" where they provide example activities for educators to guide learners through explorations of power, inequity, and community participation in and through language learning. Their subsequent how-to approaches guide educators to begin the process of lesson planning within a critical, social justice framework across language learning proficiency levels. In the section "Call for Future Work" the authors outline several research topics to consider for submission in the *Dimension* 2018 Special Issue: Focus on Social Justice and Critical Pedagogy that Stacey Margarita Johnson will be co-editing.

In Chapter 2, Tim Jansa (Georgia State University) and Kristina Brezicha (Georgia State University) provide insight into the increasingly popular educational movement, the Seal of Biliteracy. In this chapter, the authors demystify the Seal of Biliteracy and its inherent benefits to learners. The authors then describe Seal of Biliteracy goals, policy selection, implementation, and suggestions for policy improvements. This chapter is a must read for all K-16 language educators to better understand policy changes in our field.

Next, Sheri Spaine Long (Independent Scholar) and James Rasmussen (U.S. Air Force Academy) respond to the MLA directive (2007) that called for a broadening of the traditional language and literature curriculum in their chapter on the teaching of leadership and responsibility within foreign language literary studies. The authors describe texts, textual analysis, and cross-cultural instructional strategies for leadership integration into the German and Spanish curriculum for military students at the U.S. Air Force Academy in Colorado and civilian university learners at UNC Charlotte. The authors report that German and Spanish literature students, to varying degrees of sophistication, were able to identify and analyze leadership and followership behaviors with culturally unique critical perspective within the select texts. The authors discuss challenges presented across institutional settings, noting that in the civilian context there was an increased need to press the leadership theme "into the consciousness of students" (p. 66). Yet across both institutional settings,

students commonly reported that the leadership filter made historical literary figures "more relevant and comprehensible for daily life application" (p. 66).

In Chapter 4, Concepción B. Godev (University of North Carolina—Charlotte) describes a process of designing an L2 reading lab courseware at the intermediate level to infuse more intensive and extensive reading into the curriculum of a third-semester online course at the UNC Charlotte. In this chapter, Godev describes the selection criteria used to estimate the average length of an ideal reading passage, the number of texts, and the number of reading-comprehension activity items associated with each reading passage for each module. This study responds to instructor concerns expressed in the literature over budgetary constraints on reading resources and the lack of time for reading in the classroom by creating online leveled reading assignments followed by interactive reading activities with free software (Hot Potatoes) for students to use outside of face-to-face instruction. In the concluding comments, the author claims that the reading courseware presented here can "help make it possible for instructors to integrate the notion of a 'reading lab' into the dynamics of instruction as it has been done with the 'listening lab' since the audio cassette tape era" (p. 83).

In the next chapter, William Keith Corbitt (West Chester University) brings attention to an underrepresented group of language learners—special needs or at risk students. Corbitt first describes an historical account of the creation of Modified Foreign Language Learning Programs (MFLPs), intended to meet the needs of these learners. He then describes his innovative study to identify the relationship between differences in learning styles and perceived metacognitive listening strategies for MFLP and non-MFLP learners, identifying a strong visual learning style preference for MFLP learners. The description of a multisensory approach and additional pedagogical implications in this chapter provide great insight to prepare teachers with strategies to meet the needs of diverse learners to improve their practice.

Next, in Chapter 6, Christina Agostinelli-Fucile (The State University of New York—Geneseo) investigates the ways in which pronunciation instruction might improve the learner's perception of individual sounds in the target language and student listening comprehension improvement in a university beginning Spanish language class. By centering on the case of /s/ aspiration in Spanish—due to native English speakers' difficulty to perceive this type of aspiration—the author's innovative study design avoids contrastive pronunciation training that may have explicitly raised the learner's awareness of the contrasts being tested in previous research findings. Although the results of the study did not reveal great improvement in learner sound perception, it was observed that the students were readily able to produce /s/ aspiration and gained greater dialectal awareness.

In the final chapter, Michael Scott Doyle (University of North Carolina—Charlotte), Anton Pujol (University of North Carolina—Charlotte), and Concepción B. Godev (University of North Carolina—Charlotte) respond to the compelling calls for curricular transformation in translation and interpretation studies in the 2007 MLA report. The authors describe the ways in which the UNC Charlotte program has been developing a curriculum that offers a rich array of programming in translating (praxis) and translation studies (a theory-based scholarly field of inquiry) for nearly 40 years. The authors describe their curricular architecture to reflect ongoing

needs assessment in the areas of "student language proficiency, student learning outcomes, student interests, infrastructures where translations are developed, research on translators' competencies, and market demand for translation services" (p. 145). The authors further tout the program to have "a learner outcome goal of developing critical-thinking and problem-solving strategies, research skills, resources, and the technology-based tools, such as computer-assisted translation and translation memory software programs, upon which to continue building in order to become more effective translators and interpreters over the long term" (p. 148). The program and curriculum described in this chapter provide an adaptable model for translation programs' consideration.

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 2017*. These individuals are leaders in their fields and I greatly appreciate their time and energy. On behalf of the editorial team, I believe that readers will find the articles in this edition informative and inspiring. Please be sure to thank: (1) attending authors for contributing their work to *Dimension*, (2) members of the Editorial Review Board for assisting their colleagues in the preparation of the articles, and (3) the SCOLT Sponsors and Patrons for their ongoing financial support that makes *Dimension* possible.

Paula Garrett-Rucks
Editor, Dimension
Georgia State University

Social Justice in the Language Classroom:
A Call to Action

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Abstract

The goals of language education in the United States have always been informed by the social, historical, and political contexts in which the instruction takes place. In this paper, we make the case for social justice education in all language classrooms, and we explore the different threads of scholarship that inform social justice in language education. We begin with the Communities and Cultures standards, and then discuss critical pedagogy and transformative learning. Avenues and opportunities are explored for effective social justice instruction at the lesson planning and course design level, and for professional development. This paper concludes with a call to action for all language teachers.

Key Words: *Social Justice, Critical Pedagogy, Intercultural Communicative Competence, Transformative Learning, World-Readiness Standards*

Background

The goals of language education in the United States have always been informed by the social, historical, and political contexts in which the instruction takes place. These contexts have influenced methodologies (from grammar-translation to proficiency-based approaches) as well as language offerings (from classical language curricula to modern world and community language curricula) with specific languages experiencing varying degrees of popularity throughout history. Although functional proficiency in the target language is often touted as a goal of language programs and an expectation for students, the structure of language programs in the US has never been ideal for fostering such fluency; many students do not begin language study until mid to late adolescence and will not achieve the amount of contact hours necessary to become proficient in the language of study (Johnson, 2015).

Many researchers (e.g., Johnson & Randolph, 2015; Leeman, 2007; Norton & Toohey, 2010; Osborn, 2006) have challenged the idea of a purely practical, proficiency-based language classroom and have called upon language educators to take a more critical approach to curriculum development that recognizes the political nature of language study. In fact, the current political climate of our nation is often dominated by questions of immigration, diversity, inclusion, multiculturalism, and globalism—all issues that relate to and are informed by language and language study.

The recently released "Framework for Developing Global and Cultural Competencies to Advance Equity, Excellence and Economic Competitiveness" (U.S. Department of Education International Affairs Office, 2017) is a testament to the high urgency of such issues.

Generally, social justice can be defined as the equitable sharing of social power and benefits within a society (Osborn, 2006). In the context of language education, this would include the curricular elements as well as the instructional choices implemented to aid in that endeavor. Although social justice has emerged in the last decade as a popular line of inquiry in language pedagogy scholarship, the foundations for social justice education have been present for much longer. For decades, researchers have been concerned about the superficial treatment of culture in world language curriculum development and instruction and have called for more critical approaches (Garrett-Rucks, 2016; Koning, 2010; Kubota, 2008; Nieto, 2002; Tedick & Walker, 1994; Weinberg, 1982). Although social justice education is compatible with the world language curriculum and can be rewarding, it is also challenging and intentional work. Incorporating this type of pedagogy requires the critical deconstruction of various political, institutional, and linguistic power structures that exist as well as their explicit and implicit influences in the organization and operation of schools and in the development of curriculum. Faculty have long been teaching students to see the world from divergent points of view and to reevaluate their worldview based on their new understanding of other languages, cultures, and communities. The next steps for teachers and researchers involve operationalizing the factors, developing strategies and materials, and sharing successes with an eye towards replicability and scalability. Because the foundation for social justice in language education has already been laid, the current community of teachers and scholars must continue to build on that foundation with original research that furthers our understanding of how to take critical approaches to social justice in the world language classroom.

Given that the world language curriculum is already quite overloaded, many language teachers may wonder why and how social justice themes should be incorporated into their classrooms. For nearly two decades, the world language curriculum has been guided by the Five C's: Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Cultures. Given the broad nature of these curricular goals, a teacher could spend an entire language course focusing solely on the development of students' language proficiency and performance (the Communication standard) while neglecting the other standards. This is a common and understandable approach, because it is challenging enough to develop students' skills in speaking, listening, reading, and writing in the interpersonal, interpretive, and presentational modes within the confines of a traditional classroom model. The challenge is exasperated with the added responsibility of incorporating the other C's of the curriculum and, beyond that, the addition of a social justice element. No matter how important those curricular elements may be, it is indeed impractical to incorporate each of them into everyday instruction in an isolated fashion. Teachers must be intentional and resourceful about the way they integrate these skills and capitalize upon the potential for interconnectivity that each element offers. It is our argument that social justice concepts support language proficiency goals as well as all five of the C's from the *World-Readiness Standards* (National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015), and

that social justice can be pursued at all levels of the world language curriculum. In fact, social justice can be the thread that ties together the other curricular elements.

As language, culture, and community are inextricably connected, the language education classroom provides the ideal context for entering critical, transformative spaces of culture and community study informed by a social justice framework. Moreover, this critical approach to language study complements the curricular goals as outlined by the *World-Readiness Standards* (2015) and supports the development of students' language proficiency and intercultural communicative competence at all levels. ACTFL's (2016) most recent statement on the value of language study for diversity and unity further underscores the importance of learning to communicate with each other in ways that foster the collaboration and creativity necessary to address real social problems. The statement asserts that "diversity and intercultural competence are qualities that must be embraced in the US and throughout the world" (paragraph 1).

In this paper, we make the case for social justice education in the world language classroom for all learners, and we explore the different threads of scholarship that inform social justice in language education beginning with the Communities and Cultures standards for connections to social justice education. We then demonstrate that scholarship in critical pedagogy and transformative learning in language education is already setting the stage for social justice as a unifying principle. We conclude by suggesting avenues and opportunities for effective social justice instruction at the lesson planning level, the course design level, and for language teacher development.

Social Justice in Language Education

In a webinar (Randolph & Johnson, 2016) through the ACTFL Teaching and Learning of Culture Special Interest Group in June 2016, we asked participants what they associated with the term social justice. They gave answers such as equity, sharing of power, response to biases, fairness, reconciliation, self-reflection, empowerment, community, and critique of whiteness. These answers suggest that social justice is a subjective term that takes on different meanings in various contexts. As authors, this presents us with a dilemma—we want to avoid an objective, prescribed definition of social justice, but at the same time we recognize that we cannot speak critically of social justice education without some sense of common reference about what exactly the term entails. With those constraints and goals in mind, we have developed a framework for understanding how topics of social justice fit into the broader context of world language education.

For the purposes of this essay, we imagine the scope of social justice to include any aspect of the language classroom through which participants (students, teachers, and other stakeholders) come to a greater understanding of or make progress towards equity in society. Social justice is related to at least four other themes that have emerged in the current generation of world language education: critical pedagogy, intercultural competence, transformative learning, and community-based learning. In order to engage in social justice in the classroom, students need to develop their intercultural communicative competence, which is often a transformative learning process that fundamentally alters the way students interact with the world. As teach-

ers, we employ critical pedagogy in the classroom and, as a result of a social justice emphasis, are able to effectively engage in community-based learning.
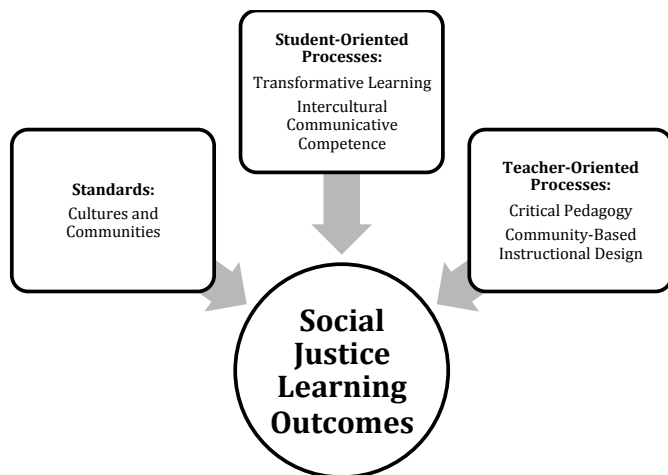
Figure 1. Elements of Social Justice in World Language Education

Cultures and Communities

When teachers' pedagogical choices and learners' experiences are all organized around a critically conscious view of the World-Readiness Standards' sections on Cultures and Communities, our classrooms become sites of social justice work. Below, we explore each of these elements in more detail.

Community-based learning. A community, at the most basic level, can be defined as a group of individuals that, to some degree, have shared experiences. When we ask students to study another culture, we are asking them to enter into a community that is not their own, make sense of new experiences, and build relationships. In some classrooms, community engagement is limited to the virtual or hypothetical. In others, students travel, do service learning, or in other ways experience actual contact with communities. Although it is often largely ignored by language educators because of the logistical difficulties it entails, the Communities standard is a high priority for language learners (Magnan, 2014).

When students engage in this kind of community-based learning, we cannot ignore historical and current injustices forced upon those communities. It is undoubtedly more comfortable and less controversial to interact with communities as *tourists* (Byram, 1997) benefitting from privileged positions without acknowledging the realities of race, class, power, and oppression. However, students cannot effectively engage with the communities about which they learn without also understanding the social, historical, economic, and political interactions between their own communities and the target communities. Through community-based learning, students should come to understand that entering into authentic relationships with people from another community requires getting to know people as individuals and not as representatives of a community, while also acknowledging the common reali-

ties experienced by members of that community.

Community engagement, when done well, can be an enlightening or even disorienting experience for students. It can also lead students to develop empathy and courage, building relationships across difference and participating in community activism both in their own and other communities. Students may come to understand the truth in the famous Lilla Watson quote, "If you have come here to help me, you are wasting your time. But if you have come because your liberation is bound up with mine, then let us work together."

In the current social and political climate in which our language classrooms are situated, the need is clear for students to be able to communicate, not only in the most efficient way possible, but also in ways that set the stage for relationship building and problem solving. Problems stemming from economic and social inequity affect all of our communities at a local and a global scale. We cannot hope to teach students to engage in intercultural communication without also imparting awareness of the inequities that exist between and within communities. We assert that, in order to teach language proficiency to our students, we must also teach them to see the world from the perspectives of diverse communities.

Any discussion of the so-called "target" community leads us to ask, where is the target community? When we talk about speakers of the target language, are they members of our own communities? Or are they a far-away hypothetical? In many classrooms, students are exposed to a version of the target community that is not only far away, but is also represented as an idealized "native speaker". For French students, this may mean focusing on France to the exclusion of other Francophone communities, even communities of French speakers here in the United States. For Spanish students, community engagement may involve interacting with people in their own neighborhood as representatives of an exotic foreign culture, rather than as members of their own local community. For students of other languages such as Japanese or Arabic, to name just a couple, students need not imagine a static, idealized native speaker in order to learn about communities. The United States includes communities from these target language groups and is home to many speakers of those languages. The term *community language* (see Menacker, 2001) is used in the UK to describe languages that are represented domestically as opposed to the terms most commonly used in the US: foreign or world languages, both of which emphasize the languages' outsider status.

Additionally, in classrooms where we explore languages whose speakers have affected the historical and political realities of the United States, another view of community comes to bear. If we let go of the one-dimensional ideal of community, then we can help students acquire a long view of history and effectively analyze how their own community's story has become intertwined with the stories of others. Teaching history in the target language can be challenging and can result in superficial, isolated vignettes from history. Teaching the same history from the perspective of community contact allows students to cultivate accurate perceptions of how U.S. policy, culture, and language have impacted communities both domestically and abroad, for better or worse.

In Menacker (2001), the benefits of engaging with real communities are described as a "trade-off" (p. 2) between the carefully controlled input that is char-

acteristic of a classroom environment and the exposure to authentic language and variation that is characteristic of community-based language learning. Menacker goes on to suggest that, in order to learn language that will prove useful in community settings, students should develop listening skills, capacity for real-world interaction, investment in the local community, and language awareness, just to name a few. Students who are well-prepared to grapple with the social realities of the community and partner with community members in pursuit of social good are characterized by a) an ability to truly listen and communicate with speakers of authentic varieties of language, b) investment in those communities, and c) an awareness of language use and function. Also, such students become more astute observers of communities in general and therefore more able to pursue social good in their own local context, even if that context is separate from the target community.

Intercultural communicative competence. Intercultural communicative competence (ICC) can be understood as the ability to understand cultures other than one's own and to use that understanding to communicate effectively. Byram (1997) outlines five objectives of ICC. The first four are attitudes, knowledge, skills of interpreting and relating, and skills of discovery and interaction. The fifth objective—critical cultural awareness/political education—falls squarely into the social justice arena. This objective involves examining the practices, products, and perspectives of one's own culture and the culture of others through a critically conscious lens. This critical consciousness can be achieved by examining power and access and recognizing that language is a political act, especially as these concepts relate to a language learner's interactions with native speakers (Byram & Risager, 1999). A focus on so-called "native speakers" and "native cultures"[1] has made ICC an ideal framework for organizing study abroad experiences (e.g., Deardorff, 2006; Shiri, 2015); however, there is also a focus on ICC and its practical application in the domestic world language classroom (Moeller & Fatlin Osborn, 2014). Given that ICC focuses on linking communication and culture in meaningful and critical ways, ICC is probably the component that links social justice education most directly to what has long been the dominant goal of most language courses—the goal of language competence.

In the teaching and learning of ICC, access to authentic texts—texts written by members of a culture for members of that culture—is of great importance because they provide evidence of the culture in its most robust form. It is through these resources that learners have the opportunity to come into contact with and thus to analyze other cultures. Inauthentic resources developed for the language learner prioritize language over culture (Moeller & Fatlin Osborn, 2014). If language acquisition is the only goal of language instruction, such constructed texts serve a clear purpose. However, if language education is about accessing other cultures through language and expanding learners' views, then authentic texts provide essential opportunities for language and culture learning.

The World-Readiness Standards. Any discussion of community-based learning and intercultural communicative competence must connect with the Cultures and Communities standards. Although social justice is not explicitly mentioned as one of the goals of the World-Readiness Standards, the current standards do take a more critical and nuanced approach to the conceptualization of such notions of "cultures" and "communities" when compared to the previous national standards docu-

ment. Table 1 shows how the language for the Cultures and Communities standards has been updated from 2006 to 2015.

It is clear from this comparison that the World-Readiness Standards move away from a knowledge-based understanding of cultures and communities and focus more on such skills as interaction, reflection, and collaboration. The phrase "cultural competence" emphasizes the ability to work within different cultural contexts. With that in mind, social justice education is a powerful vehicle to move students toward a deeper, more critical understanding of the notions of cultures and communities so that they become individuals who can communicate and interact with that high level of cultural competence that the standards promote.

Table 1

Evolution of the Cultures and Communities Standards

Standards for Foreign Language Learning (2006)	World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages (2015)
Gain knowledge and understanding of other cultures. • Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the practices and perspectives of the culture studied. • Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the products and perspectives of the culture studied.	Interact with cultural competence and understanding. • Learners use the language to investigate, explain, and reflect on the relationship between the practices and perspectives of the cultures studied. • Learners use the language to investigate, explain, and reflect on the relationship between the products and perspectives of the cultures studied.
Participate in multilingual communities at home and around the world. • Students use the language both within and beyond the school setting. • Students show evidence of becoming life-long learners by using the language for both personal enjoyment and enrichment.	Communicate and interact with cultural competence in order to participate in multilingual communities at home and around the world. • Learners use the language both within and beyond the classroom to interact and collaborate in their community and the globalized world. • Learners set goals and reflect on their progress in using languages for enjoyment, enrichment, and advancement.

Another element of the way we describe culture is in terms of the "Three P's," or products, practices, and perspectives. Specifically, the World-Readiness Standards highlight the relationship among these three elements—for example, how do the practices and products of a culture influence that culture's perspectives? Within this framework, there are some opportunities and pitfalls. Most notably, if we carry a

superficial or content-based interpretation of that framework into our classrooms, we run the risk of perpetuating traditional approaches to culture that can foster stereotypes and that ultimately do not enhance students' cultural competence. Garrett-Rucks (2016) exemplifies this in her work by taking "a critical perspective of dichotomous cultural comparisons that inadvertently perpetuate stereotypes" (p. 18). Kubota (2008) developed a framework for cultural studies that replaced the 3 P's with what she coined the 4 D's of Culture:

1. Engaging students in a *descriptive* approach to the study of cultures rather than a prescriptive approach
2. Acknowledging the *diverse* nature of cultures, including variability and complexity within cultures
3. Recognizing that cultural study is *dynamic*; that is, culture isn't frozen in time; it needs to be studied diachronically, because social values and beliefs change throughout history
4. And finally, embracing the *discursive* nature of the construction of knowledge, that there are no objective truths.

Other authors have expanded the 3 P's framework itself to include more critical approaches. For example, Glynn, Wesely, and Wassell (2014) expanded the definition of products to include "access to and relationships with tangible and intangible resources" and practices to include "interactions among and within communities," for example marginalization and social hierarchies (Chapter 1). When we fail to take such a critical perspective, we leave students with a prescribed view of culture rather than an analytical/inquiry-based approach. Culture becomes "content" rather than the critical recognition of the dynamic nature of communities and their lived experiences.

As much work is being done on the implications of the new Cultures and Communities standards, those traditional approaches still linger in our classes and curricular materials today. Therefore, we as instructors need to take a critical approach in our own classrooms. Outdated textbooks and pedagogical tradition cannot have the last word in how we teach to the standards; we insist that cultures and communities ultimately must speak for themselves and students must engage in critical, reflective inquiry to discover cultures and communities.

Transformative Learning

Because ICC requires students to see the world in new ways, decentering their own experiences and taking up the perspective of the interlocutor (Byram, 1997), for many students the language learning experience becomes transformative. Transformative learning, a learning theory developed by Mezirow (1991), describes the learning process of reevaluating previously held beliefs and attitudes and learning to interpret experiences from a new perspective. Proponents of ICC make a strong case for why transformative learning is necessary:

> In ICC learning, students must also develop a sense of self, where they gain awareness about their own culture before embarking on discovering a second culture. Before being able to challenge their own beliefs and begin to understand and accept those of individuals from another culture, students must not only know what they believe but why they believe it. They must undergo an exploration of how they

developed their own understanding of the world. By questioning their own belief system, and even comparing it to those who share their home culture, they will become more prepared for exploring another culture and interacting with people from that culture (Moeller & Fatlin Osborn, 2014, pp. 680-681).

This process of critical examination, questioning, and interacting that Moeller describes can be explained and promoted if it is understood as the process of transformative learning. The lens through which one views the world, the collection of one's beliefs, assumptions, experiences, and linguistic/cultural norms, was referred to by Mezirow (1991) as a *meaning perspective*. Seeing the world from a fixed perspective according to certain expectations is how individuals make sense of their experiences. Mezirow (1997) also used the term *habit of mind* to refer to meaning perspectives, and, in fact, gave the example of "ethnocentrism, the predisposition to regard others outside one's own group as inferior" (p. 6) as a habit of mind. This example is of particular interest to language instructors interested in promoting ICC.

Tracing learning through the theoretical model of transformation, the information a student receives is filtered through the lens of the meaning perspective. One's meaning perspective consists of elements such as social norms and roles, cultural and language codes, common sense as a cultural system, and ethnocentrism (Mezirow, 1991). These sociolinguistic elements of the meaning perspective allow individuals to live within the structures of their native language and culture and readily discard any input from the world that does not fit in their system. A normal part of first language acquisition includes becoming indoctrinated in the codes and assumptions of one's native language and culture. Intercultural contact puts differently socialized individuals in communication, often resulting in conflict, or at the least, opportunity for miscommunication based on different frames of reference.

Perspective transformation, the hallmark process underlying transformative learning, is the process of becoming critically aware of how and why our assumptions have come to constrain the way we perceive our world, making possible a more inclusive perspective and allowing the individual to act on new understandings (Mezirow, 1991). The process of perspective transformation is a movement from the conflict, also called the disorienting dilemma, to critical reflection, then to conscious action, and finally to integration, resulting in a new, broader meaning perspective.

In the end, the transformative learning process may turn out to be the most important one we provide our students. As Sosulski (2013) described, building relationships with people who are different from ourselves "involves calculated risk-taking for the student, and a willingness to deal with the problems, paradoxes and challenges of cultural difference. Being able to do this requires personal growth in students" (p. 92). Therefore, transformative language learning is not just about language at a surface level, but about improving ourselves and the ways we interact with others. It turns out that learning language is one of the most human endeavors we can undertake, and recent research in transformative language learning (Crane, forthcoming; Johnson, 2015; Johnson & Mullins Nelson, 2010; Kiely, 2005; Sosulski, 2013) helps us as teachers focus on the humanity underneath the language structures and support our students as they learn to see the world in entirely new ways.

Critical Pedagogy

The discussion of critical pedagogy in this essay refers to "any classroom practice that addresses difference, power, or social stratification in the classroom or in the world" (Johnson & Randolph, 2015, p. 36). It is informed and generated by critical studies in other fields such as critical race theory and gender studies. Crookes (2012) asserted that critical pedagogy is "the most widespread term for social justice oriented tendencies in applied linguistics and in language teaching" (paragraph 2). For the purposes of this essay, we categorize critical pedagogy as an umbrella term that not only describes social justice approaches but also contains them and serves as a vehicle for them. Social justice approaches are those that employ critical pedagogy in order to reach social justice learning outcomes for students. Critical language pedagogy, or even more broadly, critical applied linguistics (Pennycook, 2001), is the path we follow to arrive at social justice in our classrooms as a result of our instruction.

With *pedagogy* a widely recognized subfield in language departments, the term *critical pedagogy* reframes the discipline, asserting a separation from traditional pedagogy that reinforces the meaning perspective students have acquired from their first language and the social conditioning associated with childhood education. Critical pedagogy, in contrast, seeks to transform students' meaning perspective by resisting the primary social purpose of education: to indoctrinate the young with the social ideology that will allow then to thrive in their social group (Kennedy, 1990). Social institutions use traditional pedagogy to prepare students to function in the social conditions in which they find themselves. Critical pedagogy prepares students to resist, reconsider, reflect, and enact change in response to social inequity. Studies like the one by Pessoa and De Urzêda Freitas (2012) can give us insight into some of the challenges associated with moving from a traditional to critical approach in a language classroom.

The originator of critical pedagogy in language learning, Paolo Freire, termed this process of teaching *conscientization* (1970/2000). He makes a distinction between conscientization and what he terms *banking education*. Banking education is defined as a process by which the instructor uncritically transfers chunks of knowledge rather than making that knowledge the focus of critical reflection and awareness-raising. Critical pedagogy emphasizes the importance of learners engaging in critical reflection. Because ideologies are hard to detect even in ourselves, uncritically transferring knowledge, by default, reinforces the existing structures and hierarchies. Critical pedagogy teaches students to become aware of how learning is constrained by ideologies embedded in language, social habits, and cultural forms that combine to shape the way we think about the world. These ideologies appear on the surface to be common sense, just the way things are, rather than structures that are deliberately skewed in favor of the powerful.

In his foreword to the most recent edition of Paulo Freire's *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, Richard Shaull (2007) stated the following:

> There is no such thing as a *neutral* educational process. Education either functions as an instrument that is used to facilitate the integration of the younger generation into the logic of the present system and bring about conformity to it, *or* it becomes "the practice of freedom,"

the means by which men and women deal critically and creatively with reality and discover how to participate in the transformation of their world" (p. 34, emphasis in original).

What are the implications of a language classroom where neutrality is impossible? Where we side either with traditional pedagogy that reinforces the status quo or critical pedagogy that questions the same? Pennycook (2001) described language classrooms as "sites of cultural struggle, contexts in which different versions of the world are battled over" (p. 128). Neutrality for language teachers becomes impossible because "language is not a neutral medium of communication, but takes on different meanings when the relationships between speakers change, together with shifts in relations of power" (Norton, 2010, p. 175). For many language teachers, critical pedagogy is not just a choice we make, it is an ethical imperative.

Social Justice Pedagogy: Considerations in Various Contexts

As we engage in discussions on how to incorporate social justice in the world language classroom, it is important to note that social justice isn't something "extra" that teachers have to add to an already crowded curriculum. As we clearly demonstrated above, social justice themes are compatible with and reinforce the goals of the Cultures and Communities components of the World-Readiness Standards. Such themes can also support the communication/proficiency goals of the curriculum, even at the novice levels.

An effective way to engage students with social justice themes is through a constructivist approach, in which learners are able to develop their own views about cultures and communities "through social interaction and interpersonal communication" (Shrum & Glisan, 2010, p. 156). This student-centered framework allows students to confront authentic problems and topics; places the teacher in the role of a mediator instead of expert; fosters a community in which students are able to share opinions, solutions, and strategies; and enables students to reflect on their own learning and compare various points of view (Shrum & Glisan, 2010; Wright, 2000)

Osborn's (2006) Critical Inquiry Cycle provides some guiding principles for the incorporation of critical approaches, including social justice, into the world language curriculum. Osborn describes the cycle as "a process of exploration that can be entered into by students, community members, and teacher as learners together, in their individual contexts" (p. 33). The cycle consists of four phases: (1) informed investigation of a socially relevant problem, (2) inductive analysis to make sense of the problem in its relevant context, (3) the development of tentative conclusions which are by nature subjective and value-laden, and (4) mutual critical reflection in which the students and instructor engage in a community dialogue and are able to explore their own privilege, power, and powerlessness (Osborn, 2006, pp. 33-35).

Ultimately, the inclusion of social justice in the language curriculum comes down to a matter of backward design (Wiggins & McTighe, 2006). Teachers may begin the process by asking such global questions as: What kind of students do we want to leave our classrooms? Do we think that elements of critical cultural competence and social justice are important? Do we see a need for students, and really society as a whole, to have a higher level of intercultural competence and to be advocates

for social justice in their immediate and global communities? Indeed, one need not look any further than our Twitter and Facebook feeds or the comments section of a controversial news story to see the need for people to be able to speak articulately and compassionately about social justice issues. There are great opportunities for this type of learning to occur in the world language classroom. In fact, by not incorporating social justice at all and instead adhering to traditional pedagogy, we are reinforcing the status quo and thus missing the opportunity to involve students in transformational learning within our classrooms.

Osborn (2006) identifies four pillars of social justice that can be used to guide teachers' thinking with regard to implementing social justice into the everyday curriculum: 1) identity, 2) social architecture, 3) language choices, and 4) activism. These four pillars relate to topics that are often already included as part of the world language curriculum. For example, teachers and students can approach "identity" from a social justice perspective while also studying such grammar and vocabulary topics as descriptive adjectives, personal pronouns, and the present tense. "Social architecture" can be examined alongside such topics as the past tense, formal and informal speech, schools, media, and entertainment. "Language choices" can be examined alongside such topics as speech register, the subjunctive, journalism, and politics. Finally, "activism" can be examined through extended spoken and written discourse, imperatives, social change, and marginalization.

In addition to Osborn's four pillars, there is a multitude of relevant themes that can be used as a gateway or springboard to incorporate social justice in the language classroom. Examples include: immigration, employment, environment, linguicism, racism, xenophobia, violence and weapons, stereotypes, sexuality, sexism, poverty, identity, education, institutions, marginalization, and diversity. These topics are not only relevant to cultures and communities of the target language but are also relevant to the language learners' own cultures and communities—and in many cases, the so-called target cultures and communities overlap or interact with those of the language learners. Thus, students not only look at how these themes are relevant in the target communities and cultures, but they also turn a critical eye to their own communities and cultures and examine how the intersections of some of those themes affect various groups of people.

Finally, in an earlier publication (Johnson & Randolph, 2015) we outlined specific steps for incorporating critical pedagogy and social justice themes into the classroom. We presented four guiding questions and a series of practical guidelines to help teachers begin the process of lesson planning within a critical, social justice framework:

1. Who is the source of knowledge? (Implication: Afford students opportunities to contribute to the curriculum, some level of autonomy with course assignments, and opportunities for self-evaluation.)
2. What resources do we use in the classroom? (Implication: Select a variety of authentic resources that provide counterpoint to dominant narratives, which more often than not requires going beyond the textbook and its ancillaries.)
3. How do we incorporate language proficiency with critical pedagogy? (Implication: Carefully plan instruction using a backward design to provide maximum contextualization of social justice themes and language objectives, and take ad-

vantage of technological resources like online journals and discussion boards to allow student to engage in critical reflection in English outside of the class.)

4. How do we respond to controversy? (Implication: First, expect and embrace conflict. Second, be proactive with establishing community and trust in the classroom and with engaging students in discussions so that they learn to navigate potentially polemic topics with diverse participants.)

As Nieto (2002) argues, "classrooms should not only simply allow discussions that focus on social justice, but in fact welcome them" (p. 41). Although the guiding principles for incorporating social justice in the world language classroom can be applied to all levels, there are some specific considerations that instructors must take into account when planning instruction for specific groups of learners. Below, we offer an overview of considerations at various proficiency levels and contexts.

Novice learners. A principal concern with novice (and even intermediate) language students is that they have not yet developed the necessary language proficiency to engage in critical reflection and critical discussion about social justice issues in the target language. As such, teachers must think beyond the confines of the World-Readiness Standards (which limit students to "using the target language") when implementing critical pedagogical approaches to cultural study. In order to avoid sacrificing valuable classroom time in the target language, teachers must carefully consider how to implement social justice learning objectives in a way that supports the development of the students' language proficiency in the target language. The social justice themes must be closely linked to language topics of novice courses, the resources must be carefully selected with accompanying level-appropriate comprehension activities, and students must be allowed to reflect in their native language in a way does not stifle their language development in the target language.

As an example, we will consider a typical first unit of a level one language class in which students are learning how to say their names and how to describe themselves using basic adjectives. The teacher could introduce a social justice theme at this early stage of language development by incorporating readings, activities, and discussions relating to the identity politics and stereotypes associated with names. Consider the following activities that can be incorporated into a Spanish course (Oppewal, Zelaya, & Wooten, 2016; Randolph, 2016):

- Introduce cognates that students can use to make basic responses (e.g., controversia, estereotipo, discriminación, racismo).

- Give students a list of common names in both English and Spanish. Ask them if they (or others) would make assumptions about the person's identity (gender, race, nationality, level of education, native language) based on their name.

- Prepare an activity in which students match the anglicized stage names of celebrities of Latino or Hispanic descent with their original Spanish-language names. Brainstorm what may have been the motives and benefits for such changes and if attitudes have changed over time.

- Gather authentic resources from the media (articles or videos) that highlight various perspectives. Relevant resources in English can be read and reflected upon outside of class. Resources in the target language can be studied in class through collaborative activities. For target-language texts too difficult for novice

students to understand, "edit the task, not the text" (Shrum & Glisan, 2010, p. 197); that is, change what you have students do with the text instead of modifying the text itself. Sample comprehension strategies that can be incorporated at the novice level include:

- Students write a title for each paragraph.
- Students express their reaction with 140 characters or less (a "tweet").
- Students identify the three most important sentences of the passage.
- Teacher distributes a list of simple sentences, and students organize the list in chronological order or in order of importance (depending on comprehension goals).
- Teacher develops a brief informal true/false or multiple-choice assessment.

- Have students complete follow-up assignments based on the resources examined and topics unpacked during class. Depending on the format and the level of critical engagement required, these assignments can be completed in English or in the target language. In addition, such activities can be purely reflective, action based, or a combination of the two. Successful follow-up activities that have been used in our and our colleagues' classes include:

  - Students write a brief, simple letter in Spanish to respond to the views expressed by one of the authors or speakers from the authentic sources.
  - Students compose a conceptual map responding to the question, "What does a name represent?" Students use simple words and phrases in Spanish to discuss implications at the individual, familial, communal, and societal levels.
  - Teacher facilitates a follow-up reflective discussion in English about stereotypes and hegemony.

As the sample activities above show, with careful planning and strong, thematic curricular design, students are able to engage in meaningful social justice work as early as the first week of a level one language course. The social justice theme supports the students' language development in the target language while at the same time offering opportunities for students to complete some activities in English to engage critically at the highest level possible. While language teachers may want to keep their students engaged in the target language 90+% of the time (as recommended by ACTFL, 2010), the strategic use of English from time to time can aid in the incorporation of critical pedagogies without necessarily sacrificing language proficiency goals (Johnson & Randolph, 2015; Lee, 2012).

Intermediate learners. At the intermediate level, language learners are beginning to produce more original thought with complete sentence discourse. While they do not need as much scaffolding and support as novice learners, their language level is still not at the place to engage in nuanced discourse about social justice issues. Thus, many of the strategies and activities highlighted in the previous section can also be applied to intermediate learners, including the strategic use of English to achieve critical pedagogy goals.

As intermediate learners develop increasing proficiency in the target language, teachers can replace traditional communicative activities with activities that revolve around social justice communicative contexts. For example, when intermediate students are learning how to narrate in the past, they can engage in discussions, conversations, and role-plays about the experiences that have shaped the racial, cultural, linguistic, sexual, and gender identities of themselves and others. Such activities can be used as a springboard for activist-oriented initiatives in which students begin to learn to have conversations about race and politics with individuals who do not share their own racial or political identity and to learn how they can be allies in their communities for issues that may not explicitly relate to their own identities (for example, how can a white student support the local Black Lives Matter movement?, or how can a straight student be an effective ally and advocate for LGBT rights?). To offer another example, when students are learning the subjunctive and imperative moods in a language like Spanish, as an activist-oriented assignment they could create websites or flyers outlining steps that their peers could take to join or support organizations within the local Latino community. Again, the goal is to embed social justice issues in a way that supports language proficiency goals and other elements from the world language curriculum while also allowing room for students to engage in transformative learning.

Service learning and study abroad. One of the greatest opportunities of the world language curriculum is that students can (and are expected to) use the target language "both within and beyond the classroom to interact and collaborate in their community and the globalized world" (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 2015). Indeed, interacting with speakers of the target language in the appropriate context can be a mutually rewarding and transformative experience for all parties involved. However, interacting with communities of the target language does present some possible challenges and pitfalls. For example, as mentioned previously, Byram (1997) cautions against approaching study abroad experiences from the mindset of a tourist rather than a sojourner. He writes:

> [A]lthough tourism has had major economic consequences, it is the sojourner who produces effects on a society which challenge its unquestioned and unconscious beliefs, behaviours and meanings, and whose own beliefs, behaviours and meanings are in turn challenged and expected to change. […] Where the tourist remains essentially unchanged, the sojourner has the opportunity to learn and be educated, acquiring the capacity to critique and improve their own and others' conditions (pp. 1-2).

Interacting with local target language communities also presents some challenges. Often, students think they are going into communities to help, save, or enlighten other populations. This is especially true for traditionally marginalized communities. Teachers can sometimes inadvertently contribute to this process by not providing adequate training for students before they interact with communities or by asking students to complete assignments that are intrusive or that reinforce stereotypes. Therefore, when interacting with communities, teachers must challenge students to maintain a critical mindset and be open to challenging and evolving their

own beliefs. Students must also maintain a sense of humility and recognize that they are serving *with* (not *for* or *on behalf of*) the community.

There has been much research on effective ways to interact with communities through service learning, study abroad, or ethnographic research (for example, Arends, 2014; Hartman & Kiely, 2014; Lee, 2012). Some practical experiences that teachers can plan include:

- Incorporate a pre-experience orientation outlining goals and expectations before students are asked to engage in work.
- Design assignments (e.g., journals, blogs, discussion boards) that allow students to constantly be engaged in self-reflection rather than analysis and objectification of other communities.
- Especially in unfamiliar communities, work with well-established communal organizations that have the same goals and outcomes as the people of that community.

At every proficiency level and in every context, the way we interact with students and with the content is transformed when we evaluate classroom practice through the lens of social justice. In Table 2, we offer an overview of how traditional practices may be reimagined to fit within this framework.

Table 2

Classroom Practices through a Social Justice Lens

Traditional Practice	Recommended Practice
Teacher presents a brief culture lesson in English or the target language through lecture, video, or reading.	Teacher engages students with a relevant cultural topic by using authentic resources that represent a variety of perspectives.
Students complete comprehension questions in English or the target language about a text.	Students are required to answer questions that call for critical reflection of the perspectives presented in a cultural text. Transformative learning, not mere reading comprehension, is the learning objective.
Students attend a community event and interview a native or heritage speaker.	Students attend a cultural event and interact with native and heritage speakers. Students reflect on themes of intercultural communicative competence (attitudes, conversational roles, openness to new perspectives, etc.) based on their interactions.
Teacher avoids potentially controversial or polemic cultural topics in favor of facts-based or superficial content.	Teacher works to build community and establish norms of engagement so that such topics can be discussed in a productive, respectful manner.

Teacher assumes the responsibility of selecting all cultural topics for the course.	Teacher allows students select relevant topics of high interest.
Teacher creates assessments that focus on cultural knowledge (facts, dates, monuments, etc.).	Teacher incorporates assessments that require critical reflection (e.g., journals). Students are given choice with assessments and are able to participate in self-assessment.
Lesson planning includes beginning-of-semester team-building activities and ice breakers.	All units throughout the semester incorporate low-stakes trust-building activities in order to establish and continually reinforce community.
Textbook is accepted as the primary and authoritative resource for the class.	Textbook and other language learning materials are examined critically and supplemented with authentic resources and diverse perspectives.
Teacher keeps detailed lesson plans and reflects on her own work each term.	Teacher works with a community of language teachers to develop plans, reflects on own and others' practices, and shares successes and failures with others. Knowledge builds over time and is published openly in order to facilitate broad participation in larger conversations about teaching social justice.

Opportunities for Professional Development

One of the most underutilized resources teachers have is a community of colleagues. Connecting with colleagues at meetings, at conferences, through social media, and even across disciplines allows teachers to benefit from the experiences of others. In particular, for teachers who may not have other language teachers in their school or in their immediate geographical area, taking advantage of state and regional language teaching resources and connecting digitally with colleagues becomes essential. Additionally, some teachers may even face resistance from colleagues when they begin engaging in what Pennycook (2001) referred to as the "dangerous work" (p. 138) of critical pedagogy. Social justice work is about communities, and it works best when done in community. We need each other for support and encouragement, as well as for honest critique and accountability.

For teachers interested in connecting with professional organizations where they can find supportive communities of colleagues, this year will see the arrival of at least one new ACTFL special interest group (SIG) focused on Critical and Social Justice Approaches to language education. All of the topics of this essay as well as many other critical approaches are within this new SIG's mission to cultivate a community of educators committed to consciousness raising and community action in and through language education. There are also organizations such as ISLS (International Society for Language Studies) that focus on critical approaches specifi-

cally. And on the state level, groups such as FLANC (Foreign Language Association of North Carolina) hold annual conferences for teachers. This past year, FLANC's theme was "Empowerment, Transformation, and Social Justice." Teachers from all over the state were able to come and develop professionally around those common themes. Consider getting involved in the leadership of your local or regional organization and bringing that change to your state.

Social media also provides rich opportunities to connect with other teachers. Twitter has an active community of language teachers, as does Pinterest and Instagram. One way to build up your social media network is to follow people who post using hashtags related to conferences or topics of interest to you. Twitter in particular can be a great way to engage authors and other teachers in conversation around how to enact social justice in the language classroom. If you are reading an article and have questions or comments for the author, consider using Twitter to reach out and start a conversation.

For college instructors, many colleges and universities have language centers or teaching centers that provide high quality professional development around teaching and learning. For example, a teaching center may have programs and resources to support inclusive teaching and may provide training on how to have difficult dialogues in the classroom, both of which are important skill sets for teachers interested in social justice. Other centers or programs at your college may have incentive programs to improve instruction on campus. K-12 teachers may find support available through the district or state world language supervisor. Ask around your institution to find out where teachers can get professional or financial support for any kind of teaching, but in particular for working on diversity, inclusion, equity, and social justice in their classrooms.

Some language teachers interested in social justice feel alone in their efforts. Although you may be the only language teacher in your school working on social justice, you may have colleagues in other disciplines engaged in these issues. Working with local colleagues from different disciplines can be a fruitful exchange. A reading group or weekly lunch meeting to discuss ideas, challenges, and successes can be beneficial for all involved. Although these cross-disciplinary colleagues may not be able to provide you with resources for facilitating second language acquisition, many good teaching practices do, in fact, apply across disciplinary boundaries. When others see what a small group of committed individuals is able to do, they may want to join in. In the end, building a coalition of diverse colleagues with a common goal will benefit all involved, may result in unexpected benefits, and will also set a good example for students of how to build relationships in service of social justice.

Finally, the most important tool teachers have at their disposal is knowledge. Read widely. Ask questions. Stay current on world events and how social justice advocates are responding to those events. Journals like *Dimension* publish a variety of articles and are freely available to teachers to read online. In fact, the 2018 issue of *Dimension* will be a special issue with a focus on social justice and critical pedagogy. Other journals like ACTFL's *Foreign Language Annals* and magazines like *The Language Educator* are included with organizational membership. Take advantage of these resources.

With all the opportunities for professional development, the biggest challenge

facing teachers may be information overload. Ideally, a social justice minded teacher would choose a few concrete steps that feel manageable and commit to moving forward one step at a time. No one can do everything, but everyone can do something.

Call for Future Work

The research that has been done in intercultural communicative competence and community-based learning has changed the field for the better, legitimizing the possibility that our students will not only learn proficiency in our classrooms, but also learn how to engage the world with confidence and compassion. Some language education scholars have begun exploring the potential of transformative learning theory and critical pedagogy to promote the critical reflection and questioning that leads to social justice outcomes. As demonstrated above, research on the World-Readiness Standards, particularly the Cultures and Communities standards, have set the stage for a larger discussion for how we can engage with communities not as consumers, but as partners committed to confronting historical and present inequities.

Yet, there is much scholarship that needs to be done. In order to build a useful body of scholarship around social justice in language education, participants at all levels should document and share their experiences, ideas, pedagogies, and results of research. Some key areas of need in the field are highlighted below.

Service learning. A critical perspective requires changing how we think about service learning and community involvement. When we conflate service learning with social justice education, we run the risk of unintentionally replicating the social structures that led to inequity through the very programs that are meant to lead to social justice. Good research in this field expands or challenges the idea that service learning and other kinds of charitable activities automatically reflect a social justice framework. Research and pedagogical models that provide useful, replicable practices for teachers who want to do service learning are needed.

Classroom climate. At conferences and other meetings, people often ask us questions about successful classroom dynamics and relationships. More research is needed on how to create those safe spaces where debate is encouraged and kindness is valued, how to build trust and promote communication, and how to prepare students and teachers effectively for the type of high stakes collaborative projects we ask them to do.

Curriculum development. Integrating language and proficiency goals with culture and social justice goals is challenging. There are no textbooks that lay out a roadmap, and perhaps, nor should there be. Social justice education requires teachers to bring the real world into the classroom and to respond to students as unique individuals. In each context, the methods and content may be different. However, developing level-appropriate practices and objectives that could be adapted by teachers for their own local contexts would be a tremendous step forward and would provide teachers new to this arena with a way forward.

Faculty development. We must prepare teachers, including TAs, college instructors, teacher candidates, and every other category of language teacher, to recognize opportunities for and capitalize on productive discomfort in the classroom , and to interrogate their own perspectives as teachers. Best practices in training and supporting faculty as they engage in social justice work would be a timely addition

to the literature. When faculty strike out on their own and develop themselves professionally, or join with others to seek professional development in community, they should consider setting the goal of writing publicly about the steps they took so that others can follow in their footsteps.

Marginalized perspectives. In language education, we need more diverse voices and approaches. Part of social justice work is amplifying the voices of the marginalized. As a field, let's make a commitment to creating space for everyone to come to the table and share their experiences, their challenges, and their ideas.

Action research. We love reading high quality empirical research conducted by university faculty of the sort that is prevalent in language teaching journals, and hope to see more of that sort of work around social justice. However, the field also needs more classroom teachers publishing their successes (and failures) whether in traditional academic venues and at conferences, or on blogs and social media. We need useful models and authentic experiences from those doing the work in their own classrooms. Action research is not only useful as professional development for the teacher involved; it also contributes to the field when published by adding to the body of knowledge. We hope to see more grassroots, action research efforts coming from classroom teachers.

Above all, the most important way we can contribute to the current movement of social justice in language education is in our own teaching. In our classrooms, taking one small step at a time, we have the opportunity to share with our students that the world is bigger, more complex, and more beautiful than they know. There are real challenges, but there are also groups of people who choose to work together to address those challenges. There is no better place than a language classroom to explore how to communicate across differences and work together to solve real problems. We leave you now with a call to action: Take small thoughtful steps to promote social justice in your classroom; bring students, community members, and colleagues along as partners in your work; and report back to the community of language teachers. As ACTFL's (2016) statement on the value of language learning in promoting unity stated, "We remain hopeful for a future where cultural and linguistic diversity is viewed as an invaluable asset that enriches the lives of all" (paragraph 4).

End Note

[1]Although the use of the terms "native speaker" and "native culture" serves as a convenient frame of reference when discussing linguistic and cultural goals for our students, it is important to remember that such constructs are abstract ideologies that oversimplify the complex nature of languages and cultures (see Train, 2007).

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The Georgia Seal of Biliteracy: Exploring the Nexus of Politics and Language Education

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Abstract

On May 3, 2016, House Bill (HB) 879—the Georgia Seal of Biliteracy—was signed into law by Governor Nathan Deal and went into effect on July 1, 2016. Outside of the language education sphere, many educators and policymakers may not fully understand the benefits of studying other languages. Yet, this policy hinges on the utility of simultaneously demonstrating proficiency in a foreign language and an advanced command of English, thus forming the foundation of biliteracy. This article provides an overview of the political landscape in Georgia as it pertains to language education and analyzes how lawmakers translated the issues at hand into specific goals for the Seal of Biliteracy. The paper concludes with four policy proposals to improve the implementation of the legislation and provide suggestions for enhancing pending legislation elsewhere.

Key Words: *Seal of Biliteracy, bilingualism, education policy, language competence, policy implementation*

Introduction

A Seal of Biliteracy is defined as "an award given by a school, district, or county office of education in recognition of students who have studied and attained proficiency in two or more languages by high school graduation" (Californians Together, n.d.-c). It is awarded to high school graduates who meet certain requirements in at least one language other than English, as well as in English Language Arts. In Georgia, the awarding entities are individual schools or districts who must obtain a physical seal from the Georgia Department of Education (DOE) and attach it to a student's diploma. Compared to other states, the requirements for obtaining the Seal in Georgia are stringent (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages [ACTFL], 2015a) exceeding the basic recommendations for award eligibility as issued by Californians Together (n.d.-c), the original author of the legislation.

The Seal of Biliteracy originated in California in 2011 and, as of the fall 2016, has been adopted by 22 states, as well as the District of Columbia. In the wake of legislation such as Proposition 227, the "English in Public Schools" initiative passed in California in 1998 (California Department of Education, n.d.-a), Californians Together formed as a "statewide advocacy coalition of powerful organizations from all segments of the education community . . . to promote the use of students' linguistic skills as a positive asset contributing to their success" (Californians Together, n.d.-a).

Proposition 227, in particular, presented a significant blow to bilingual education programs in California public schools (California Department of Education, n.d.-a). On November 8, 2016, California voters decided to amend Proposition 227 through the California Multilingual Education Act of 2016 (California Proposition 58) and to revoke key stipulations against bilingual education in the state (California Legislative Information, n.d.; CATESOL, n.d.; Mongeau, 2016). Despite recent developments, the debate over bilingual education continues to this day, not only in California (Mitchell, 2016a; Mongeau, 2016), but in states throughout the U.S. where "legislation and policies that control the language, curriculum, and resources in the classroom" (Brooke-Garza, 2015, p. 75) are in place (Olsen & Spiegel-Coleman, 2016, para. 2; C. P. Williams, 2015). This ongoing struggle is also evident at the national level with the passing of the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) of 2015 that only marginally addresses bilingual education.

Problem Definition

The problem addressed by the Georgia Seal of Biliteracy lies at the intersection of two primary areas: (1) the absence of a world language graduation requirement for Georgia high school graduates, and (2) the Georgia international business community's concern for linguistic job readiness and practical applicability of language skills by recent graduates in a competitive global workplace.

To define this problem, this section will both explore the nature of biliteracy in K-12 bilingual education, and the political landscape in Georgia as it pertains to world language teaching. The benefits of bilingual skills and the state of foreign languages in Georgia against the background of employer and business demands form a central tenet of this paper.

Benefits of Bilingual Education

As this section will demonstrate, bilingual education provides a number of significant benefits to the learner. The two main areas of interest are the positive effects on cognition, as well as the value future employers place in potential employees' world language skills.

Cognitive benefits. Extant scholarship generally agrees on the positive cognitive benefits of acquiring a language other than one's mother tongue (Adesope, Lavin, Thompson, & Ungerleider, 2010). Apart from improvements in attention span, as well as the ability to grasp new information more quickly due to greater executive control (Barac, Moreno, & Bialystok, 2016; Calvo & Bialystok, 2014; Giambo & Szecsi, 2015; McKenzie, 2015), neurological changes in the brains of multilingual speakers appear to also protect against cognitive decline due to the aging process (Dreifus, 2011; Marian & Shook, 2012). Some research has also pointed to bilinguals' enhanced conflict management and multi-tasking skills (Marian & Shook, 2012), as well as the ability to solve certain types of problems more quickly (Dreifus, 2011). Research has even demonstrated that practiced bilingualism has the power to overcome obstacles to cognitive and academic development in children due to a family's low socioeconomic status (Brooke-Garza, 2015; Calvo & Bialystok, 2014; Giambo & Szecsi, 2015), thereby creating opportunities for greater societal and educational equity.

> ***Vocational benefits.*** Within the debate over the usefulness of foreign language skills in a globally connected economy, the question of linguistic and—increasingly—cultural proficiency in the job market looms large (Jones, 2013). Here, Hispanics may enjoy a particular advantage given the strong value employers place on Spanish (Porras, Ee, & Gándara, 2014) and the fact that many are bilingual (Krogstad & Gonzalez-Barrera, 2015).

Studies by Grosse (2004) of graduates from the renowned international business program at Thunderbird, The Garvin School of International Management, and Porras et al. (2014) found that that foreign language skills and cultural proficiency provided professionals in international commerce a noticeable advantage over monolinguals. The latter may encounter what Tochon (2009) called a "competitive disadvantage for a growing number of jobs" (p. 656). Professional advantages of bi- or multilingual speakers are not only present in the domestic job market but affect both inbound and outbound international assignments. As the Forbes Insights survey of 2011 demonstrated, the latter presented a particular challenge to US-based companies who recognized that "it was easier for foreign nationals to work in the US than for US nationals to work overseas because they were more likely to be multilingual" (Forbes Insights, 2011, p. 8). This observation lends additional support to the utility of world language proficiency.

Grosse's (2004) study also found that the business leaders polled in her survey considered cultural skills of slightly more value than actual language proficiency. Fitch and Desai (2012) came to the same conclusion in their qualitative study among employers in Australia and Singapore a few years later. These findings are salient because they support (often monolingual) critics of foreign language education in their assumption that the need for K-16 universal language teaching is a thing of the past.

English-Only Movements

Although the value of world language education is widely acknowledged, there exists a sense of systemic "marginalization of world language instruction" (Rifkin, 2012, p. 54) as manifested in the English-only movement. Many contemporary scholars, practitioners, and laypeople consider English the global language of academia and business (Agnew, 2012; Altbach, 2007; Tochon, 2009). Critics of this development warn that only an elite few benefit from this process because it primarily "increases the influence of the major English-speaking academic systems, particularly in the US and the UK" (Altbach, 2007, p. 3609). According to Skutnabb-Kangas and Phillipson (2010), it is monolingual English-speaking "linguistic free-riders" (p. 92) who propagate the global use of English and who tend to discount the utility of other languages (Tochon, 2009, p. 653). Agnew (2012) warns that "the adoption of English as a global language… operates to marginalize non-English speakers and non-Western ideas" (p. 192). De Wit (2011) mirrored this sentiment arguing that too little attention to languages other than English leads to a decrease in the quality of instruction in English-taught programs, especially when paired with an "insufficient focus on the quality of the English spoken by students and teachers for whom English is not their native language" (p. 6). Tochon (2009) pointedly summarized the threat posed by the excessive focus on English as the universal language of business and academia: "Linguistic and cultural diversity are among the treasures of human-

ity; they are our tools for survival. Each culture has its own solution for self-sustainability that works in specific contexts, the disappearance of which would deprive humanity of solutions to possible future problems" (p. 662).

The Political Landscape of Foreign Language Study in Georgia

World language teaching in Georgia public schools. Throughout the United States, schools struggle to support bilingual education due to a dearth of reliable funding, lack of understanding among educational professionals regarding the value of bilingual education, and a dominant focus on English as the language of instruction (Giambo & Szecsi, 2015). As of the 2008-2009 school year, world languages no longer constitute a requirement for high school graduation in Georgia (Georgia Department of Education, 2007). In spite of hopes that ESSA would place a greater focus on foreign language learning at the federal level, the act "remains silent in addressing the value of bilingualism and biliteracy" (Hakuta & Linquanti, 2016, Enduring Issues). This has resulted in decreased importance of world language education to the benefit of Common Core and STEM disciplines, despite the many positive effects of foreign language proficiency both on the cognitive capacity of language learners and workforce readiness, as well as greater linguistic diversity (Barac et al., 2016; Calvo & Bialystok, 2014; Giambo & Szecsi, 2015; McKenzie, 2015; Porras et al., 2014; C. P. Williams, 2015).

Although world languages are no longer a graduation requirement in Georgia, the Department of Education's *World Languages Data Summaries* indicate that enrollment numbers in the state's public primary and secondary schools have been robust and increasing steadily for the years 2010 through 2016 (Georgia Department of Education, n.d.-e). Extant scholarship appears to support the notion that this phenomenon is largely due to the "increasing demand of middle-class parents . . . to educate their children in English and another world language" (Porras et al., 2014, p. 235), a hypothesis that is mirrored by other scholars (Calvo & Bialystok, 2014; Scanlan & López, 2015). Spanish, French, Chinese, Arabic, as well as Russian, have experienced the most relative gains in the K-12 sector while most other languages show stagnant to slightly declining numbers (Georgia Department of Education, n.d.-e, GA World Languages Data, Policies, and Initiatives). The Georgia DOE data also indicate that overall linguistic diversity in Georgia schools has slightly decreased. In this regard, the development is somewhat analogous to trends in the higher education sector where foreign language enrollment numbers, however, have been experiencing a downward trajectory since 2009 (Modern Language Association, 2013; T. Williams, 2015). The ongoing predominance of Spanish mirrors the national trend as the most widely-spoken language other than English (Gonzalez-Barrera & Lopez, 2013).

Employer demands. In response to the need for more effective and efficient employees in a global marketplace, the international business community in Georgia lobbied the DOE to grant high school graduates some form of indicator that would reliably attest to the candidate's language proficiency and make a job applicant more attractive for businesses. Concurrently, both the Technical College System of Georgia (TCSG) and the University System of Georgia (USG) stressed the need for language certification that would prove a high-level of language proficiency to college admissions officers. In summary, developing a Georgia Seal of Biliteracy had primary "ap-

peal for business elites interested in economic development " (McDonnell, 2009, p. 422) through greater access to uniquely qualified and now easily identified employees.

Policy Goals

To translate these demands into policy and thereby make Georgia a more attractive location for conducting business—while simultaneously addressing the absence of a foreign language graduation requirement in Georgia schools—policymakers pursued the Seal of Biliteracy as the favored and only viable policy solution (M. Claus-Nix, personal communication, September 14, 2016). Stakeholders in this policy initiative were similar to those for the standards-based accountability provisions in the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001 ("No Child Left Behind," 2002), namely a "general government and business coalition that pressed for the policy, and"—this is a matter of interpretation—"provider organizations that have an economic interest in the services authorized" (McDonnell, 2009, p. 422).
By late 2014, the Georgia DOE had begun work on an internal proposal to establish the Seal in Georgia (Claus-Nix, 2016). While the initial focus of this measure was to address the lack of a world language graduation requirement, this measure provided a blueprint for subsequent legislation. Additionally, the Seal is designed to "provide universities with a method to recognize and give academic credit to applicants seeking admission" ("Georgia Seal of Biliteracy," 2016, lines 21-22). By the time the Seal became a full legal initiative in early 2016, the DOE's Policy Committee had already reviewed this internal proposal by the Division of World Languages and Global/Workforce Initiatives.

During the policy conception and subsequent amendment process, primary contention centered around three areas: (1) how English language learners (ELLs) may fulfill high school graduation requirements in English; (2) what level of world language proficiency students would need to attain in order to qualify for the Seal; and (3) what examinations would be used to test students' language skills.

English Language Proficiency Testing

The policymakers agreed that native speakers of English would still be required to pass all standard English Language Arts requirements for high school graduation (Georgia Department of Education, 2007) with a minimum GPA of 3.0 to qualify for the Seal. However, the question prevailed how to best ascertain the most equitable level of English proficiency for ELLs, thereby empowering these students to obtain the award. Members of the DOE's Office of English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) voiced their concern that requiring ELLs to meet the same English Language Arts criteria as native speakers of English could be interpreted as a violation of these students' civil rights by the Office of Civil Rights at the United States Department of Education. They cautioned that requiring ELLs to pass an English language test in addition to meeting certain foreign language requirements would constitute an unjust burden on these students and place them at a disadvantage for obtaining the Seal. Policymakers ultimately decided that Georgia schools would continue to evaluate an ELL's English language proficiency through the Assessing Comprehension and Communication in English State to State for English Language Learners (ACCESS

for ELLs 2.0) exam (WIDA, n.d.). ACCESS for ELLs is a "standards-based, criterion referenced English language proficiency test designed to measure English learners' social and academic proficiency in English" that "assesses social and instructional English as well as the language associated with language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies within the school context across the four language domains" (Georgia Department of Education, n.d.-a, para. 1). ELLs would then be allowed to fulfill necessary English language requirements by either completing all prescribed ESOL coursework or by testing out of their school's ESOL program and completing regular English Language Arts courses. To be awarded the Georgia Seal of Biliteracy, all students would be required to complete either option with a minimum GPA of 3.0.

Language Proficiency Requirements

Being able to apply their world language skills in an international work environment with relative ease, recent high school graduates must possess a significant command of a world language (ACTFL, 2015b). This crucial requirement resulted in debates about the proficiency demands to be mandated. Both the internal DOE proposal and later legislation were therefore designed to adhere to rigorous language standards that would meet the chief policymakers' needs.

While Californians Together have issued recommendations for world language and English proficiency levels to be attained to qualify for the Seal of Biliteracy (Californians Together, n.d.-b), actual requirements differ considerably between states. Most adhere to the minimum prerequisite of *Intermediate Mid* as defined by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) *Oral Proficiency Levels in the Workplace* (ACTFL, 2015b). In most states, students must (1) complete all required English Language Arts or ESOL coursework with a minimum GPA of 2.0, (2) pass either a foreign language Advanced Placement (AP) examination with a score of 3 or an International Baccalaureate (IB) examination with a score of 4, and (3) successfully complete a four-year high school course of study in a foreign language with an overall 3.0 GPA (California Department of Education, n.d.-b).

To address Georgia businesses' concerns regarding too low a language requirement for the Georgia Seal, policymakers reached a consensus on the proficiency level of *Intermediate-High* per the ACTFL proficiency standards (ACTFL, 2015b). In this regard, the initial version of House Bill 879 adhered closely to the original California Seal. However, the verbiage was later changed to require higher scores for language proficiency testing, exceeding the minimum eligibility requirements in most other states and alleviating employers' concerns of inadequate language preparation.

Admissible Proficiency Exams

As with eligibility criteria, the types of examinations accepted by a state department of education for the Seal of Biliteracy also differ between states. The New Jersey DOE, for instance, recognizes ten different exams to assess a student's foreign language proficiency (State of New Jersey Department of Education, n.d.) while the California DOE allows only three: AP, IB, and SAT II (California Department of Education, n.d.-b). As the following section will demonstrate, the selection of acceptable examinations for the Georgia Seal of Biliteracy presented a contentious issue in the policy selection process.

Policy Selection

In the fall of 2015, the lobbying firm COMM360, representing Georgia businesses, contacted the Georgia DOE and the Division of External Affairs and Policy who then engaged the Office of World Languages and Global/Workforce Initiatives and requested feedback on the proposed policy, especially concerning the National World Languages Standards (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 2010). Soon after, the initiative found its legislative sponsor and principle author in Rep. Tom Taylor (R) of the 79th District (Dunwoody); House Bill 879 was referred to the House Economic Development & Tourism Committee—of which Rep. Taylor was a member—in February 2016.

Legislative Process

Similar to the Seal of Biliteracy in states such as New Jersey, the Georgia DOE initially proposed a larger number of accepted language proficiency exams, with AP and IB being two of many options. Against DOE recommendations for even greater diversity of accepted language proficiency exams, the text of HB 879 as first read on the Georgia House floor on February 1, 2016, listed AP and IB exams, as well as the SAT II, as the only possible mechanisms to prove language skills. This first version of the bill also required that students hold a minimum GPA of 3.0 in their foreign language courses, which would have presented a significant obstacle to implementation due to the unavailability of classes in many of the languages spoken by potential candidates for the Seal. Amendment AM 40 0153, offered by Rep. Taylor, was adopted on February 18, 2016, and changed the verbiage of the legislation to list only AP and IB as primary world language exams. The amendment further raised the minimum required scores from 3 to 4 (AP) and 4 to 5 (IB) and struck the GPA requirement for world languages. Given the substantial cost of these College Board tests, one may consider the potential revenue generated by students taking these exams to qualify for the Seal as a possible incentive to limit the number of eligible tests (for a similar observation in the context of No child Left Behind, see Syverson, 2009, p. 3). As a concession to this limitation, HB 879 stipulated that the DOE may suggest other exams in cases where no such assessments existed in the AP or IB portfolio for less commonly taught languages ("Georgia Seal of Biliteracy," 2016, lines 30-33).

After the adoption of Amendment AM 40 0153, the bill was referred to the Georgia Senate and its Education and Youth Committee on February 19, 2016. Sen. JaNice VanNess (R) of the 43rd District (Conyers), a member of both the Senate Economic Development and Tourism, as well as the Education and Youth Committee, became the bill's Senate sponsor. After a delay of 15 legislative days, the Senate adopted an amended version of the bill on March 22, 2016. This amendment was significant because it intersected with the battle over another legislation, the controversial "Student Protection Act" (SB 355) of 2016. Against the background of the Georgia Milestones exam, this unpopular measure, sponsored by Sen. William Ligon, Jr. of the 3rd Senate District (Brunswick), provided an opt-out provision for mandatory standardized testing (Craig, 2016; "Student Protection Act," 2016; Tagami, 2016). Although SB 355 was vetoed by Georgia Governor Nathan Deal on May 3, 2016,

its central provision was first attached as an amendment to HB 879 and passed the Senate in that form (HB 879/FA). Before the House voted on the change on March 24, 2016, Rep. Taylor pressed to strike the added SB 355 verbiage from the bill. Only five members of the House objected; that same day, the final version of the bill was adopted, first by the House and later by the Senate.

Policy Alternatives

Based on a lack of documents to the contrary, it appears that policymakers never considered alternatives to the Seal of Biliteracy. Another measure, the International Skills Diploma Seal of 2015 (Georgia Department of Education, n.d.-d), does not include language proficiency testing and focuses on intercultural competence and global experiences instead. Therefore, it does not address the demands of the Georgia business community for higher-level language skills. The only quasi-alternatives initially discussed included variations to the Seal by offering a *silver* and *gold* version for different levels of student accomplishments in both world language, English Language Arts, and GPA. Georgia is now the only state that offers both a global skills seal and a State Seal of Biliteracy, although the former can be considered a lesser qualification because it is not anchored in law.

Policy Implementation

Implementation in other States

Even in the national context, the Seal of Biliteracy is a relatively recent development; in California, the first students did not earn a Seal until 2012. For this reason, scant information exists on the implementation effectiveness of specific stipulations and actions, such as the dissemination of information or policy dilution, appropriation, or nullification measures by street-level bureaucrats (see Malen, 2006). Based on the little extant evidence, however, implementation of the Seal across the United States appears to have proceeded without any major setbacks. Because the Seal presents an additional qualification for graduating seniors and does not constitute a significant school reform initiative, having encountered little opposition may not come as a surprise. The only primary area of contention during the implementation process appears to be an ongoing struggle over eligible proficiency examinations (see, for instance, Kukulka, 2016).

Implementation in Georgia

Preparations for implementation of the Georgia Seal of Biliteracy began even before the law went into effect on July 1, 2016. This section will first outline responsibilities and the timeline for implementation and then address the intended implementation strategy, including disseminating information about the Seal.

Responsibilities. The Georgia DOE assigns districts the task of designating coordinators at either the district or school level. These individuals both ascertain which students meet the requirements for obtaining the Seal and report this information to the Georgia DOE. Since required data include students' grades and academic history, this individual must be privy to such information. Therefore, the coordinator position is likely to be filled by a school counselor or registrar—both individuals with a multitude of competing responsibilities.

Although the DOE will designate its own coordinator, as well as design and purchase the physical seals from a third party supplier before mailing them to each school, districts bear the primary administrative workload in this initiative. While the Georgia Seal of Biliteracy statute stipulates that "no local school system shall be required to expend additional resources or hire additional personnel to implement the provisions" of this law ("Georgia Seal of Biliteracy," 2016, lines 39-40), it also does not provide funding sources of any kind.

For students who met the foreign language requirements before entering high school, the DOE interprets the legislation to mean that these students may use these results to fulfill the Seal's world language requirements. Such an exam might be the *Assessment of Performance toward Proficiency in Languages* (AAPPL) issued by ACTFL (n.d.). It is, however, the families' responsibility both to obtain the respective language certification and then submit these test scores in a student's senior year and thereby prove that they have attained a minimum world language proficiency.

Timeline. Since the statute did not take effect until July 1, 2016, students who graduated in spring of that year were unable to obtain the Seal. Several districts indicated interests to the DOE to offer the Seal to its students shortly after the date of enactment. The DeKalb County School District, for instance, informed the DOE that more than 100 students would potentially qualify for the Seal by the end of the 2016-2017 school year (Claus-Nix, 2016).

By May 1 of each year, district coordinators are to report to the DOE the names of all students interested in the Seal. Once AP and IB test scores are available in July, districts will report these to the DOE no later than September 1, together with a list of all pertinent world language, English classes and GPAs. Once the DOE has received these data, it will send seals out to schools or districts who then award them to students post hoc.

Information dissemination and enforcement. The Georgia Seal of Biliteracy has no binding mandate for districts and schools in the state of Georgia to actively seek out eligible students and provide them with a pathway for obtaining the Seal. As the Georgia DOE reads the statute, any student is *entitled* to participate in the Seal but must take the initiative and make this interest known to his or her school or district, at which point the latter is obligated to offer the Seal to this student and provide a strategy to earn the award. The burden of disseminating information lies on the districts; students are required to self-report. Since no stipulations for enforcement of the Seal exist, a district may choose not to provide such information to students and their parents, thereby de facto nullifying implementation. Among other repercussions, this omission may end up potentially limiting the social mobility of students and their families (see Labaree, 1997) as not obtaining the award may later result in fewer opportunities on the job market.

The Georgia DOE's Division of World Languages and Global/Workforce Initiatives has launched an information campaign that includes (1) an English-language website (Georgia Department of Education, n.d.-c), (2) information material sent out to all Georgia district superintendents, as well as (3) disseminating information at various education leadership conferences and through its curriculum newsletter. Circulating material to potentially interested businesses falls under the purview of the Career Technical and Agricultural Education (CTAE) division of the DOE under their Economic Development Liaison.

Policy Evaluation

Due to the relative overall novelty of the Seal of Biliteracy, virtually no concerted evaluation of the measure has been conducted in participating states. The only notable exception is the abovementioned report issued by Porras et al. (2014) for the state of California. The authors found that although "the 'market value' of both the Seal and bilingual and biliteracy skills remains unclear" (Porras et al., 2014, p. 236), several indicators suggest the benefits of acquiring both. This 2014 study among 289 employers in the public and private sectors yielded several important findings: First, bilingualism was a trait much in demand among employers. Second, most positions would benefit from bilingual skills. Third, bilingual speakers tended to either earn more or have greater opportunities for professional advancement. Fourth, language proficiency enhanced the probability of being hired by the companies surveyed. And fifth, many employers considered students who had obtained the Seal of Biliteracy as more valuable assets than those who had not. Although industries in which employees are less frequently engaged in human interaction assigned somewhat less salience to foreign language skills, the overwhelming majority of companies did express a favorable attitude toward multilingual skills.

One important measure of the success of the Seal is the number of students who have received the award. A precise evaluation of these figures is difficult because most data are reported in the press and pertain to the district or school level (see, for instance, D'Amico, 2015; Higgins, 2015; Pritchett, 2014; Tonis, 2016); relevant statistics from individual states' department of education are largely unavailable. Here, California is again an exception in that it reports state-wide numbers of Seal of Biliteracy recipients. In 2012, one year after the law was enacted, approximately 10,000 high school graduates obtained the Seal (Gándara, 2014) and received special recognition during graduation events and ceremonies (Olsen & Spiegel-Coleman, 2016). In 2016, the initiative honored more than 40,000 students in California alone (Mitchell, 2016b, para. 3). In addition, California employers have indicated that holders of the Seal would likely enjoy an advantage when being considered for jobs in various industries (Gándara, 2014; Porras et al., 2014).

While the Georgia Seal of Biliteracy is designed to encourage schools to offer a wider range of foreign languages to a broader student body and provide increased opportunities for speakers of less commonly taught languages, the policy is sufficiently vague concerning key elements of implementation. This analysis identifies four main potential problem areas that may impede effective policy realization: (1) lack of capacity building, (2) potentially hindered communication, (3) lack of enforcement, and (4) timing of key requirements.

Inducements, Capacity Building, and Enforcement

The law stipulates that districts are not required to incur added expenditures linked to the implementation of the Seal ("Georgia Seal of Biliteracy," 2016, lines 39-40) and the legislation provides no additional funding to implementing schools. In this regard, the Georgia statute matches those in all other participating states save one. The lack of available funds and people power, however, may present a considerable constraint at the local level. Since districts are required to designate at least one

individual with sufficient access to student data to serve as coordinator, already underfunded or understaffed districts may not have the capacity to find a qualified staff member to collect the required student information. Additionally, the statute places the financial burden of costs associated with the required language proficiency exams on students and their families. The fact that many of them may not be able to afford either the AP or IB exam constitutes, in itself, a degree of inequitable access to the Seal. Therefore, time will tell whether the Seal may be more widely used and offered by more affluent schools who have the financial means and capacity to implement this policy and can cover administrative workload and course offerings at the appropriate levels necessary for students to attain the necessary proficiency.

Such limited capacity does not extend solely to the individual school district, but also to the Georgia DOE. Since only one person will be responsible for coordinating administration of the Seal at the state level, checking each reported student's grades, GPA, course history, and test results will likely prove unfeasible and force the DOE to rely on district coordinators who may not receive extra compensation or workload reduction for these additional duties.

Information Dissemination Gaps

While the statute makes school or district participation in the Seal *voluntary* ("Georgia Seal of Biliteracy," 2016, line 39) the legislature is conspicuously vague concerning the definition of this term. Schools and districts are "strongly encouraged" (Claus-Nix, 2016) to provide information about the Seal to potentially interested students and parents. The latter pertains particularly to rising 9th-graders who can then plan their 9th through 12th-grade world language course sequence accordingly. Since each district has de facto power to decide whether or not—and in which manner—to disseminate information about the Seal, it may result in some districts not making such information sufficiently available and thereby limiting students' opportunities to participate in the program.

Choice of Allowable Proficiency Examinations

The provision that only AP and IB exams can prove sufficient world language proficiency at the high school level for most commonly taught languages presents a conundrum in the implementation process. If, for instance, a student with a sufficient level of proficiency in one language seeks to obtain the corresponding Seal but attends a school that offers AP courses only in other languages, the school may find itself obligated to support the students in his or her AP preparation. It is unlikely, however, that districts will establish additional AP or IB programs to accommodate students interested in obtaining the Seal in a language not currently available. The Georgia DOE has interpreted the statute such that if a school or district is not currently offering either an AP or IB exam in the language in question, the DOE may recommend another exam, even if the school offers AP or IB courses in other languages. This interpretation allows for greater flexibility in proficiency exam administration.

Considerations Regarding Policy Logistics and Timelines

A final potential obstacle to effective implementation is one of logistics. Per the statute, awarding the Seal in Georgia is predicated on earning a 3.0 GPA in English

Language Arts or ESOL. However, school or district coordinators will not be able to report this important metric to the DOE until the very end of a student's senior year. Additionally, AP/IB score reports are not available until July, necessitating that the Seal be awarded post hoc and, at times, months after high school graduation. Although the test scores for examinations in less commonly taught languages may be available before the end of the school year, the timing of their availability may lessen the likelihood of awarding the Seal during commencement ceremonies. The combination of these factors may reduce the attractiveness of the Seal considerably because students will not be able to receive the award at the time of graduation.

Proposals for Policy Improvement

Based on the above analysis of potential obstacles to faithful implementation of the Seal, this manuscript proposes four policy modifications to improve access and outcomes. First, the state should make widespread dissemination of information on the availability and content of the Seal of Biliteracy mandatory for all districts and schools. This should include the translation of necessary information into various languages in adherence to Title I of ESSA that requires "ensuring regular two-way, meaningful communication between family members and school staff, and, to the extent practicable, in a language that family members can understand" ("Every Student Succeeds Act," 2015, Sec. 1114(b)(5)(D); see also Hakuta & Linquanti, 2016). Parents with limited English language proficiency would thereby receive the necessary information on whether to encourage their child to attempt earning the Seal. Qualified heritage speakers of certain languages may also live in school districts where implementation of the Seal is regarded an unnecessary administrative and academic burden. Such districts may otherwise choose not to disseminate information necessary for students to declare their interest in earning this distinction.

Second, the authors recommend that a wider variety of primary language proficiency assessment measures be accepted. Mandating AP and IB exclusively as primary exams may not only disadvantage low-income parents who would be required to pay for expensive testing preparation and fees but also compel schools to reallocate resources to assist candidates for the Seal. An additional advantage of allowing a greater variety of assessment tools would be a broader range of testing formats. Some heritage speakers, in particular, may not possess the appropriate skill set to excel in certain standardized language testing environments (Solana-Flores, Wang, Kachchaf, Soltero-Gonzalez, & Nguyen-Le, 2014; Syverson, 2009). Providing up-front access to other exams—such as the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI), Reading Proficiency Test (RPT) and Writing Proficiency Test (WPT) or OPIc, the Standards-Based Measurement of Proficiency (STAMP) Test, or Diplomas of Spanish as a Foreign Language (DELE) (see, for example, Georgia Department of Education, n.d.-c; State of New Jersey Department of Education, n.d.)—may enable them to obtain proof of language proficiency required to earn the Seal more expeditiously.

Third, with decreased educational state funding for districts and no added accountability incentive like Exceeding the Bar (ETB) points on the state's College and Career Ready Performance Index (CCRPI) (Barge, 2013; Georgia Department of Education, 2016; n.d.-b), districts are forced to focus funding on CCRPI relevant measures. Therefore, including the Seal as a statewide CCRPI measure would not only increase

its relevance as an educational tool throughout the state but also circumvent above mentioned potential problems with the dissemination of information on the award.

Finally, funds should be made available to districts to help build capacity for implementation. These would be used in three areas: First, districts could offer subventions to parents and students for test preparation and testing fees. Second, districts could incentivize administrators to take on the additional workload of coordinating student selection and data reporting to the DOE. Finally, schools or districts could afford to either hire additional teachers with specialization in foreign language acquisition or shift some instructional workload to part-time teachers, which would free up instructional capacity to address language students' needs and help them obtain the Seal.

While the latter proposal would require the commitment of substantial financial resources at the state and district level, the other three proposals could be implemented without much additional funding.

Conclusion

The Georgia Seal of Biliteracy presents a valuable legislative addition to the state's educational landscape. While this policy was initially designed for the primary benefit of the international business community, it may also shift the deficit narrative around linguistic minorities and enhance their standing in society. In particular, heritage speakers of world languages—instead of potentially being ostracized—may find themselves in a more advantageous position than their (monolingual) English-native peers. Although time will tell whether implementation of this policy will be effective and in keeping with its original intent, the act creates a pathway for Georgia students to earn the distinction in a highly marketable global skill. How employers in Georgia and elsewhere view future job applicants will significantly impact the real-life utility of the Seal. Given the language proficiency level required by the legislation, businesses may find that these new employees possess the necessary 21st-Century skills to become valuable and productive members of a global workforce—thereby fulfilling the wishes of the business community who played such a crucial role in the Georgia Seal of Biliteracy.

Acknowledgements

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Integrating Leadership and Foreign Language Literary Studies

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Abstract

This article reports on the integration of leadership studies into upper-level foreign language literature classes in German and Spanish in two undergraduate programs—a military university (USAFA) and a civilian university (UNC Charlotte). Taking into account ACTFL's 21st Century Skills Map (2011) that includes the goal of leadership and responsibility, the study describes strategies and texts for leadership integration and recommendations for implementation to broaden the curriculum. Instructors from both institutions noted the usefulness of this approach to support language programs that include leadership as course/program/institutional goals as well as stimulating cross-cultural analysis from their exploratory analysis of student responses in course materials (e.g. journal entries, essays, exam items) and explicit positive student feedback from civilian and military student populations.

Key words: *leadership studies, literary studies*

Introduction

The present study describes efforts to experiment and expand traditional curricular content in advanced foreign language (FL) and literature courses to include leadership studies in two distinct undergraduate programs (one military and the other civilian) in three different literature classes in both German and Spanish from 2012-15. This article reports principally on the three primary iterations of these courses, as well as including some observations from three additional secondary renditions. The purpose of the experimentation is to develop a sustainable pedagogy resulting in a relevant approach to literary studies for upper-level language undergraduate students who are particularly focused on careers (Long & Rasmussen, 2014). The institutional context of the United States Air Force Academy (USAFA) and the University of North Carolina at Charlotte (UNC Charlotte) supports the rationale for this research due to students' career orientation.

This research has been motivated by three concerns. First, the Modern Languages Association (MLA) produced an oft-cited report, "Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World" (2007), that calls for curricular reform and the integration of interdisciplinary content. Leadership studies can be one example of such content. The MLA's study emphasizes the expansion of transcultural and translingual development of undergraduates. The report also

calls for the transformation of the language discipline through systematic curricular incorporation of interdisciplinary content to energize language programs, enhance student learning, reverse enrollment drops, and broaden the reach of the discipline. The MLA's directive coincided with the recent U.S. economic recession (2007) and the general decline in student enrollment in traditional humanities courses such as foreign literature (Patel, 2015; Schott, 2016; Tworek, 2013).

Second, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages published a *21st Century Skills Map P-21* (ACTFL, 2011) that specifically advocates the inclusion of "leadership and responsibility" in the language curriculum. Leadership and responsibility are presented as critical skills for the future for all students (civilians and military) and are more narrowly defined thus: "Students as responsible leaders leverage their linguistic and cross-cultural skills to inspire others to be fair, accepting, open, and understanding within and beyond the local community" (p. 19). The military cadets at USAFA receive officer training while pursuing their undergraduate degrees, and USAFA's explicit mission is to prepare officers of character for leadership roles in an increasingly internationalized world. This concern with leadership is not as all-pervasive among civilian language students, and not in quite the same forms, but it is equally as important.

Third, career-oriented Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) have steadily gained popularity in undergraduate language programs in the past few decades (Long, 2012). At the same time, interest in traditional literature courses has declined (Patel, 2015; Schott, 2016). Leadership development can be understood under the rubric of Languages for Specific Purposes (Sánchez-López, 2010), and also under that of content-based language learning (Stryker & Leaver, 1997; for summary see CARLA, 2014). Thus, incorporating the teaching of leadership as a course goal has the potential to move the undergraduate language curriculum from the traditional language and literature paradigm to the newer hybridized liberal arts language learner with a career focus (Long, 2013). But the researchers also wanted to experiment with ways to bolster interest in traditional literature courses in both military and civilian contexts, integrating leadership into the advanced foreign literature course in such a way that leadership growth occurs in tandem with the development of literary and cultural analysis. The elaboration of both literary and leadership acumen centers on critical thinking and analysis that are especially apparent in cross-cultural situations that may occur in texts or in real life.

Literature Review

There is a veritable industry of leadership books, presentations, and blog posts in popular culture and mainstream media (Campbell 2013; Maxwell, 1998; Spears & Schmader 2014, among others). In higher education, leadership minors, majors, and doctorates have proliferated over the last several decades (see University of San Diego, Xavier University, University of Central Arkansas, etc.). Indeed, in the educational sector, leadership has become mainstream as a content area, behavior, and process. In spite of being accused of anti-intellectualism because "the implicit message behind the rhetoric of leadership is that learning for learning's sake is not enough," the American obsession with leadership begins much earlier than the college years and extends past commencement (Burton, 2014).

Language educators have begun to pay attention to this trend as well. This began with the teaching of languages for business. Risner has included leadership materials for language educators for almost a decade at the site of the Network of Business Language Educators (2016). Language educator Slack traces the presence and the "teachability" of leadership in her presentation on the Spanish for Business curriculum (2016). Beyond the teaching of languages for business, ACTFL (2011) has sought to include leadership development as an explicit element in the general language curriculum. In 2013, ACTFL released its video titled *Lead with Languages* that highlights the importance of language learning in the U.S. to be able to lead on the world stage. Most of ACTFL's other efforts to proliferate leadership have focused on supporting language educators as emerging leaders through the co-sponsorship of summer institutes such as the Leadership Initiative for Language Learning (Long, 2015). There are additional indications of ACTFL's interest in integrating leadership into language learning (K-16+). Some classroom examples accompany "leadership and responsibility" from the *ACTFL 21st Century Skills Map* (2011), and one finds a focus on leadership in *The Language Educator* (Long, 2015). The ACTFL annual convention listed one session on the integration of leadership and language learning (2015) and one workshop in 2016 (see ACTFL.org).

However, concrete approaches to the integration of language learning (including the study of FL literature) and leadership at the classroom level remain nascent. Behavioral scientist Seemiller (2014) does offer a pertinent academic approach in curriculum design and explores the development of 60 student leadership competencies across a spectrum of careers and disciplines. Language researcher Eaton (2010) uses a constructivist approach that centers on the life of the leader Mahatma Gandhi as a language learner and takes the intertwining of language learning and leadership as a given, as knowing how to communicate better with others (in their languages) offers a way of understanding the world more profoundly. There has been a cluster of articles and one white paper written by USAFA faculty members who teach languages and literatures that consider the intersection of language teaching/learning and leadership development in general and conclude that "knowing multiple languages and cultures helps produce good leaders" (Long, 2015; Long, Derby, Scharff, LeLoup & Uribe, 2015; Long, LeLoup, Derby & Reyes, 2014; Uribe, LeLoup, Long & Doyle, 2014).

There are few studies that examine the integration of leadership studies in the advanced foreign literature class (Long & Rasmussen, 2013; Uribe et al., 2014). These as well as others have begun to develop some pedagogical approaches to explore the behavior of leaders and followers across cultures (Bleess 2015; Uribe et al., 2014). Badaracco (2006) published a self-help book for business leaders in which the substance of his approach rests on traditional practices of literary analysis, highlighting "the leader" as a major character of Western literature and exploring some of its manifestations. The limitation of Badaracco's approach, however, elides consideration of how literary configurations of leaders and leadership can vary across time and across cultures.

The present study builds on the necessity of providing reflective time in the language and literature class to consider the roles of literary leaders and followers as well as having students assess their own leadership development as related to fic-

tional characters. A leadership approach can support and expand undergraduate literary studies while maintaining a pedagogical focus on issues of identity, social justice, cultural criticism, ethics, and representation. Additionally, the skills of close reading and analysis are central to literary studies, and the leadership focus adds a layer of discussion and of applicability that can be attractive to many career-focused students. This method may enhance the perceived significance and relevance of literature, as students develop the ability to adapt and apply lessons from observations about literary works, and it may also suggest career applications for students. At the same time students can find much personal intellectual growth and satisfaction in cross-cultural and intercultural communication (Garrett-Rucks, 2016) and in critical approaches and flexible, creative thinking skills that foreign-language literary analysis is uniquely suited to develop and practice. A ToM (Theory of the Mind) study (Kidd & Castano, 2013) suggests that reading literary fiction enhances the understanding of others' mental states and is a crucial skill that enables complex social relationships that characterize human societies. Accordingly, the questions guiding this study are:

1. How can leadership studies be integrated into advanced FL literature courses?
2. What pedagogical modifications need to be considered to achieve a successful integration of leadership studies in advanced FL literature courses?
3. What elements (such as type of institution) impact the success or effectiveness of the integration of leadership and literature courses?

Methods: Approach, Participants, and Assumptions

Seeking to add value to the traditional advanced foreign literature course motivated the researchers to pursue a joint German-Spanish pilot project on language teaching/learning and leadership studies at USAFA (spring 2013). Subsequent experimentation at UNC Charlotte followed, in an attempt to increase the generalizability of findings beyond a military setting (fall 2014).

The general goal of our project was the implementation of intentional and integrated leadership development in FL instruction and learning within the literary domain. The specific goals of this study were the following: (1) To investigate student reflection on relations between leadership and (knowledge of) cultural/linguistic difference through specific teaching practices in advanced courses; (2) To analyze student reflections, produced within the parameters of those teaching practices, in view of our desire to integrate leadership studies into our teaching; and (3) To determine whether to recommend these teaching practices to the profession at large or to propose modifying them, in pursuit of intentional and integrated leadership development in advanced undergraduate foreign language instruction and learning. It should be noted that the third goal includes whether to recommend specific instructional materials to stimulate the focus on leadership in literary studies.

Students in this study were enrolled in one of three courses (see Table 1) at two universities. Although no survey was given, it is assumed that students at USAFA were taking the course to complete the language requirement or requisites for the major in Foreign Area Studies. The USAFA curriculum does not include the traditional language major. At USAFA in the Spanish seminar, War in the Arts in Spain and Latin America, students were between the ages of 18 and 22 with 3 females and

7 males enrolled. In the German seminar, German Experience of War, students were between the ages of 18 and 22 with 3 females and 4 males enrolled. All students at UNC Charlotte were surveyed and were taking the course, Masterworks of Spanish Literature, to fulfill the requirements for the Spanish major or minor. Students were between the ages of 19 and 28 with 11 males and 22 females enrolled. UNC Charlotte is a large public university that enrolls predominantly undergraduates who are mostly civilians and are the first in their families to attend college. Most undergraduates seek employment upon graduation and express interest in skills that are transferable to the workplace such as leadership. In contrast, USAFA is a small, elite undergraduate college combining academic study and military officer training. USAFA enrolls students from all 50 states with fewer than 1% of students from foreign countries. The majority of USAFA students are between the ages of 18 and 22 and about 20% of the students are female. All students volunteered to participate in the study and institutional IRB protocols were followed. For all course renditions, there was one German instructor and one Spanish instructor.

This study focuses only on the three primary iterations of such courses—one Spanish and one German course at the military institution (spring 2013) and one additional Spanish course in the civilian setting (fall 2014)—though both instructors, and authors of this paper, have deliberately infused leadership into their coursework for a total of six times in their courses. The primary iterations are included in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Primary Iterations of Leadership Infused Courses

Course Title	Term	Student Population	n	Data Type
German Experience of War	spring 2013	military	7	journal entries, essays, joint discussion responses
War in the Arts in Spain and Latin America	spring 2013	military	10	journal entries, essays, joint discussion responses
Masterworks of Spanish Literature	fall 2014	civilians	31	essays, discussions

There were three other secondary versions of leadership-infused courses that we chose not to discuss in detail because the leadership integration was less systematic. However, we acknowledge the secondary courses to point out the length of our experimentation and that it is ongoing. Some of our conclusions were reinforced through observation in the secondary experiences. The secondary courses were all taught at USAFA: (1) War in the Arts in Spain and Latin America, 11 students, fall 2012; (2) Latin American Literature and Film, 10 students, spring 2013; and (3) German Literature and the Idea of Justice, 6 students, spring 2015.

Focusing on the primary iterations, the course titles indicate that leadership was not the exclusive organizing theme or the sole focus of all classroom discussions

but was a value-added area for reflection and development. Our joint pilot project (Spring 2013) incorporated leadership as additional content in German and Spanish upper-level literature courses and had several starting assumptions. First, we used the definition of leadership and responsibility found in ACTFL's *21ˢᵗ Century Skills Map* as noted above: "Students as responsible leaders leverage their linguistic and cross-cultural skills to inspire others to be fair, accepting, open, and understanding within and beyond the local community." Therefore, it was assumed that language students should demonstrate ethical behavior and integrity to solve problems and accomplish mutual goals. Second, we made the assumption that leadership development could be further enhanced when it was made visible in the language curriculum, and that it should be evoked directly (Long et al., 2014). Knowing multiple languages and cultures can help produce good leaders because it increases one's ability to engage with a variety of other people, even without paying explicit attention to leadership as a concept or a practice (Long et al., 2015). But we wanted to include leaders and leadership as characters and themes of literature as a broadening element with particular attention to the ways the depiction of leadership is inflected culturally. Third, we assumed that even in the institutional setting in which our collaborative project began this would be a productive approach to the development of leadership that students would recognize as valuable. USAFA has a particular emphasis on leadership development. The stated mission of the Academy is "to educate, train and inspire men and women to become officers of character, motivated to lead the United States Air Force in service to our nation" (USAFA Strategic Plan, 2015, p. 1). The Department of Foreign Languages has sought to articulate its contribution to leadership development by declaring that its goal is to develop leaders of character with a global perspective (http://tinyurl.com/hjbtl3j). Leadership is already an explicit goal of the institution, but it had not been integrated in advanced foreign language and literature courses.

Our project made leadership development a more explicit and integrated component of the advanced foreign literature course in three primary ways: Selection of instructional materials, student writing, and several joint sessions between Spanish and German students to foster critical thinking of leadership differences across cultures. It should be noted that this third component was not included in the subsequent civilian study at UNC Charlotte.

First, we selected instructional materials that lent themselves to discussions of leadership, but we chose them without having leadership studies solely in mind. Indeed, we felt it was important that these be materials one might have selected anyway given each course's literary and cultural themes and topics. The Findings section of this paper is primarily concerned with sharing the specific readings for each course and reporting on student reactions to the leadership lens brought to bear on the texts.

Second, both seminars (spring 2013) contained open-ended journal questions asking students to reflect on a personal level about the leadership models with which they engaged in the class, considering such issues as the following: What does leadership look like across cultures? Do course materials confirm/challenge standard teaching on leadership? How do course materials correspond to personal experiences with leadership and cultural differences? Have the course materials and discussions effected changes in students' personal ideas about leadership and its relation to culture?

Third, the combined German and Spanish classes (spring 2013) had two joint discussion sessions that lasted one hour per session. We met during the lunch period to consider cultural differences globally, not just between the target culture and one's own but also within myriad foreign cultures and linguistic traditions. We held two joint face-to-face discussion sessions in English, in which students were required to interact with each other from three courses—the Spanish and German seminars as well as the secondary course titled Latin American Literature and Film. The three courses had a total of 27 students. We met in a large room with movable chairs. We assigned group members to ensure that all groups had approximately 4 members and at least one cadet from each course. We assigned student leaders and recorders for each group. The instructors followed a script, framed the joint sessions, and conducted brief whole group discussions interspersed with the small group tasks that occupied most of the time. For the group work, students received written instructions (see Appendix 1: Day 1 Instructions). In the first joint session, the students sought to identify unchanging universals and factors of difference in notions and practices of leadership. During the second joint session, student groups discussed specific leaders/followers from their respective course materials, with a focus on how leadership is inflected by culture.

Lastly we collected student feedback on the value of the joint sessions. We had students fill out a post-joint session questionnaire (see Appendix 2). All but four of the 27 students present for both meetings recommended that more such sessions take place in future courses. Eighty-six percent of the students who responded stated the German-Spanish cross-cultural discussions were a valuable learning experience and enjoyed learning about another foreign literature, though many of the students felt that two joint sessions were not enough. Several also wrote that it might have been beneficial to have had one common text that the students in both German and Spanish would have read beforehand so that different perspectives arising from different literature and leadership cultures could be put into greater relief.

Also during the USAFA seminars (spring 2013), data were collected from student responses to leadership-infused assignments. Both instructors informally analyzed data from the journal entries, essays, and discussions for the two seminars under study in an attempt to identify a general perspective of student perceptions and to inform future iterations of the course design by positive or negative student comments. Although no systematic analysis of the data was conducted, both instructors/authors offer student quotes concerning their observations of the coursework to provide further evidence of the ways in which students internalized the course material.

Findings: Instructor Analyses of the Three Courses

(1) The German Experience of War: USAFA Seminar

This seminar was taught during a 20-week semester in spring 2013, with an enrollment of 7 students. The seminar formed part of the German-Spanish pilot. The focus was on representations of the experience of war, particularly World War II, in the German-speaking world. Course materials included letters, diaries, memoirs, and reports along with films, novels, and short stories, mostly written or produced during that time or shortly afterward. Most of the materials were organized

into five units, adapted from a syllabus shared by William Rasch, Professor of German at Indiana University: (1) World War I and its aftermath; (2) German soldiers on the Eastern Front; (3) the bombing war against German cities; (4) life in defeat (1945-1947); and (5) post-war representations of the Holocaust. The course began and ended with two dramatic masterpieces looking back to the long history of war in German culture: Heinrich von Kleist's *Die Hermannsschlacht* (1821), written during the Napoleonic wars and dramatizing part of the German folk hero Arminius' war against the Romans; and Bertolt Brecht's *Mutter Courage und ihre Kinder* (1949), written on the eve of World War II to combat Nazism and militarism and set during the Thirty Year's War. Leadership as a conceptual rubric was not used to select materials, but there was ample opportunity to make the discussion of it an added dimension of what was otherwise structured as a more or less traditional, if highly interdisciplinary, literature and culture course.

Four of the course materials will be discussed here: a play, a film, a novel, and a journalist's report. The course began with Kleist's *Die Hermannsschlacht,* which gave students a sense of the importance of war in German history and literature prior to the twentieth century and also introduced them to issues of literary representation. Arminius is depicted as a strong, highly intelligent leader with a grand patriotic vision for "Deutschland" (Kleist is deliberately anachronistic here). But he uses deception and deliberately promotes an irrational hatred and fear of all things Roman to achieve his ends. Classroom discussions centered on his intelligence and strength of will but also on his dubious means. Was his success dependent on his willingness to deceive and incite hatred? We also discussed how Kleist staged a conflict between the demands of patriotism and the demands of personal relationships. Arminius championed the patriotic idea as an absolute that outweighed all else. Would he have failed if he had allowed his followers to humanize this or that particular Roman? How should we weigh the costs of such an approach? Finally, Kleist's emphasis on Arminius' Germanness links his behavior to a notion of German identity. Does Kleist's Arminius model a particularly German style of leadership, marked by ideological fervor and rigid abstraction employed to justify deceptions and to override personal relationships? And is Kleist championing this model?

The cadets' initial reactions were to applaud Hermann's strengths and successes as a leader, but when confronted with such questions they became less sure of how to assess him. One student wrote in a journal entry:

> Based on the readings from Kleist, a good leader has a high degree of self-control and self-awareness, but can stoop to use deception or other means to achieve his ends. According to Kleist, a leader can harness both his 'good' and 'bad' side […] Reading these works has helped me appreciate how challenging leading others can be, especially in life or death situations. I think reading these works, particularly Kleist, has helped me realize that perhaps not all good leaders are inherently good people.

Another student had similar reflections, suggesting that Hermann represents "a Machiavellian leader, willing to do anything to gain and maintain power, and believing strongly that the ends justify the means," and that although "his lack of defining vir-

tues" would not be well received today, "his success in battle would likely overcome [outweigh] any vices in his personal character." A third student, however, found fault with Hermann's "devious and backstabbing nature" not only on moral but on leadership grounds, because it cannot ultimately lead to sustainable success. He also believed that Hermann's mode of leadership is not very German, as it does not coincide with "how the Germans view their wars and how they remember them. Specifically, I feel that the Germans would much rather remember wars as a tragedy against the individual." Other students emphasized that the historical context and literary goals of Kleist's work needed to be taken into account: "In the pre-world war era during which *Die Hermannsschlacht* was written, nationalism was king, and Kleist was looking for a way to inject that into his play and motivate men to fight for their country." Sorting through the ambiguities of Kleist's work helped establish conceptual questions and problems that framed later discussions.

This occurred, for instance, in our discussion of the film *Hunde, wollt ihr ewig leben?* (1959), depicting German soldiers on the eve of the Battle of Stalingrad. The main character, Lieutenant Wisse, who is handsome and charismatic, argues against senseless orders in an effort to protect the men under his command, while Hitler and his commanding officers (along with Wisse's immediate superior) do not know the men and speak and think of them only abstractly. Wisse knows not only his men but also individuals among the Russian enemy and never dehumanizes them. The film, then, portrays Hitler and his minions as inflexible, inhuman ideologues, but insists that there were also heroic German soldier-leaders during the war who acted humanely and ethically. Comparing the film's treatment of leadership with Kleist's created a compelling discussion. The film portrayed a stark contrast between good and bad models of leadership without Kleist's dilemmas of thought, but conceptual categories were similar: the film's Hitler seemed similar to Kleist's Arminius in his commitment to abstractions, while Wisse modeled something like the personalized, non-abstract behavior Arminius wanted to eradicate. Who was right, Wisse or Arminius? Wisse appealed more to the cadets, though we also considered what agenda the film might have had in making such clear distinctions between positive and negative forms of leadership.

Along with these and other examples of strong leadership, we also considered works marked by the apparent absence of it. Gert Ledig's novel *Die Stalinorgel* (1955) depicts two days at the Eastern front, focusing on an insignificant hill that an entrenched group of Germans still defends even as the front line of the battle sweeps west of them. Their commanders abandon them, and the attacking Russians, too, are ignored by their superiors now that the front line has moved. The men on both sides fight on without purpose or hope of victory. Deciding what to do is the dilemma. There are minor differences of rank among them but the superiors hardly attempt to pretend they have any answers; military rank is worthless in the face of their meaningless situation. In discussions students noted the vacuum of leadership is presented as a given; attention is not directed to various models of how (not) to lead, but rather to what followers do when there is suddenly nobody to follow. We contrasted the novel with the film. While both present a battle as without hope of success and as the result of a failure of leadership at the highest levels, in the novel there are no heroic lieutenants like Wisse. The cadets thought that Ledig's presenta-

tion of the war conveyed a sense of greater authenticity, and that a mentality of strict, thoughtless obedience had been too well cultivated prior to the events of the novel. Still, our search for leadership qualities among the novel's characters did lead the cadets to wonder whether leadership could sometimes be not so much an issue of persuading others to follow, but of acting even when nobody else can or will.

This issue arose again in materials devoted to the post-war period. Stig Dagerman, a Swedish journalist traveling through Germany, describes in his *German Autumn* (1947) the experiences of common people trying to survive in what often felt like the absence of political or other leadership. In one passage, Dagerman notes that the Germans planted vegetables wherever a spot of earth appeared among the city ruins. His German guide, on seeing this, says, "The Germans are a capable people, at any rate," and Dagermann notes that she sounds "almost sorry." We discussed whether there is something leader-like about this individual initiative of planting cabbages in which everyone seems to be spontaneously participating. We considered a model of leadership centered not on a single charismatic leader or an organization persuading others to follow but on unassuming individuals embarking on an enterprise that others choose to imitate. This was an attractive idea, but we also discussed why the guide might be "sorry" about this. Perhaps she saw the industrious cabbage-planting as a way to avoid thinking about one's responsibility toward the larger situation, both with respect to how it arose and to what really needs to be done to resolve it. The cadets concluded that this sense of responsibility would be a necessary quality of leadership even, or especially, when the leaders are not charismatic heroes but unassuming individuals. (Though there is no space to discuss it here, cadets later found Kattrin's rooftop drumming in Brecht's *Mutter Courage* to be an example of precisely this). In applying this to themselves and to differences between American and German leadership cultures today, one student wrote in a journal entry that "a stereotype of the American leader/soldier" is to be "brash and daring" but that the works studied "demonstrate that there is no singular [sic] correct way to lead." Another wrote, similarly, that "the United States is more typically known for the loud, assertive, and sometimes arrogant leader," while in Germany "now there is always the fear that a leader coming on too strong will be another German dictator." But then, noting that the German cabbage-planters were probably mostly women, this student continued: "As a woman especially, I have learned that I must find my own way of being a leader. It is not reasonable to believe that by acting masculine, loud and assertive, I will see the same results as my male counterparts. Such is the nature of society and unique roles. Every person must approach leadership in a different way."

By the end of the course, students were unanimous is asserting the value of the course in developing their understanding of issues of leadership in a German context and of German literature. One student was representative in writing that "I believe that this class has answered many of the questions I had coming back from my semester abroad [at a German military institution]." Though not all had spent a semester abroad, all did already have some sense of many differences between U.S. and German cultures, and even between leadership cultures, but they felt they understood those differences and why and how they had come about much better as a result of this course. They also appreciated how the types of course materials we studied are particularly well-suited to help them do so; the same student wrote: "I

would much rather prefer [sic] to read a historical account, but from this class I now understand that literature portrays so much more of the culture and feelings of people." Most suggested that their thinking about leadership, not just literature, had undergone some change, though they frequently found themselves unable to articulate exactly how. But one student, in an early entry describing leadership qualities in course materials, reflected that

> [t]hese qualities are […] not what I would consider the stereotypical American military leader. None of these characters are motivational and their non-charismatic attitudes do not coincide with the leader that the United States military promotes. An American military leader ought to be able to make his or her troops see the good in every bad situation and can never show weakness, lest he or she risk undermining the fighting mentality of the whole unit.

Later, however, in response to a prompt about how their views of leadership may have changed, the same student wrote:

> I have seen [course materials] impact my way of thinking. Most of all, the gung-ho warrior mentality that the Academy tries to instill in cadets has been checked […] I would say that I am now less apt to discount a culture's viewpoint just because it is different than my own.

This student was intrigued by the possibility of identifying a German way of leading less dependent on charisma than are American leadership models, and of seeing how aspects of it could be adapted in his own thinking. The goal had not, of course, been to persuade the cadets to identify (much less adopt) a monolithic German model of leadership set against a monolithic American one, but to help them become more aware of the existence of other perspectives and to develop ways of engaging productively with them. On the basis of student contributions to classroom discussions and of their written essays and journal entries, the goal of greater awareness was clearly met. For many of the students the goal of developing ways to engage productively with such differences seems to have been largely met as well.

(2) War in the Arts in Spain and Latin America: USAFA Seminar

The "special topics" seminar, titled War in the Arts in Spain and Latin America, was taught during the 20-week spring semester 2013. The seminar enrolled 10 students and formed part of the German-Spanish pilot. The seminar's content was interdisciplinary and incorporated literary texts, fine art, and film that were intertwined with leadership content. This offered an opportunity for the civilian researcher—who served as Distinguished Visiting Professor at USAFA (2011-13)—to learn about the canon of leadership from the Air Force perspective and to better understand the background of her military students.

The course focused on four literary works that contained unique representations of leaders and followers: *El ingenioso hidalgo don Quijote de la Mancha,* Miguel de Cervantes y Saavedra (2014); *Los de abajo*, Mariano Azuela (1958); *Escuadra hacia la muerte*, Alfonso Sastre (1967) and *El húsar,* Arturo Pérez-Reverte (1983). The students read two short novels, one play, and the first two chapters of *El ingenioso hidalgo don Quijote de la Mancha (El Quijote)*. All characters exemplified different

aspects of human discord. They included heroes and/or anti-heroes that facilitated the integration of leadership into the traditional content. The protagonists featured an inexperienced 19 year-old officer learning about leadership during Spain's Napoleonic Wars; a ranking soldier that loses control of his squadron during the Spanish Post-Civil War period; an uneducated peasant that becomes a commander during the Mexican Revolution; and, the Spanish *hidalgo* who displays leadership by convincing others of his viewpoint. Despite being from different time periods and countries, the main characters all encounter adversity and attempt to stave it off. For purposes of this study the discussion is limited to the four main texts. Nuanced literary analysis about them is downplayed here to focus on the connections between literature, culture, and leadership.

Literary content was chosen to explore human conflict. The seminar included readings that had literary merit with examples of the presence (or absence) of leadership that were set in the context of war and/or its aftermath. Students in both iterations of the Spanish seminar were aware of the focus on leadership in literary representations across cultures. Students were encouraged to share their observations about leadership regularly in class and in their writing. The seminar was taught entirely in Spanish and included essays, readings and class time. The second iteration also had four extra reflective writing assignments in English as well as the two joint discussions with the students of German. The writing done outside of class often contained statements that demonstrated how examples of leaders are able to provide different individual or cultural approaches to leadership. One cadet wrote: "I think that, for me personally, in studying different types of leaders, I can see ways to motivate other people whom I would not be able to motivate as well using my own style of leadership."

The seminar began with a close reading and analysis of the initial chapters of *El Quijote* that set the tone for much rest of the semester. From military to civilian students even after four hundred years, Cervantes's novel still proves its relevancy. From the beginning of *El Quijote*, students experience many of the essential elements of this literary masterwork, such as the iconic protagonist, unreliable narrator, and a story within a story. The narrator manipulates the reader and plants the seed of doubt about the verisimilitude of Don Quijote and undermines the perception of him as a leader. In spite of his implied state of insanity from reading too many chivalry books, students observe Don Quijote as he reinvents himself as a medieval warrior who is preparing his *salidas* in search of adventure and validation. He assumes the regalia of a knight errant. As a leader, Don Quijote must convince others of his station, commitment, and inspire strangers to serve him and his vision. He does just so in the incident in the Inn (see Chapter 2). Don Quijote states his purpose: To fight for decency and protect the defenseless. His commitment to honor and his vision and mission are intense. The military students identified with his virtues and mission-focused mentality.

In the seminar(s), not surprisingly, the cadets were less comfortable with the paradox of craziness and virtue. However distracting Don Quijote's mental state might have been, it was deflected by the role of the narrator. This allowed the students to gravitate naturally toward the consideration of his morality. Students acknowledged him as a model leader because of his unwavering commitment to honor,

integrity, and his desire to serve his fellow man for the greater good. In essay after essay, the majority of students mentioned Don Quijote's moral superiority. One analyzed Cervantes' historical context and expressed the following about Don Quijote and his role in Spanish society of the period: "Don Quijote was anything but an insider [in his day]. He was an outsider because he was not easily swayed by the ebb and flow of society's deteriorating moral code; instead, he held himself to a different standard. Although his particular sense of morality and nobility might not be relevant to today's equivalent understanding, leaders today still need to demonstrate an unerring tendency to do right when facing wrong…" The cadet's observation demonstrates the challenges of context--the times in which one lives and leads. He also points to the connection between his own leadership development and Don Quijote. Similarly Badaracco (2006) employs Don Quijote as an example of integrity when preparing students for a career in business leadership. Badaracco's students read *El Quijote* in translation to encourage reflection on leadership development.

Set in the Mexican Revolution, the seminar's second novel offers an exploration of the limits of leadership, integrity and the importance of a clear mission. In Azuela's *Los de abajo*, protagonist Demetrio Macías is cast as a peaceable peasant until a malicious attack on his family and *pueblo*. Macías calls for justice, joins the fractured armies of the Mexican Revolution, and he quickly rises through the ranks due to his ability to inspire followers. With no formal education, military training or plan, he leads a militia of *campesinos*. General Macías displays traditional leadership characteristics and behaviors such as masculine self-confidence, charisma and determination. Macías provides a metaphor for the corrupt historical leaders of the Mexican Revolution. At the close of the novel, Macías is unable to break the cycle of killing. Multiple students noted Macías' inspiring charisma. However, they also assessed that Macías would inevitably fail because of his lack of moral fortitude on top of having no clear objective behind his warring. Lacking an ideology, a boozer and adulterer, the leader would fail. Besides the main character-leader, the novel motivated research about the complexities of the historical leaders of the Mexican Revolution (e.g., Zapata, Villa, Obregón). This provided more ways to study leadership and related behaviors across cultures.

From the Mexican Revolution to Spain's Franco period, students considered leadership's limits and manifestations in the literature of the dictatorship. Sastre's existential play *Escuadra hacia la muerte*, staged only three times before being closed by the regime, presents six soldiers (all with dark pasts) who form a death squadron. The action takes place in a guardhouse in the woods during the fictional WWIII. The claustrophobic guardhouse (meant to mimic the oppression during the early postwar period) weighs heavily on the soldiers as they wait for their demise.

Eventually killed by his followers, the fanatical sergeant Cabo Goban is in charge of the squadron. He is a cruel and coercive leader. Goban's behavior reminds students of both historical military leaders Adolf Hitler and Francisco Franco. Sastre's characters possess a complex relationship as individuals and their group dynamic turns deadly. The soldiers do not mutually share past problems, so an ambiance of suspicion clouds the analysis of leadership. The characters appear isolated from each other even while in the same room. The military students note that the soldiers form a squadron in name but not in deed. They do not interact like a supportive team.

They do not communicate with one another, much like members of Spanish post-war society. The metaphor for Spanish society usurps the typical focus on teamwork, familiarity, and like-mindedness associated with collaborative leaders and followers in the military. The cadets wrote about the authoritarian presence of Goban and his flawed concept of leadership.

From dictatorship to democratic Spain, the final novel offered a look at an aspiring coming-of-age leader. While studying *El húsar*, the cadets discussed war, leadership and ethics. In Pérez-Reverte's *El húsar*, the protagonist is a young lieutenant in the Napoleon's Army. He is Frederic Glünz, originally from Strasbourg, and is posted to Andalusia. By the end of the novel he will come to terms with service, leadership, morality, and disenchantment with war. He will also consider the multi-national nature of the Napoleonic Wars. The cadets wrote about characters as leaders and several tackled the collective issue of nations leading other nations. Glünz struggles to understand how to be a warrior and an effective officer in a regimen of individuals that hail from all over Europe. As Glünz becomes increasingly aware of the futility of war, the novel poses questions such as: What does war mean? What is honor? Glünz is an inexperienced warrior and prepares for battle both physically and mentally. However, in the end his entire war experience is reduced to three words: "barro, sangre y mierda" (194). Students note that trusting his leaders proves to be his central challenge. Besides weighing wisdom and duty, the novel considers Spain's historical role of resistance to Protestantism, Enlightenment thought, and modernization in the 1800s.

(3) Masterworks of Spanish Literature: UNC Charlotte

Literature and leadership development were also taught in a similar pilot at UNC Charlotte in upper-level Spanish in "Masterworks of Spanish Literature" (hereafter Masterworks). In fall 2014, the 16-week Masterworks course enrolled 33 students with 31 finishing the course. The course content was tailored to encourage civilian students to reflect on leaders and leadership across cultures while studying great works of Spanish literature. The course was designed to use comparable strategies and readings as the aforementioned Spanish seminar at USAFA that interwove the teaching of literature, culture, and leadership.

The civilian course had the help of a graduate research assistant (GRA) that supported the experimentation. The researcher and research assistant asked this question: By the end of the course, are students able to make connections between leadership and the literature studied? The GRA identified and analyzed evidence of the presence (or absence) of considerations of leadership (and their profundity) in the course by analyzing student writing (Long & She, 2016).

With this question in mind and a desire to broaden the traditional approach to teaching Spanish literature at UNC Charlotte, the researchers anticipated that civilian students did not possess uniform experience with the idea of leadership or have formal leadership training like their military counterparts. Civilian students voiced a spectrum of leadership experience when queried to assess their background at the outset. A one-page questionnaire was assigned to the students that had open-ended questions to capture prior experience with leadership. The questions included: (1) What do you know about leadership and followership? (2) Can you list some characteristics of leaders and followers? (3) Do you think there are any significant dif-

ferences between Spanish (Spain) and American (U.S.) experiences in terms of how the roles of leaders and followers are viewed? What might those differences be? (4) Where do your impressions about these questions come from? Whereas the military students received formal leadership training that included explicit applications (as followers and leaders) and the cadets possessed some theoretical knowledge of leadership styles and models, the questionnaire revealed that the civilian students had widely varying backgrounds/experiences with leadership and leadership development. From the answers on the questionnaire 31 civilian students from Masterworks were categorized into three types: 10 students had substantial experience with leadership and made relevant statements that displayed their depth of knowledge on the questionnaire, 10 students had some emerging notions about leadership, and the remaining 11 students had minimal/no ideas about leadership and reported not experiencing leadership personally.

The diversity of student experience with leadership affected how the civilian students approached leadership in the literary readings and to what level they could identify leaders/followers, make comparisons/connections across cultures or engage in more sophisticated/nuanced analysis. The researchers observed anecdotally that as the students worked in groups throughout the semester, those who had more experience with leadership or were further along in their own leadership development modeled it and pointed out leadership scenarios to those with less experience. Given their uneven prior experience with leaders and leadership development, it necessitated that the instructor be explicit about calling out leadership opportunities and examples as she made leadership more explicit in the Spanish literature course than in similar military course. An additional strategy to encourage leadership development was to include a statement on the syllabus (followed up by verbal repetition).

In the upper-level literature course, civilian students were generally unfamiliar with the academic vocabulary referring to leaders and leadership studies. Terms such as *líder*, *seguidor/a*, and *liderazgo* were taught explicitly and regularly repeated to increase leadership literacy in Spanish. In class, the instructor engaged students in general discussions to define the term leadership, to identify leaders in literary readings and in real life, and to consider characteristics of leaders. When students identified a leader, they were asked to explain why he/she identified the individual as such to consider a range of characteristics and behaviors associated with leadership. Like their military counterparts, they were invited to hypothesize about what they might do if faced with the leadership challenges presented in the fiction through role-play and reflective writing.

The reading list in the civilian course was similar to the one at USAFA, except that the Mexican novel *Los de abajo* was replaced by *La casa de Bernarda Alba* (1981) by Federico García Lorca. This substitution was made because Masterworks focused exclusively on Peninsular literature. García Lorca's play was also accessible and often familiar, so that students could concentrate on leadership and gender throughout while reading the work. According to one student: "El liderazgo de Bernarda tiene muchas cualidades masculinas. Tradicionalmente, la madre consola a sus hijos porque es cariñosa y compasiva mientras el padre desempeña un papel de jefe de casa…" While the students explored the masculinized female protagonist Bernarda, they also debated daughter Adela's potential leadership role. Other reflections of-

fered cross-cultural comparisons that were both diachronic and synchronic and displayed varying levels of intercultural development.

Because Masterworks was a large class, the main way that the research team concretely looked at connections between literary readings and the leadership lens was through analysis of student essays. Students did two types of formal graded writing. All essays were written entirely in the target language. The first type of essay was done regularly throughout the course. Students were assigned an academic essay on each literary work. There were a total of four essays. Each essay was written in two graded drafts of a minimum of 600 words per essay. This was the equivalent of 8 papers for the 16-week semester. The essays were developed in several drafts that were shared with classmates, the instructor, and the GRA for feedback on both expression and content. In these essays, the students wrote an original thesis statement about any aspect of the literary work. Because the topic was open (other than being limited to a particular literary work), an analysis was performed about how many students voluntarily gravitated toward the inclusion of leadership reflections in their essays. A total of 104 essays were completed and examined. There were 29 essays that included reflections on leaders and leadership. That is, over a quarter of the open-topic essays voluntarily included some reflection on leadership related to the literature studied.

The second type of writing that students did was to address two questions that focused exclusively on leadership and literature on the final exam. Of the 31 essay sets from the final exam, 14 essays had strong evidence of connections being made between the literature and leadership and developed their ideas in their final essays. One student commented on the concepts of glory and honor as relevant to being a leader:

> Ser jefe o la persona de autoridad no hace necesariamente que alguien sea un líder si uno no sabe distinguir entre la gloria (como vemos en las obras de Cervantes y de Pérez-Reverte) y el honor (como vemos en las obras de Sastre y de Lorca).

The student concluded that being a leader is much more than authority: a leader needs to know how to distinguish between the concepts of glory and honor. The remaining 17 essays did not develop leadership-literature connections beyond the level of cliché. Unlike at the military institution, many UNC Charlotte students possessed a more limited understanding of leadership and did not have the background to develop the leadership-literature link beyond platitudes. The initial one-page questionnaire that explored the leadership background of the UNC Charlotte students reminds us that for one third of them, this course was their first explicit experience exploring leadership in a formal manner.

Discussion, Limitations, Conclusions, and Future Directions

This article is intended to be descriptive and recognizes the experimental nature of the various course iterations of the leadership-infused literature courses. Therefore our conclusions are limited to the pedagogical insights of two instructors determined to explore the integration of leadership into the traditional construct of the FL literature course. With this in mind, we respond to our initial research questions. Leadership studies can be integrated into advanced FL literature courses

with some pedagogical modifications. We cite an explicit approach that focuses on leadership in course planning, materials selection, and leadership as a theme and practice throughout the course. Without supplanting traditional practices in FL literature courses, systematic integration of leadership through writing and discussion can be added and are useful. We also found other related activities to contribute to leadership development in the classroom by giving practice in leadership, such as engagement with cultural scenarios, simulations/role-plays, capsules/situations/mini-dramas, and problem solving/critical incidents. However, because the focus of this paper is primarily the instructors' interpretations of student responses to the evolving course materials, we conclude that students in both military and civilian institutions benefitted from the leadership-infused approach.

In our experiences integrating leadership into literature courses in both German and Spanish, we found that to varying degrees of sophistication/nuance, students of foreign literature were able to identify and analyze: (1) leaders and leadership behaviors that can vary across cultures, (2) leadership and followership in foreign literature that offers culturally unique critical perspectives, (3) leader and follower status that can extend beyond the individual and belong to collective entities such at nation-states through metaphor and allegory. In addition, we found that approaching foreign literature with a leadership lens can broaden learner perspective and may help personalize the experience in the literature class (e.g. through role-play). We also saw some evidence of student reflection on how the study of foreign literature can increase knowledge of cultural/linguistic differences and how this can have an impact on leadership development.

While the reflective essays provided evidence of considerable success, the two joint discussion sessions involving students of both German and Spanish were not as successful. The intent was to experiment with targeting more global analysis of leadership across several cultures rather than a binary target language-native language approach, and the anonymous student feedback afterwards revealed that cadets were indeed enthusiastic about the idea of learning more about a third cultural sphere. Although students surveyed responded that the sessions were productive, our view as instructors was that the first joint session went smoothly, when the small groups were asked to generate universals of leadership across cultures. But the second day, when students were asked to introduce to their small groups examples of leadership from their own course materials and then discusses differences, was less successful. They seemed somewhat underprepared for the small group discussions and in the plenary discussion afterwards the remarks did not go far beyond platitudes and stereotypes. A third (and maybe fourth) joint session would have been helpful to work through and beyond the flat cultural stereotypes that came first to mind. It might also have been helpful to create a common set of a few short textual passages taken from the various sets of course materials, which all students would read prior to the joint sessions and which would serve as a springboard for discussion. Still, the joint discussions did represent a start to motivating broader, multi- and cross-cultural consideration of leadership and culture through foreign literature.

The students' heightened sense of the application of foreign literature to leadership, and vice versa, suggested that our pilot project in spring semester 2013 enhanced learning and reinforced USAFA's institutional goals (Long & Rasmussen,

2013). However, these observations were based on interactions with fewer than 50 total students at USAFA, where our experiment is to be considered a gateway to further investigation before more definitive conclusions can be drawn regarding the value of adding leadership to the traditional foreign literature course.

In the subsequent iteration with civilian students at UNC Charlotte (fall 2014), our discussion and conclusions are also limited to a singular pilot experience with just over 30 students. The researchers learned that establishing the leadership theme and a targeted skill with civilian students presented challenges. Perhaps the key challenge of implementing this model in a civilian context (versus a military one) is the background work that the instructor has to do to press the theme into the consciousness of students—or, to develop cognitive presence, that is, to have sustained critical communication that centered on leadership and literature. The fact that students discussed leadership and literature voluntarily in one form or fashion in roughly 1 out of 4 essays is an outcome that would suggest some level of impact of the implementation of the leadership theme in the literature class. Because leadership was identified to students as a skill in demand at the outset of the semester, overall civilian undergraduates were receptive to the idea of a value-added component in the literature course. Anecdotally students also expressed that they particularly enjoyed the approach with Don Quixote because they stated that it made the historical literary figure more relevant and comprehensible for daily life application. The UNC Charlotte students did request a wider variety of leaders and that more female leaders be studied when asked for suggestions for future iterations.

The UNC Charlotte research team recorded two other potential benefits to this approach to teaching foreign literature. First, the leadership theme helped focus students on an approach to reading to encourage close reading skills. Second, the leadership filter may have encouraged more original student essays because prepackaged leadership-literature essays are not available for inspiration or download online. The researchers recorded two things that we would do differently if offered the opportunity to do another course focused on leadership and literature with civilian students in particular: (1) explore a wider variety of readings (and genres) including more female leaders, and (2) locate one all-purpose brief common reading in the target language about leadership as general background near the beginning of the course to help level the playing field for civilian students to offer a foundational understanding of leadership studies.

Our diverse course iterations with the integration of leadership and foreign language literary studies at two different institutions suggest and reinforce the following:

(1) Setting matters (and students' background knowledge): at a military institution students already have a common vocabulary with which to discuss leadership, and do so frequently. Civilian students do so less frequently.

(2) When there is a ready vocabulary for leadership, the challenge is to move the students out of simply evaluating course materials from an established perspective, and instead to be open to developing a new cultural perspective on the basis of those materials (or seeing that the materials might suggest a new perspective).

(3) Whether military or civilian, literature is a uniquely valuable source for engaging with leadership, because it is not a checklist of leader qualities (on the basis of research studies or questionnaires) with a few case studies, but is at one and the same time both a source for "case studies" and also an exploration of what leadership is and means. This sometimes indicates there are ambiguities and dilemmas that arise in the thinking about leadership, and this is a positive exercise in critical thinking and in thinking multi-dimensionally and cross-culturally.

There are a variety of implications for future directions for research on the integration of leadership and literary and language studies. At USAFA there is potential for our approach to literary studies to help students engage more fully in the larger discussion of leadership at the institution and in the military. However, this must be weighed with the risk of losing the identity of the course as a foreign literature and culture course. Further investigation into how best to strike this balance is warranted. At a civilian university, too, there is potential for integrating leadership studies throughout the university experience. Leadership and literary studies show promise from a broad interdisciplinary perspective. The recent establishment of an ACTFL Special Interest Group on Critical and Social Justice Approaches in Language Education has been intended to reflect and further promote an already growing interest in critical pedagogies and language learning (S. M. Johnson, personal communication, July 9, 2016). One of the areas that could potentially incorporate leadership and responsibility is the area of social justice (Glynn, Wesely & Wassell, 2014). Critical and social justice approaches may be able to offer a curricular home to leadership studies within the study of languages and literatures. To do so, there would need to be attention given to the increasingly popular leader-to-leader model (Marquet, 2016) that insists that everyone (from their respective roles) should be practicing leadership. Future inquiries may be at the course/the curricular level. Insomuch as our project responded to the MLA directive (2007) on its tenth anniversary that called for a broadening of the traditional language and literature curriculum, our experimentation with leadership and literary studies is evidence of ongoing curricular challenges and evolution that we share with the profession.

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Acknowledgments

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Appendix 1: Day 1 Instructions

Task 1

To date, you have produced many thought-provoking reflective essays. In one essay, a cadet wrote the following statement that we would like you to consider individually and as a group:

> *"I do not believe leadership changes across cultures. Sure, some cultural factors may influence how they make their decisions, but the core of leadership remains the same. Leadership is the process of influencing others to act toward a common goal. That does not change whether you are American, Mexican, Russian, or Korean."*

Please read the statement aloud and once more silently. You may or may not agree with the statement. But for now, collaborate, discuss and define **unchanging universals** with regard to leadership across cultures. Elaborate on your list. The recorder will document the list (with definitions/comments) of universals across cultures that can be agreed upon by your group members. Title the list Leadership Universals. You have 7-10 minutes. If you have extra time, please take turns explaining to your group members whether you agree or disagree with the cadet's statement and explain.

Task 2

Exploring **factors of difference**. In your essays, some cadets suggested that leaders aren't really different (in foreign cultures), rather their circumstances are. Brainstorm for 7-10 minutes and name all of the factors of difference that come to mind (i.e., time period). First you will generate broad categories, next review them and break them down into more specific subcategories. Title the list Factors of Difference.

Task 3

Report the small group lists (and comments) orally to the large group (15 minutes).

Task 4 (If time allows)

For the remaining 5 minutes, you will be handed the prompt for Thursday. Read it aloud in your small groups.

Appendix 2

Student Feedback Form: Joint German-Spanish Discussion Sessions (Spring 2013)

1. The German-Spanish cross-cultural discussion sessions were a valuable learning experience.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

2. What were 2 learning 'take-aways' of most interest or importance to you (and why)?

3. I engaged myself and participated fully in the joint discussions.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

4. *Why* was your participation at the level it was?

5. I would recommend that DFF hold more joint sessions involving students who are studying different foreign languages.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

6. *Why* is that your recommendation?

7. If DFF were to hold such joint sessions in the future, what suggestions do you have for us in order to make the sessions valuable learning experiences:
   a. What we should keep the same, and why?
   b. What we should do differently, and why?

Designing L2 Reading Lab Courseware at the Intermediate Level

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Abstract

Despite increasing attention on literacy-based approaches to foreign language instruction (e.g. Allen & Dupuy, 2013; Barrette, Paesani, & Vinall, 2010; Byrnes, 2005; Kern, 2004; Magnan, Murphy, & Sahakyan, 2014) the communicative approach's emphasis on oral proficiency continues to shadow reading practices. Although research findings commonly report that extensive reading (pleasure reading) promotes L2 development (Al-Homoud & Schmitt, 2009; Day, 2015; Mason & Krashen, 1997), instructors have reported that they do not include these reading practices in the curriculum due to budgetary constraints on reading resources, lack of instructional time, and concern over the complex coordination of reading resources (Macalister, 2010). The purpose of this paper is to respond to instructor concerns by demonstrating the creation of a free courseware model—informed by research findings on extensive reading and intensive reading—for developing third-semester Spanish students' L2 reading skills and proficiency. This study reports on the process of designing a free courseware model (using Hot Potatoes) by: (1) estimating the amount of reading that students could complete in one semester within the time span of a three-credit course, 2) estimating the average length of the reading passages in the modules, and 3) estimating the number of reading-comprehension activity items associated with each passage. This process for infusing intentional L2 reading into the curriculum can be implemented across languages and instructional levels.

Key words: *Digital literacy, L2 reading, extensive reading, intensive reading.*

Background

Underdeveloped reading fluency and vocabulary are two of the reasons why students experience so much difficulty when they reach upper-division L2 courses, whose content and structure are articulated around literacy-based tasks (Barrette, Paesani, & Vinall, 2010; Kern 2004; Magnan, Murphy, & Sahakyan, 2014). By the time students begin to take upper-division content courses, they often have not had enough exposure to reading in order to automate the processing of vocabulary or to be able to read groups of words at once, which is a crucial process that facilitates reading comprehension (Hosenfeld, 1977). In a case study, Godev (2011) provides evidence that instructors may overestimate the vocabulary size of learners of Spanish enrolled in third-year courses of advanced conversation and composition. It is likely that overestimation, not only of learners' vocabulary size but also of other aspects of reading proficiency (e.g., ability to process morphological and syntactical elements, and general reading speed), may be affecting curricular decisions in upper-division

content courses to the detriment of learners. Instructors' overestimations of students' reading proficiency is also discussed by Vanderplank (2008), who points out the gap between the level of difficulty of what students are asked to read and their actual language proficiency.

In my personal experience, a student in third-semester-Spanish[1] once asked me how her reading proficiency level in Spanish compared to that of a native speaker in terms of school grade level. The type of information the student needed was not a proficiency description according to the ACTFL Guidelines. Rather, she was seeking a specific type of comparison that required more fine-grained performance assessment criteria. Her question prompted me to research the criteria that are used to assess school grade-level reading proficiency in the native language (L1). In order to assess school grade-level reading proficiency in the L1, researchers use tangible criteria that can be quantified, such as reading fluency, which is defined as a function of the speed of reading words correctly in terms of words per minute when reading aloud (Hudson, Lane, & Pullen, 2005). This measure is noteworthy when assessing L1 reading proficiency because it has been established that the speed of reading aloud correlates with levels of reading comprehension (Kim, Petscher, Schatschneider, & Foorman, 2010; Wise, et al., 2010). While second language (L2) reading research has not yet led to the fine-grained measuring that is commonplace in L1 reading assessment, there is some compelling evidence that suggests that the reading aloud rate in the L2 may be a predictor of reading comprehension level (Pretorius & Spaull, 2016).

In observing readers' fluency, L1 researchers (e.g. Grabe, 2004; Swaffar, Arens, & Byrnes, 1991) acknowledge that reading competence is in part a function of readers' fluency and also a function of the characteristics of the text that may render a given text more or less accessible (i.e., readable) to readers. Text readability levels depend on characteristics such as lexical density, number of words in a sentence, discourse organization, and topic and abstraction level in relation to the target reader's cognitive development (Kintsch & Vipond, 2014). Accordingly, text readability is a factor that also needs to be taken into account in L2 reading.

After a number of ad-hoc experiments with third-semester L2 Spanish students, I estimated the average reading fluency to be somewhere between that of a L1 third- and fourth-grader, as their oral reading rate was approximately 95-102 words per minute. This finding, coupled with the need for some curricular initiatives undertaken by the Department of Languages and Culture Studies at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte, led to the idea of creating a courseware to develop Spanish reading proficiency for students who had previously completed two semesters of Spanish. The courseware was to be used in a 100% online course (see syllabus in Appendix A).

The aim of the present article is threefold: 1) To describe the characteristics of a third-semester Spanish reading lab courseware that was created as a stand-alone collection of forty (40) reading modules, each including a 300-400-word reading passage, a multiple-choice task, a fill-in-the-blanks task, and a crossword; 2) to provide insight on the decisions that shaped the final courseware content; and 3) to bring attention to L2 professionals that instructional technology now makes it possible to create a reading lab component, thus extending the classroom by creating the long overdue counterpart of the listening lab.

Literature Review

  There is substantive evidence in the literature about the positive effects of L2 extensive reading (ER)—reading for pleasure or for information when those purposes are driven by the readers themselves (Al-Homoud & Schmitt, 2009; Day, 2015; Mason & Krashen, 1997) as opposed to a syllabus. ER reading is characterized by large amounts of reading and has been shown to yield a variety of positive effects on measures of attitude towards reading in L2 and fluency (Mathewson, 1994). Yamashita (2013), building on the work by Day and Bamford (2002) and Mathewson (1994), tested the effect of ER on four attitude variables—feelings of comfort, anxiety, perception of intellectual value, and perception of practical value. The results from comparing the pre-test and post-test on these measures showed positive results on all measures except for perception of practical value. These results notwithstanding, Yamashita cautioned that her results need to be interpreted in light of the limitations arising from the small population sample. She also remarked that ER needs to be carefully balanced with intensive reading (IR), that is, close reading aimed at directing attention to linguistic features of the text, depending on the particular circumstances of the learning environment, and learners' language proficiency as well as learning style. Other research findings (Al-Homoud & Schmitt, 2009) have revealed ER to be more effective to develop fluency. In a ten-week study, Al-Homoud and Schmitt (2009) randomly assigned students to either the ER group or the IR group. The ER group outperformed the IR group on fluency, measured in number of words per minute while reading three different passages silently. Day (2015) pointed out the need to adapt ER according to the specific circumstances of each program. Accordingly, he revised the ten ER principles articulated by Day and Bamford (2002) to acknowledge that ER does not have to be an all-or-nothing reading pedagogy, as different implementations may suit different programs. In this vein, he stated that for certain programs or purposes a blend of ER and IR may be more beneficial for learners than either ER or IR alone. The state of affairs regarding the status of ER at US institutions of higher education appears similar to what Macalister (2010) described regarding New Zealand's universities, that the implementation of ER in the instruction of English as L2 remains rare. Macalister surveyed university instructors in New Zealand to find out about instructors' attitudes towards ER. His surveys revealed that, while instructors perceive ER as beneficial for L2 development, its implementation is regarded as difficult because it requires a bigger budget for reading resources, more instructional time, and a complex coordination of reading resources, which also involves more time on the part of the instructors. Some instructors also regard ER as a type of activity that is difficult to assess, and some fear that allocating in-class time to silent reading, one of the hallmarks of ER, may be perceived negatively by students and administrators because teaching and learning are not clearly or measurably mediated by the teacher.

  As in New Zealand, L2 language programs at US institutions of higher education commonly approach reading instruction within the framework of IR. Nation (2001) and Cobb (2007, 2008) point out the benefits that learners may derive from having their attention directed to textual features, whether vocabulary, syntax or discourse organization, which is the type of close reading that characterizes IR. Wil-

liams (1986) remarked that effectiveness of an IR course depends on reading tasks that "approximate to cognitive reality" (Williams, 1986, p. 44) when a text is used as a linguistic object. In other words, when the purpose of an activity is linguistic analysis as opposed to only general reading comprehension, the activity that guides the analysis has to be designed in accordance with how cognitive structures operate. He articulated this and other principles with English as a Second Language in mind, but they may be extended to teaching reading in Spanish as a foreign language as well.

The present work seeks to contribute to the findings from ER and IR research and to inform the current turn in the profession to literacy-based approaches to foreign language instruction (Allen & Dupuy, 2013; Barrette, Paesani, & Vinall, 2010; Byrnes, 2005; Kern, 2004; Magnan, Murphy, & Sahakyan, 2014). There is a need to address the concerns and constraints instructors have reported about the inclusion of L2 readings into the foreign language. The purpose of this study was to explore the inclusion of systematic reading into the FL curriculum by: 1) Estimating the amount of reading that students could complete in one semester within the time span of a three-credit course; 2) estimating the average length of the reading passages in the modules; and 3) estimating the number of reading-comprehension activity items associated with each passage. The additional variables considered in the creation of the courseware were qualitative considerations, such as: 1) Type of text genre, 2) text topics, 3) type of comprehension elicited by the reading-comprehension questions, and 4) language of the multiple-choice question prompts.

Methodology

In the fall of 2010, the University of North Carolina at Charlotte decided to move forward with offering a distance learning reading course for third-semester Spanish. The creation of this course ultimately resulted in the development of the courseware that made it possible to offer the course online in an asynchronous format. This study reports on the processes involved in creating a distance learning program for a third-semester Spanish course intended to promote L2 proficiency with intensive readings. This course is currently offered as an elective.

The criteria adopted to select the authoring software and to determine the number of modules are detailed below in Part I, under the section *Procedures and Materials*. Under the same section, in Part II, are the details on how the courseware content was created. The data described below come from three sources: 1) Eight undergraduate students who volunteered to complete a partial reading module in spring 2012 after they had completed their second-semester Spanish course; 2) a midterm survey administered in a pilot course, enrolling 25 students, that was offered in summer 2012; and 3) end-of-semester student evaluations from fall 2012 to date.

Participants

The creation of the courseware content involved the participation of a team of four colleagues and the assistance of five graduate students. The team of four colleagues assisted the researcher with editing the readings that were adapted by the researcher as well as editing the reading activities that were authored by the researcher. The graduate students assisted with testing the performance of the activities in the courseware.

In the spring of 2012, after the completion of a second-semester face-to-face Spanish course, eight students[2] of varying abilities volunteered to participate in the online completion of both a reading passage and two reading comprehension inter-active tasks (see Appendix B) in an attempt to establish a baseline for estimating the average time it would take to complete a reading module. Two of the students had received a grade of A, two had received a grade of B, two a grade of C, and two a grade of D. The students were aged 20-24. Five of them were female and three were male. Their grades were assumed to represent different populations with regards to levels of general language achievement in the course. This information was used to design a course that went live in the fall of 2012.

In summer 2012, the courseware was piloted in a class that enrolled 25 students. These students were surveyed mid-semester to assess student satisfaction with the course (See Appendix C).

Procedures and Materials

PART 1: Determining the Authoring Software and the Number of Modules

Software

One key element in the process of designing the courseware was to identify the type of software that would offer the features necessary to display reading passages with texts flagged in different ways to show mouse rollover glosses and to display different activity formats, such as multiple-choice questions, cloze texts, and cross-words. The capability of providing automated feedback was also a desirable feature as well as the capability of automatically populating assignment scores into the Moodle online gradebook. Therefore, Hot Potatoes, a cost-free authoring software suite, met the needs of the courseware that was ultimately designed.

Estimating time on task

The eight initial volunteer students completed the reading of a 289-word passage, a 23-question multiple-choice task, and a fill-in-the-blanks task where the reading passage showed 18 blanks and a word bank (see Appendix B). The researcher noted the amount of time they took to complete the tasks and the times logged were used as baseline information in order to estimate the average amount of time students would be expected to allocate to the completion of a reading module (which includes a 300-400-word reading passage, a multiple-choice task with 25-35 questions, a fill-in-the-blanks task with some 15 items, and a crossword with some 15 items). Table 1 shows the time in minutes that students spent in completing the reading and both the multiple-choice (23 items) and cloze (18 items) tasks. The average time on each item was calculated by dividing the time on task by the number of items, that is, 41 items.

Table 1

Time-on-task estimates. Completion of reading and two tasks

Students*	Time on Task (minutes)	Average Time on Each Item (minutes)
A1	40	1
A2	48	1.17
B1	61	1.48
B2	59	1.43
C1	60	1.46
C2	58	1.41
D1	75	1.82
D2	93	2.26
Average	62	1.5

* The letters stand for the letter grade students received in second-semester first-year Spanish. Numbers 1 and 2 next to the letters stand for student 1 and student 2.

None of the students achieved a perfect score when completing the two tasks. Therefore, it was estimated that in a real situation students would have to spend an additional 15-30 minutes, or 20-40% of the total time of the first attempt, if they wanted to repeat the activities to improve their score. This estimate was based on the average time of 1.5 minutes (see Table 1) that participants took to complete an item and the number of items that needed re-doing. Completing either a multiple-choice or cloze item took an average of 1.5 minutes, which was calculated by averaging the time each participant spent on each item as a function of the number of minutes each took to complete the reading as well as both tasks divided by 41 items. These 41 items are the combined total of 23 multiple-choice items and 18 cloze items. The group missed an average of 8 items, or 20% of the 41 items. It was estimated that re-doing these 8 items would take 12 minutes at 1.5 minutes per item. Because there is variability across students and how they may interact with different materials in the courseware, the additional time of 12 minutes was used as a baseline to overestimate in favor of the students who may need more time and therefore that additional time was established at 15-30 minutes.

Table 2

Estimating time to re-do items

Students	Number of Items Needing Re-doing	Projected Time on Re-doing Items (minutes)
A1	4	6
A2	7	10.5
B1	5	7.5

B2	8	12
C1	8	12
C2	9	13.5
D1	11	16.5
D2	12	18.7
Average	8	12*

* This figure was used as a baseline for the estimate of 15-30 minutes to re-do items.

By averaging the time on task measurements shown on Table 1, adding ten minutes for students to complete the additional crossword task that was not included in the original estimation, and adding an additional fifteen minutes in consideration of student efforts to re-do some activities to improve their score, it was estimated that students would need approximately 86 minutes to complete each module (the reading passage, multiple-choice task, cloze task, and crossword task). In a real course, it was reasoned, students would have to review and study the work they complete every week in order to prepare for the quizzes and final exam. This estimated study time would add about one hour per module (reading plus the three tasks—multiple-choice, fill-in-the-blanks, and crossword). The final calculation of the amount of time that students would spend working on each module was estimated at 147 minutes, that is, about two and a half hours. The estimates described here are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3

Average time on task per module

Estimated Item	Time on Task per Module (minutes)
Reading plus two tasks	62
Crossword task	10
Repeating to improve score	15
Studying for quizzes	60
Total	147

PART II: Defining the characteristics of the modules

Based on the aforementioned findings of the study we proceeded to create 40 modules. Each module comprises four elements: (1) 300-400-words reading passage, (2) a multiple-choice task that includes some 25-35 questions about the reading passage, (3) one fill-in-the-blanks task that focuses students' attention on approximately fifteen (15) expressions from the reading passage, and (4) a crossword task that draws students' attention to another set of some fifteen (15) expressions from the reading passage. Students complete the 40 modules at a pace of three modules per week. The reading passages were modified to simplify some of the vocabulary and syntax and to enhance the discourse structure. Mouse rollover glosses with English translations were included for a selection of lexical items within each reading passage (see Ap-

pendix B). The reading passages were accompanied by read-aloud files that were generated by the voice-recognition software Speak Aloud. The titles of the modules as well as the weeks of the semester associated with them are shown in Appendix A.

The topics of the modules relate to fields of liberal arts and science, namely, anthropology/archeology, biology, political science, philosophy, chemistry, communications, Africana studies, religious studies, criminal justice, psychology, history, and sociology (see the course syllabus in Appendix A). The genre of the readings, focused mainly on academic prose about general information, was intended to facilitate learners' reading comprehension due to the high frequency of cognates to reduce student inferencing, which is a cognitively demanding process (Bengeleil & Paribakht, 2004; Bialystok, 1981).

The three tasks associated with each module were designed to elicit a variety of levels of comprehension and to emulate the repetitive and circular nature of reader-text interaction as it occurs in real life reading events (Irwin, 1991). The activities are structured so that learners focus on global comprehension, comprehension of word endings, vocabulary, relationship among words, and experience vocabulary development by connecting vocabulary from the text to lexical items outside the text. English was also used in instructions and question stems in order to ensure that the language of the instructions would not become an obstacle for students to complete the tasks. The students can see the reading passage while completing the tasks.

The total number of running words that make up the collection of forty readings is 12,600. Out of the total number of running words, some 2,500 words are different words. This calculation was made with the aid of a software program called Textalyzer. The program recognizes as a word any sequence of characters bound by a space at the beginning and at the end of the sequence of characters. The program processes words from the same family as different words. For instance, *escuela* and its plural form *escuelas* are processed by the program as two different words. The collection of readings has a desirably low lexical density of 20%, as the lower the lexical density of a text the easier it is to read (Kemper, Jackson, Cheung, & Anagnopoulos, 1993). Therefore, as far as lexical density is concerned, the texts pose a manageable challenge for third-semester Spanish readers. Out of the body of 2,500 different words, 525 (21%) come from Latin roots that are also present in English and they are semantically similar to their Spanish counterparts, that is, they are cognates. This is an advantage for student populations whose L1 is English, which is the case more often than not at the institution where the reading courseware was created. The vocabulary in the collection of texts also meets the objective of being representative of the 5,000 most frequently used words in the language (Davis, 2006), which are believed to be necessary for L2 readers to be functional (Nation, 2001).

The length of the sentences, which averages 23 words per sentence, falls out of the range of 15-20 words that is recommended for English non-specialized texts targeting native-speaker readers of English (Cutts, 2013). However, Spanish is usually wordier than English because of its syntactic characteristics (Cantos & Sánchez, 2011). Expressing an idea in a Spanish sentence may take on average five more words than in English. Therefore a 23-word sentence in Spanish is considered appropriate for a text addressed to a general audience. Table 4 summarizes the aforementioned quantitative descriptions of the texts in the courseware.

Table 4

Quantitative characteristics of the reading corpus

Estimated Item	Quantity
Number of words	12,600
Number of different words	2,500
Lexical density	20%
Cognates	525
Non-cognates that are highly frequent	820
Words that need effort to learn	1,155
Words in a sentence	23

The creation of this course relied on both objective measures and pedagogical intuition stemming from having taught a face-to-face third-semester reading course for a number of years. While appealing to intuition may seem lacking in methodological rigor, expertise is a complex cognitive construct recognized by psychologists as resulting from learning by observation or other means (Chi, 2011; Ericsson, Charness, Feltovich, & Hoffman, 2006; Hogarth, 2001).

The Role of the Instructor

The instructor's role in this course, which enrolls 150 students per section[3], is that of a coach to the students and advisor to the courseware author team so the team may make improvements as needed. As a coach, the instructor has to answer questions promptly, monitor students' weekly performance and make personal contact with both students who need a nudge and those who deserve to be praised about their progress so they continue to keep up their good performance. The reiterated deadline reminders that instructors post to the class forum are key to the students' successful time management. Since the Moodle online grade book gets automatically populated with grades as students submit their assignments, instructors' interaction with the grade book is limited to observing students' progress, and calculating and reporting midterm and final course grades. The automation of grading is the feature of the course that makes it possible for an instructor to attend to the instructional demands of having up to 150 students enrolled in one section.

Students' Perceptions of the Course

The students who participated in the pilot course of summer 2012 were surveyed mid-semester. The results of this survey (Appendix C) show high levels of satisfaction about the quality of instruction and the perception that the instructional material, that is, the courseware, was useful to understand grammar and learn vocabulary. Subsequent student evaluations have been consistently positive since. On average, 90-95% of the students rate the course as excellent, good, or fair. Students' perception, as reported in comments, is that they have a tangible feeling of having improved their Spanish skills. Some students have also reported gaining confidence in their ability to continue to work on their other language skills and have success-

fully continued with subsequent Spanish courses after completing the third-semester reading course.

Discussion

Reading in a second language at the third-semester level is more complex than often assumed. Students at this level still have a limited target-language vocabulary, which greatly impairs their reading comprehension (Laufer, 1997; Qian, 2002). However, carefully crafted reading materials can facilitate the reading process as well as vocabulary acquisition (Grabe, 2004; Huang & Liou, 2007; Jiang & Kuehn, 2001; Upton & Lee-Thompson, 2001)**.** The courseware that was created as a stand-alone collection of 40 modules to deliver a third-semester Spanish for reading course was designed taking into account what is already known about L2 reading to date as well as the lexical and writing systems that English and Spanish share. Although English and Spanish belong to different language families, Germanic and Romance respectively, the two languages use the same alphabet and have a shared corpus of approximately 14,000 words with similar spelling and meaning in both languages (Thomas, Nash, Thomas, & Richmond, 2006). These shared characteristics can work to the advantage of the L2 reader.

The courseware was designed with the goal of giving students repeated opportunities to encounter vocabulary items and structures, as re-encountering vocabulary items and structures repeatedly enhances the reading process (Kuhn, 2005). For example, Appendix B shows three ways in which students' attention is directed to the expression "campo de estudio." Students first encounter this expression with the mouse rollover gloss in the reading passage. They then have to process the same expression a second time in multiple-choice item #1. Finally, they see the expression for the third time in the cloze activity.

As can be observed in the syllabus (Appendix A), the course has a strong tie to the following *World-readiness Standards* as defined by the National Standards Collaborative Board (2015): The *Interpretive Communication* standard, which is defined as "Learners understand, interpret, and analyze what is heard, read, or viewed on a variety of topics." The work of the students is 100% focused on reading. It also integrates the *Making Connections* standard, which is defined as "Learners build, reinforce, and expand their knowledge of other disciplines while using the language to develop critical thinking and to solve problems creatively." All the reading material deals with topics that students study within the fields of liberal arts and sciences. The course has a strong tie to the *Language Comparisons* standard, which is defined as "Learners use the language to investigate, explain, and reflect on the nature of language through comparisons of the language studied and their own." The online activities provide many opportunities for students to reflect on patterns such as how in English and Spanish a suffix is used to form adverbs. For instance, "-ly" is added to "certain" to form the adverb "certainly" in English. Likewise, "-mente" is added to the feminine form of "cierto" to form the adverb "ciertamente" in Spanish. Lastly, the positive student feedback since the course was first taught in fall 2012 offers a perspective of the course that is worth considering, especially in light of the fact that this course is an elective course with consistent high enrollment.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The design of the courseware model presented here focuses mainly on the te-nets of intensive reading. However, because the courseware design was not informed by measures of learning gains, it remains to be determined to what extent the courseware may promote reading fluency. Furthermore, additional investigation is needed to compare how reading fluency levels resulting from completing the course compare to gains occurring under extensive reading conditions such as those reported by Al-Homoud and Schmitt (2009). Furthermore, in addition to reading fluency, it also remains to be determined how learning gains in areas such as vocabulary or general reading comprehension compare when students complete the course described here as opposed to when they complete the course in a face-to-face environment.

Concluding Comments

As the demand for online instruction increases, so will the need for the cre-ation of courseware that meets L2 instructional goals (Allen & Dupuy, 2013; Barrette, Paesani, & Vinall, 2010; Byrnes, 2005; Kern, 2004; Magnan, Murphy, & Sahakyan, 2014). L2 reading instruction in Spanish as well as in other foreign languages lags behind English as L2 (E/L2), as reading courses are systematically integrated in E/L2 programs taught inside and outside English-speaking geographical areas. Read-ing courseware provides an option to address reading instruction systematically as stand-alone material for self-paced online courses or as a supplement to hybrid, also called *blended*, courses. Such courseware will give learners the advantage of engaging in reading and gaining awareness of textual linguistic features, which may have an overall positive impact on other language skills.

Even in the best of circumstances, where instructors are knowledgeable of reading processes as well as the pedagogy that may guide students to engage those processes, time constraints are often a hindrance to the implementation of reading instruction in courses that have to cover grammar, the three other skills, and culture. The consequence of having to compartmentalize time is that the time on task allo-cated to reading is often insufficient to develop reading skills. Courseware may assist instructional and learning goals by motivating students to stay on task when they have to work independently, for instance, when they have to complete homework.

Time on task is one of the challenges of learning a language in input-poor envi-ronments, that is, outside the geographical areas where the target language is the vehicle of communication. As previously mentioned, the attention given to the development of listening comprehension in the L2 has yet to be replicated in its counterpart receptive skill, reading. Surely technological advances can do for L2 reading development what audiocassette tapes did for the development of L2 listening skills in the past. Then, when digitalization of listening material replaced analog audio, L2 listening pedago-gy continued to move forward while reading continued lagging behind, even though reading pedagogy could have benefited as well. The opportunities that digitalization of-fers can now make it possible to bring the integration of reading instruction at the same level of listening instruction. The reading courseware presented here can help make it possible for instructors to integrate the notion of a "reading lab" into the dynamics of instruction as it has been done with the "listening lab" since the audio cassette tape era.

Upper-division L2 courses are usually organized around literacy-based tasks, which require significant levels of reading fluency and vocabulary development. In order to be able to read academic texts with the level of comfort that allows learners to extract meaning and learn information, students need to know about 95% of the vocabulary in the text, with less than one unknown word or expression for every twenty words (Nation, 2001). For fiction texts, Hsueh-Chao and Nation (2000) found that the English vocabulary needed to achieve adequate comprehension is around 98%. To achieve this vocabulary coverage learners have to command a vocabulary size of some 4000 word families for academic texts and probably higher for reading fiction (Davis, 2005; Nation, 2001).

In order to provide a learning environment that facilitates vocabulary acquisition and reading skills development to prepare students for the literacy-dependent tasks of upper-division courses, researchers and instructors may find it useful to implement some form of a "reading lab." As a pedagogical component, creating interactive-rich reading lab courseware is now within the reach of instructors and it could be integrated in a L2 program as early as the first year, thereby extending the exposure to the language and offering development opportunities of a skill that has been difficult to integrate in language programs to date.

Endnotes

[1] One semester of foreign language in college in the US is often considered equivalent to one year in US high schools.

[2] The eight students completed their second-semester Spanish course with an instructor who was not involved in the research project discussed here. First- and second-semester Spanish fulfill a foreign language requirement for students who have not studied three years of a foreign language in high school.

[3] One section of this course is offered per semester.

[4] The translation of the reading is included here for the reader's convenience. This translation is not part of the module.

Acknowledgements

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Appendix A

UNC Charlotte
SPAN 2200: Spanish for Reading
SPRING 2014 SYLLABUS

Instructor: _____
Office Hours (**face to face**): T & R 11:00 am-12:00 pm, 05:45 pm-06:45 pm, and by appt.
Virtual Office Hours Via Skype also available by appointment
E-mail: _____

1) <u>COMMUNICATION</u>

1.1. Any questions regarding the contents of the class need to be posted in the Moodle forum.
Your instructor will respond to forum messages within 48 hours on **Monday** through **Friday**
between **9:00am** and **5:00pm**.
1.2. Email communication needs to be used only for consultations regarding personal matters.
Your instructor will respond to emails within 48 hours on **Monday** through **Friday** between
9:00am and **5:00pm**.

2) <u>REQUIRED MATERIALS</u>

2.1. Bilingual Dictionary
2.2. Web Browser
2.3. Reliable Internet Connection

3) <u>PREREQUISITE</u>

Prerequisite: SPAN 1202 or equivalent. This class is recommended for students whose major
requires a foreign language course at the 2000-level. Please verify language requirement with
your major department. This class does not fulfill any Spanish major or minor requirement.

4) <u>OBJECTIVES</u>

4.1. Expand your Spanish vocabulary.
4.2. Recognize language structure patterns.
4.3. Learn how to use a bilingual dictionary.
4.4. Become aware of reading strategies that can compensate for shortcomings of your Spanish
knowledge.
4.5. Become a more fluent reader of Spanish texts about liberal arts topics.

5) <u>ONLINE READINGS AND ACTIVITIES</u>

The online readings and activities need to be accessed directly from the Moodle course. They
need to be completed gradually throughout the week when the work is due. You **can make as
many attempts as you'd like within the week when the assignment needs to be
completed. Only your highest score will be factored in your course grade**. The thorough
and gradual completion of this work is essential to ensure good performance in the timed online

quizzes and final exam. Work completed past the due date/time will not be accepted. All readings and activities will continue to be available only for review past the due date/time.

6) EXAM / QUIZZES

There will be 4 online quizzes, plus a final exam. The material included in exams and quizzes will come from the online readings and their corresponding online activities. The online quizzes are timed and they are designed assuming that the students have completed the online readings and activities thoroughly. The quizzes and final exam need to be completed without the aid of dictionaries or any other materials outside of the quiz itself. The online quizzes and final exam need to be accessed from the Moodle course.

7) FINAL EXAM

The final exam will include a selection of the online activities completed throughout the semester. 40% of the questions will be related to the last eight readings of the semester and 60% of the questions will be related to the rest of the material covered throughout the semester.

8) GRADING SCALE	9) GRADING SYSTEM
A 90-100	Online Activities 45%
B 80-89	Online Quizzes 25%
C 70-79	Online Final Exam 30%
D 60-69	

10) HONOR CODE

[PLACEHOLDER FOR DEPARTMENT NAME] complies with the [PLACEHODER FOR UNIVERSITY NAME] Code of Student Academic Integrity. It is your responsibility to know and observe the requirements of this code. Please refer to the full code: [PLACEHOLDER FOR URL]

11) DISABILITY SERVICES

Students with documented disabilities who require accommodations in this class should access services as soon as possible through [PLACEHOLDER FOR UNIVERSITY NAME] Office of Disability Services in [PLACEHOLDER LOCATION], web page [PLACEHOLDER FOR URL]

12) USEFUL WEB SITES

Moodle Technical Support: [PLACEHOLDER FOR URL]

<u>**FREQUENTLY ASKED QUESTIONS**</u>

1. How much time do I need allocate to this class?
Completing the work for this course will require an average of six (6) to nine (9) hours per week throughout the term. This is equivalent to the time that needs to be allocated to a face-to-face class in a regular semester.

2. How much reading do I need to do each week?
Each week you will read 3 excerpts of some 300 words each. Therefore, every week you will read some 900 words.

3. Do I need to write in Spanish?
YES, at the word level.

4. Do I need to speak Spanish?
NO

5. Do I need to have listening comprehension skills?
NO

6. Do I need to know grammar?
YES. Understanding the information contained in word endings and in the word order is a must in order to comprehend a written text.

7. Do I need to know how to sound out a reading passage?
YES. Reading fluency is connected to being able to sound out phrases silently and out loud.

8. How can I learn to sound out a reading passage?
Listening to the sound files.

9. What will tests and quizzes be like?
The quizzes and final exam will be made up of a selection of the online exercises assigned weekly.

10. What will be the format of the daily assignments?
They will include: 1) multiple-choice, 2) true/false, 3) word-level fill in the blanks, and 4. crosswords.

11. Will we have pop quizzes?
NO

12. What kind of text genre will be emphasized?
The emphasis will be on expository texts on topics regarding general science, arts and humanities.

13. What will I get out of this class?
YOU WILL: 1. expand your Spanish vocabulary, 2. learn how to use a bilingual dictionary, 3. become aware of reading strategies that can compensate for shortcomings of your Spanish knowledge, and 4. become a more fluent reader of Spanish.

14. How many words will I read in this course?
The word count of all the readings combined amounts to about 12,600 words. If you were a fluent reader of Spanish, this number of words would amount to one hour of reading (NOTE: A fluent reader is able to read non-technical texts at an average of 200-250 words per minute).

15. How long will it take me to complete each reading along with the corresponding activities?
It may take you some two (2) or three (3) hours. Since you have to complete 40 readings and their corresponding activities, you will be engaged in reading and reading-related activities for a total of some 80 to 126 hours depending on your current reading competence.

16. How does this course compare to a similar face-to-face course in terms of time dedication?
The estimated time to complete this course successfully is exactly the same as for a face-to-face course. A student in a face-to- face course is expected to attend 42 hours of classes and to allocate 84 hours to homework. The combination of class instruction time and homework time amounts to 126 hours per class per semester.

CALENDAR OF THE MATERIAL, QUIZZES, FINAL EXAM, AND DEADLINES

NOTE FOR READERS
The **English translations next to each of the Spanish titles below have been added for the reader's convenience**. Those translations do not appear in the syllabus that the students receive.

Week #1. January 8-10

Introducción a la antropología *(Introduction to Anthropology)*
Introducción a la arqueología *(Introduction to Archeology)*

Week #2. January 13- 17
NOTE: The **last day to drop/add** is Friday**, January 17**

Biografía de Hiram Bingham *(Biography of Hiram Bingham)*
La arqueología y la cultura *(Archeology and Culture)*
¿Qué es la biología? *(What is Biology?)*

Week #3. January 20-24

El genoma humano *(Human Genome)*
Las termitas y su poder energético *(Termites and Their Energetic Power)*
El descubrimiento de la célula *(The Discovery of the Cell)*

Week #4. January 27-31

¿Qué es la ciencia política? *(What Is Political Science?)*
La evolución de las normas internacionales de los derechos humanos *(The Evolution of Human Rights International Regulations)*
QUIZ #1 ON January 31 (ANY TIME between 01:00AM-11:00PM)

Week #5. February 3-7

La libertad de información *(Information Freedom)*
Nicolás Maquiavelo *(Niccolo Machiavelli)*
¿Qué es la filosofía? *(What Is Philosophy?)*

Week #6. February 10-14

Leviatán *(The Leviathan)*
"Yo soy yo y mi circunstancia" *("I Am I and My Circumstances")*
Jacques Derrida *(Jacques Derrida)*

Week #7. February 17 - 21

Seis cosas que quizá no sepa sobre la aspirina *(Six Things that Perhaps You May not Know about Aspirin)*
¡Camarero, hay acrilamida en mi plato! *(Waiter, There Is Acrylamide on My Plate!)*
QUIZ #2 ON February 21 (ANY TIME between 01:00AM-11:00PM)

Week #8. February 24-28

La química y la cocina *(Chemistry and Cooking)*
El vinagre y sus usos *(Vinegar and What It Is Used for)*
¿Qué estudian las ciencias de la comunicación? *(What Do Communication Science Study?)*

Week #9. March 10-14

El lado humano de internet *(The Human Side to the Internet)*
Globalización y comunicación *(Globalization and Communication)*
Harold Dwight Lasswell *(Harold Dwight Lasswell)*

Week #10. March 17-21

¿Qué son los estudios africanos? *(What Is African Studies?)*
Migración africana *(African Migration)*
QUIZ #3 ON March 21 (ANY TIME between 01:00AM-11:00PM)

Week #11. March 24 - 28
NOTE: The **last day to withdraw with a grade of W** is Wednesday**, March 26**

España y África, cada vez más cerca *(Spain and Africa, Closer and Closer)*
Religiones africanas en las Américas *(African Religions in the American Continent)*
¿Qué es la criminología? *(What Is Criminology?)*

Week #12. March 31-April 4

Psicología y criminalidad *(Psychology and Crime)*
Técnicas para establecer la identidad *(Techniques to Establish a Person's Identity)*
La tierra de los convictos *(The Land of Convicts)*

Week #13. April 7-11

La leyenda de El Dorado *(El Dorado Legend)*
200 años de democracia *(200 Years of Democracy)*
QUIZ #4 ON April 11 (ANY TIME between 01:00AM-11:00PM)

Week #14. April 14-18

La Constitución de los Estados Unidos *(The Constitution of the United States)*
Eleanor Roosevelt, la Primera Dama del Mundo *(Eleanor Roosevelt, the First Lady of the World)*
¿Qué es la sociología? *(What Is Sociology?)*

Week #15. April 21-25

La asimilación cultural *(Cultural Assimilation)*
Las redes sociales *(Social Media)*
Maximilian Carl Emil Weber *(Maximilian Carl Emil Weber)*
FINAL EXAM ON MAY 9 (ANY TIME between 01:00AM-11:00PM)

Appendix B

Reading and Reading Tasks Instrument for Estimating Time on Task

[NOTE 1: The text is flagged with numbers within square brackets. These numbers are used in the reading comprehension questions to direct the reader's attention to specific ideas within the text. The material shown in this appendix was presented to the students in interactive online format.]

[NOTE 2: The English translation of the reading is at the end of this appendix.]

¿Qué es la criminología?

[1] La criminología es un <u>campo</u> de estudio <u>interdisciplinario</u> <u>ya que</u> los temas que estudia pueden ser parte de los temas que estudia la sociología, la antropología, el <u>derecho</u> o la psicología. **[2]** En 1885, Rafael Garofalo, profesor italiano de derecho, <u>estableció</u> el uso del término "criminología", que <u>posteriormente</u> fue popularizado por el <u>antropólogo</u> francés Paul Topinard.

[3] El objeto del estudio de la criminología <u>se centra en</u> cuatro elementos: el crimen o delito, el delincuente o criminal, la víctima y el control social. **[4]** La palabra "<u>delito</u>" deriva del verbo latino "delinquere", que <u>significa</u> abandonar, <u>apartarse del</u> buen camino, <u>alejarse</u> <u>del sendero</u> <u>señalado</u> por la ley.

[5] Existen tres tipos de criminología: científica, <u>aplicada</u>, y analítica. **[6]** La criminología científica estudia los conceptos, teorías y métodos que se utilizan en la investigación del crimen. **[7]** La criminología aplicada estudia los resultados de la criminología científica <u>con el propósito de</u> revisar la formulación de las leyes vigentes y las regulaciones de <u>los centros penitenciarios</u>. **[8]** La criminología analítica estudia los métodos, teorías y prácticas de la criminología con el propósito de determinar su <u>validez</u>. **[9]** El <u>predominio</u> de un tipo <u>u</u> otro en cada país depende de una variedad de circunstancias. **[10]** El desarrollo de la criminología se relaciona con el desarrollo socioeconómico y el <u>régimen</u> político de un país. **[11]** La criminología raramente <u>florece</u> en países con regímenes políticos <u>antidemocrático</u> o inestables.

[12] La criminología, como ciencia, <u>debe</u> utilizar el método científico. **[13]** Los métodos que se utilizan están <u>clasificados</u> en dos grupos, métodos sociológicos y métodos antropológicos. **[14]** Entre los métodos sociológicos se encuentran la <u>encuesta</u> y el <u>estudio de caso</u>. **[15]** Entre los métodos antropológicos se encuentra la <u>biometría</u>, que trata de encontrar las causas biológicas y psicológicas que se asocian con el crimen.

[Source: Adapted from Servicio de Documentación SECCIF (2008) Clases y funciones de la criminología. Quadernos de criminología 0: 23-30 and http://es.wikipedia.org/wiki/Criminolog%C3%ADa]

1. In idea [1], the phrase "un campo de estudio" means
    1. a field of study
    2. a study camp
    3. the study of camping
2. Scan ideas [1] and [2]. How many words feature the ending "-ología"?
    1. 3

    2.   4
    3.   5

3. Idea [1] implies that an interdisciplinary field of study can relate to other fields of study at the same time.
    1.   true
    2.   false

4. Observe the use of the word "temas" in idea [1]. Which of the following words can be paired with temas?
    1.   el
    2.   las
    3.   los

5. Which of the following most resembles the use of the word "los" in the phrase "los temas" that appears in idea [1]?
    1.   los calcetines
    2.   los problemas
    3.   los juegos

6. Idea [1] supports the notion that criminology and sociology are concerned with completely different themes?
    1.   true
    2.   false

7. Look up the word "posteriormente" in idea [2]. This word means?
    1.   earlier
    2.   later
    3.   posthumous

8. Based on idea [2], Rafael Garofalo was a professor of
    1.   law
    2.   criminology
    3.   anthropology

9. Idea [2] states that Rafael Garofalo
    1.   established anthropology
    2.   established the term criminology
    3.   was more popular than Paul Topinard

10. Idea [3] states that the study of criminology is centered on _____.
    1.   socializing
    2.   social control
    3.   society

11. Idea [4] states that the term "delito" comes from
    1.   abandonar
    2.   delinquere
    3.   apartarse

12. These two words in idea [4] are synonyms.
    1.   palabra, delito
    2.   camino, sendero
    3.   delito, latino

13. In idea [7], "centros penitenciarios" means.
    1.   juvenile detention center

    2.   prison
    3.   community center

14. Idea [8] states that analytical criminology studies the methods, theories, and practices of criminology in order to determine its validity.
    1.   true
    2.   false

15. The word "u" in idea [9] is a synonym with
    1.   e
    2.   o
    3.   y

16. The phrase "un tipo u otro" in idea [9] refers back to
    1.   the three types of criminology
    2.   the types of laws and theories
    3.   the regulation of the penitentiary centers

17. Idea [10] states that the development of criminology in a country is related to its
    1.   political development
    2.   democratic development
    3.   socioeconomic development

18. According to idea [11], in which type of government is criminology most likely to thrive?
    1.   a dictatorial government
    2.   a post revolutionary government
    3.   a democratic government

19. Idea [12] states that criminology does not utilize the scientific method.
    1.   true
    2.   false

20. In idea [14], "encuesta" means
    1.   cost
    2.   poll
    3.   clue

21. According to idea [15], _____ tries to find the biological and psychological causes associated with a crime.
    1.   biometrics
    2.   anthropology
    3.   psychology

22. Idea [15] states that sociological methods study the biological and psychological causes associated with crime.
    1.   true
    2.   false

23. In idea [15], the word "que" in the phrase "que trata de encontrar" refers to
    1.   biometría
    2.   métodos
    3.   causas

¿Qué es la criminología?

Fill in all the gaps, then press "Check" to check your answers. Use the "Hint" button to get a free letter if an answer is giving you trouble. You can also click on the "[?]" button to get a clue. Note that you will lose points if you ask for hints or clues, but you may re-do the activity as many times as you'd like to improve your score.

alejarse   antropólogo   aplicada   campo   centros   crimen   criminología   debe delito   derecho   desarrollo   encontrar   encuesta   florece   métodos   país   revisar temas

La criminología es un ⬚ de estudio interdisciplinario ya que los temas que estudia pueden ser parte de los ⬚ que estudia la sociología, la antropología, el derecho o la psicología. En 1885, Rafael Garofalo, profesor italiano de ⬚, estableció el uso del término criminología, que posteriormente fue popularizado por el ⬚ francés Paul Topinard.

El objeto de estudio de la criminología se centra en cuatro elementos: el crimen o delito, el delincuente o criminal, la víctima y el control social. La palabra ⬚ deriva del verbo latino "delinquere", que significa abandonar, apartarse del buen camino, ⬚ del sendero señalado por la ley.

Existen tres tipos de criminología: científica, ⬚, y analítica. La criminología científica estudia los conceptos, teorías y métodos que se utilizan en la investigación del ⬚. La criminología aplicada estudia los resultados de la criminología científica con el propósito de ⬚ la formulación de las leyes y las regulaciones de los ⬚ penitenciarios. La criminología analítica estudia los métodos, teorías y prácticas de la ⬚ con el propósito de determinar su validez. El predominio de un tipo u otro en cada ⬚ depende de una variedad de circunstancias. El desarrollo de la criminología se relaciona con el ⬚ socioeconómico y el régimen político de un país. La criminología raramente ⬚ en países con regímenes políticos antidemocráticos o inestables.

La criminología, como ciencia, ⬚ utilizar el método científico. Los métodos que se utilizan están clasificados en dos grupos, ⬚ sociológicos y métodos antropológicos. Entre los métodos sociológicos se encuentran la ⬚ y el estudio de caso. Entre los métodos antropológicos se encuentra la biometría, que trata de ⬚ las causas biológicas y psicológicas que se asocian con el crimen.

Translation of the Reading[4]

What is criminology?

[1] Criminology is an interdisciplinary field of study, as it is concerned with issues that may be also of interest to sociology, anthropology, law or psychology. [2] In 1885, Rafael Garofalo, an Italian law professor, established the use of the term "criminology," which later was popularized by French anthropologist Paul Topinard.

[3] The object of study of criminology focuses on four elements: the crime or offense against the law, the offender or criminal, the victim and the social control. [4] The word "delito (offense)" derives from the Latin verb "delinquere," which means to abandon, stray way from the good path, to move away from the path established by the law.

[5] There exist three types of criminology: scientific, applied, and analytic. [6] Scientific criminology studies concepts, theories and methods that are utilized in crime investigations. [7] Applied criminology studies the results produced by scientific criminology in order to revise the laws in force and regulations concerning penitentiary centers. [8] Analytical criminology studies the methods, theories and practice used in criminology in order to determine their validity. [9] The predominance of one or another type in each country depends on a variety of circumstances. [10] The development of criminology relates to the socioeconomic development and the political regime of a country. [11] Criminology rarely prospers in anti-democratic or unstable political regimes.

[12] Criminology, as a science, must use the scientific method. [13] The methods used are categorized in two groups, sociological methods and anthropological methods. [14] Among the sociological methods we find polling and the case study. [15] Among the anthropological methods we find biometry, which tries to find the biological and psychological causes that are associated to crime.

Appendix C

Midterm Survey Results
Second Summer 2012

The midterm survey was opened on July 18 and closed on July 29. It was announced twice and Moodle reminded students of the survey through the course calendar. The completion of the survey was voluntary and the identity of the students was kept anonymous. Seventeen (17) students out of 25 completed the survey. The results below are rounded up to the closest whole number. The green cells display positive results regarding the information elicited.

Questions	Agree or Strongly Agree	Disagree or Strongly Disagree
1) The way online activities are used in this course <u>does not</u> provide quality instruction.	6% (1 out of 17)	94% (16 out of 17)
2) The online activities help me to understand the grammar.	76% (13 out of 17)	24% (4 out of 17)
3) The online activities <u>do not</u> help me to learn vocabulary.	18% (3 out of 17)	82% (14 out of 17)
4) I miss having face-to-face contact with my instructor.	12% (2 out of 17)	88% (15 out of 17)
5) I <u>would not</u> recommend this course to others.	6% (1 out of 17)	94% (16 out of 17)
6) I enjoy the reading material.	65% (11 out of 17)	35% (6 out of 17)
7) I like how my instructor manages the class.	82% (14 out of 17)	18% (3 out of 17)

Learning Styles and Metacognitive Awareness: How They Affect the L2 Listening Process of At-Risk Students in a Modified Foreign Language Program (MFLP)

William Keith Corbitt
West Chester University

Abstract

Research on the acquisition of foreign languages by at-risk students has primarily focused on the Linguistic Coding Deficit Hypothesis (Horwitz, 2000). Recently, there has been a growing discussion regarding the effects of learning style rigidity (Castro, 2006; Castro and Peck, 2005; Corbitt, 2011; Sparks, 2006) and metacognitive awareness (Corbitt, 2013) on the acquisition of Spanish by at-risk students in Modified Foreign Language Programs (MFLPs). This pilot study seeks to expand the conversation to include a discussion on foreign language listening. MFLP and non-MFLP participants completed the Metacognitive Awareness of Listening Questionnaire (Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, & Tafaghodtari; 2006) and the Learning Style Survey: Assessing Your Learning Styles (Cohen, Oxford, & Chi, 2001). The data were subjected to independent sample t-tests, ANOVAs, and a linear regression analysis to determine the relationship between and differences in learning styles and perceived metacognitive listening strategy use for each group. The findings suggest that MFLP and non-MFLP students diverge in their perceived usage of metacognitive listening strategies and MFLP students have a very strong visual learning style preference (p < .05). Pedagogical implications and recommendations for future research are discussed.

Key words: *Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA); Learning Style Survey (LSS); Linguistic Coding Deficit Hypothesis (LCDH); Metacognitive Awareness of Listening Questionnaire (MALQ); Modified Foreign Language Program (MFLP); Multisensory Language Learning.*

Background

All learners face difficulties when listening in the target language (Goh, 2000; Goh, 2002). According to Vandergrift (2004), "Listening is probably the least explicit of the four language skills, making it the most difficult skill to learn" (p. 4). For at-risk students, for example, those in a Modified Foreign Language Program (MFLP), the listening process can be quite painstaking (Ganschow & Sparks, 1986). Previous research suggested that, for MFLP students, difficulties in foreign language learning may be a result of learning style rigidity (Castro and Peck, 2005; Corbitt, 2011) and/or a lack of metacognitive awareness (Corbitt, 2013). This pilot study examined the effects of learning style preference on perceived metacognitive awareness when listening in the target language.

In the following sections, this article will describe the MFLP – a post-secondary self-contained foreign language program for at-risk students – and it will provide an overview of the research that investigates the acquisition of foreign languages by at-risk students and students with special needs. After delineating the difficulties that many MFLP students face when learning, and, in particular, listening in a foreign language, this article presents findings from previous research that suggest that there are inherent differences in actual and perceived strategy use between MFLP students and non-MFLP students and that those differences may be a result of learning style rigidity. The results of the study are then presented and the article concludes with pedagogical implications and suggestions for future research.

Literature Review

MFLP: An Historical Overview

In 1990, the United States Congress passed the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) which states, "All children with disabilities have available to them a free, appropriate public education that emphasizes special education and related services designed to meet their unique needs and prepare them for further education" (as cited in Heward, 2006, p. 19). As a result of the varied IDEA programs and mandates (e.g. Individualized Education Plan, Individualized Transition Plan, etc.) designed to facilitate K-12 success, children with special needs, who would have previously struggled in school, are succeeding, graduating and continuing their education at the post-secondary level (Arries, 1994; Heward, 2006).

According to Berberi (2008), 11.1 percent of undergraduates have one or more disabilities, which is considerably higher than the 2.2 percent reported in 1990 (Arries, 1994). Extrapolating from the National Center for Education Statistics' most recent undergraduate post-secondary enrollment figure of 17.7 million, the data would suggest that there are approximately 1.9 million post-secondary students with special needs. And, roughly two-thirds of these students may be choosing degree paths with a one to two-year foreign language requirement (Arries, 1994). Unfortunately, departments of foreign languages are not always prepared to address this population's very unique language learning needs (Abrams, 2008; Arries, 1999). Consequently, some universities have established the MFLP as a viable option for these students.

In August of 1990, coinciding almost exactly with the inception of IDEA, the University of Colorado at Boulder (UCB) launched the first MFLP in Latin, Spanish and Italian (Lazda-Cazers & Thorson, 2008). The UCB's MFLP has served as a model for the creation of countless other programs throughout the United States. Administrators find these programs attractive for they minimize the need for waivers and facilitate graduation; teachers and students find them attractive for their prescribed methods and techniques that seem to facilitate success.

An MFLP offers a student with special needs and/or an at-risk student a curriculum informed by empirical research that is specifically designed to address his/her needs. There has been considerable discussion regarding the classification of students for whom the acquisition of foreign languages is incredibly difficult despite their best efforts (Arries, 1999; Mabbott, 1995; Sparks, Ganschow, & Javorsky, 1993;

Sparks & Javorsky, 1999; Sparks & Javorsky, 2000). For this article, the terms "at risk" and "special needs" are used interchangeably to refer to MFLP students (see Participants below for further information).

The MFLP uses a multisensory language learning approach (MSL), which facilitates the students' simultaneous use of visual, auditory, and kinesthetic motor skills. Lessons are taught in the target language, with English being reserved for the clarification of grammar points. It emphasizes the explicit teaching of phonology and orthography. The MSL approaches draws on the Orton-Gillingham approach and generally consists of the following class activities: 10-15 minutes of blackboard drills that focus on phonology and grammar; followed by 2-3 minutes of oral sound drills designed to review previously studied phonemes/graphemes; 10 minutes of grammar instruction; 10 minutes of vocabulary instruction; and, 10 minutes of communicative practice (Sparks, Ganschow, Kenneweg, & Miller, 1991, p. 108). With MSL instruction, it is believed that the Linguistic Coding Deficit Hypothesis (LCDH), which seeks to explain why unsuccessful or at-risk students have such difficulty acquiring foreign languages, is lessened. The LCDH posits "native language difficulties as a possible cause of foreign language difficulties" (Sparks & Ganschow, 1993a, p. 289). Specifically, the LCDH assumes that poor phonological processing skills in the first language impede perception of novel phonological strings, spoken language comprehension and reading abilities which in turn contribute to deficits in listening comprehension, oral expression, reading comprehension, syntax, general knowledge and verbal memory in the foreign language only (Ganschow & Sparks, 1995; Ganschow, Sparks, Javorsky, Pohlman, & Bishop-Marbury, 1991; Sparks, 1995). In summary, "Students with foreign language learning problems have weaker phonological/ orthographical skills than students without foreign language learning problems" (Sparks, Artzer, Patton, Ganschow, Miller, Hordubay, & Walsh, 1998, 239).

LCDH: Theory and Research

Research conducted on the acquisition of foreign languages by students with special needs has primarily focused on the Linguistic Coding Deficit Hypothesis (Horwitz, 2000). In the early 1990s, Ganschow, Sparks and colleagues conducted a series of empirical studies with students with learning disabilities and students without learning disabilities, some of the latter who were labeled at-risk and others not. The research findings led Sparks, Ganschow, Pohlman, Skinner and Artzer, (1992) to conclude the following, "The results of these empirical studies all support the LCDH and have led us to speculate that the largest group of poor FL learners exhibits deficits primarily in the phonological component of language" (p. 32). The suggestion that at-risk students suffer from poor phonological awareness was also supported in the studies that followed (Sparks, 1995; Sparks & Ganschow, 1993a; Sparks & Ganschow, 1993b; Sparks & Ganschow, 1993c; Sparks, Ganschow, Artzer, & Patton, 1997; Sparks, et al., 1998).

In 1995, Ganschow and Sparks used a pre-test post-test design to investigate the effects of direct instruction in the phonology/orthography of Spanish on the native language skills and foreign language aptitude of at-risk and non-at-risk leaners; they found that there are significant differences between at-risk and non-at-risk learners. The pre-test comparisons revealed significant between-group differences on the

phonological/orthographic measures and foreign-language aptitude tests. Post-test analyses suggested that while both groups made significant gains, the at-risk group's gains were significantly more than the non-at-risk group. These findings give credence to the claim that "at-risk" learners have poor phoneme/grapheme awareness.

Since 1995, Ganschow, Sparks and colleagues have conducted additional empirical studies (Sparks, et al., 1998; Sparks, Ganschow, Artzer, & Patton, 1997), all of which suggest that students who struggle in a foreign language, due to no fault of their own and despite their best efforts, may do so because of poor phoneme/grapheme correspondence skills. Recent studies (Castro & Peck, 2005; Corbitt, 2011) have sought to widen the research beyond that of the LCDH to include learning styles and strategy use, topics that were originally broached in Ganschow and Spark's 1986 study but rarely revisited since.

Learning Styles and Strategies

As defined by Kinsella, learning styles are the, "Natural, habitual, and preferred ways of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills which persist regardless of teaching methods or content area" (1995, p. 171). Research suggests that a lack of learning style flexibility or a strong preference for one style over another may preclude foreign language learning success (Castro & Peck, 2005; Corbitt 2011; Corbitt 2013). Castro and Peck (2005) investigated the effect of learning style preference on students enrolled in a MFLP Spanish class and a non-MFLP Spanish class. Using the Kolb Learning Styles Inventory (1993), Castro and Peck correlated preferred learning style data with student GPA and found that, "Students with a highly specialized learning style would find difficulties in the regular foreign language classroom. They are successful in the modified class due to the attention given to individual learning styles through strategy building and individualized learning" (2005, p. 407).

In 2011, Corbitt expanded the learning style discussion to include learning strategies, which Rubin (1975) defined as, "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge" (p. 43). Corbitt conducted a pilot study that investigated the preferred learning styles of MFLP and non-MFLP students in relation to their perceived foreign language strategy use. Using the Learning Style Survey (LSS) and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), Corbitt found that while there were no statistically significant differences between the two groups on preferred learning style, the within groups assessment suggested that MFLP students had a significant visual learning style preference. Furthermore, the SILL data suggested that the MFLP group perceived themselves as using more metacognitive strategies than the non-MFLP group. This finding is somewhat perplexing, for the research suggests that what distinguishes more proficient students from less proficient students are both the number of strategies used and their metacognitive awareness, which Vandergrift and Goh (2012) define as, "our ability to think about our own thinking or cognition, and, by extension, to think about how we process information for a range of purposes and manage the way we do it" (p. 84). More proficient students are believed to have stronger metacognitive skills than less proficient students (Anderson, 2008; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Thus, are we to assume then that MFLP students, at-risk students, are more proficient at using metacognitive strategies than

their non-MFLP counterparts? Or, could it be that MFLP students do not actually use metacognitive strategies as much as they self-report, that there is a difference between perceived and actual strategy usage?

To answer the aforementioned questions, Corbitt (2013) conducted a mixed-methods study to investigate the relationship between MFLP and non-MFLP post-secondary Spanish students' preferred learning style, perceived metacognitive reading strategy use and actual reading strategy use. Students completed the LSS and, to better determine their perceived metacognitive reading strategy use, the SILL was replaced with the Survey of Reading Strategies (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002) which is designed to investigate students' perceived metacognitive foreign language strategy use while reading, a skill that is inherently challenging for students with poor grapheme/phoneme correspondence skills (Schneider & Crombie, 2003) . The sensory/perceptual learning style data from the LSS supported previous findings (Corbitt, 2011) that suggested that MFLP students have a dominant visual learning style preference. The results from the Survey of Reading Strategies also suggested that MFLP students' perceived use of foreign language reading strategies was greater than non-MFLP students, supporting previous research (Corbitt, 2011; Porte, 1988; Vann & Abraham, 1990) that suggested less proficient students use more strategies, often haphazardly, in their attempts to learn. The think-aloud data from Corbitt's (2013) study corroborated previous findings and showed that MFLP students used more strategies than non-MFLP students, but that they used them unsuccessfully. However, with regard to metacognition, the findings from the think-aloud tasks suggested that MFLP students use less metacognitive strategies than their non-MFLP counterparts and, unlike their non-MFLP counterparts, MFLP students rarely coupled metacognitive strategies with other strategies. Further analysis of the qualitative data suggested that a possible reason for the lack of metacognitive strategy usage was the MFLP students' very rigid visual learning style preference, which contributed to the students relying almost exclusively on the use of the dictionary to extract meaning from the text.

Listening

Listening is an important skill and arguably the most difficult to master (Goh, 2000; Goh, 2002; Goh & Taib, 2006; Vandergrift, 1997; Vandergrift, 2003; Vandergrift, 2004; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010) yet it continues to receive the least amount of structured support in the L2 classroom (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). While the use of listening activities is a staple of today's communicative classroom, these activities focus mainly on the outcome of listening and serve primarily as an evaluative tool. According to Vandergrift and Goh (2012), the activities are not necessarily designed to help students improve their listening abilities as they listen, which is essential for language learning to take place. Consequently, foreign language students are not being taught how to monitor their listening, which is a metacognitive process essential to learning. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) state, "Application of metacognitive knowledge is a mental characteristic shared by successful learners" (p. 23). However, MFLP students are, by definition, unsuccessful and struggling learners. The research conducted by Sparks, Ganschow and colleagues suggest that the difficulties unsuccessful learners have may be a result of poor grapheme/phoneme correspon-

dence skills; consequently, foreign language listening may be especially difficult for MFLP students. This study seeks to expand on the previous research by investigating that which has not yet been studied: the relationship between learning styles, perceived listening strategy use and metacognitive awareness.

Research Questions

To better understand the relationship that exists between MFLP students' preferred learning styles and their perceived metacognitive listening strategy use in the target language, the following research questions were proposed:

1. Do MFLP and non-MFLP students differ significantly with regard to their preferred sensory/perceptual learning styles (Visual, Auditory, Tactile/Kinesthetic)?
2. Do MFLP and non-MFLP students differ significantly with regard to their perceived metacognitive listening strategy use?
3. What is the effect of learning style preference on perceived metacognitive listening strategy use for MFLP and non-MFLP students?

Methods

Participants

The study was conducted in the department of foreign languages at a midsized university in the southeast of the United States. Eighty-seven students of third-semester Spanish were asked to participate in the study. Of these, 74 students (MFLP, n = 37; non-MFLP, n = 37) completed two questionnaires. Five students who failed to complete both questionnaires were excluded from the analysis. Forty-one females (MFLP, n = 18; non-MFLP, n = 23) and 33 males (MFLP, n = 19; non-MFLP, n = 14) participated in the study. In accordance with MFLP policy, all students had been deemed "at-risk" by the university's department of special needs. Due to the sensitivity of issues surrounding vulnerable populations, more specific information (e.g. each individual's specific type of learning disability or special need, such as dyslexia, ADHD, etc. and their test scores for admittance to the program) was not gathered; while requested, the University denied the author's request for those data.

To control for instructional variation, participants came from four classes (MFLP, n = 2; non-MFLP, n = 2) taught by the same instructor trained in MFLP approved practices, such as multisensory language learning (For a comprehensive description of the multisensory language learning approach, see Sparks, Ganschow, Kenneweg and Miller, 1991). Therefore, this study represents a purposeful sample.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data were collected over a two-day period during the students' regular class periods towards the end of the semester. On day one, students completed a short biographical questionnaire and the *Learning Style Survey* (Cohen, Oxford & Chi, 2001). On day two, students completed the *Metacognitive Awareness of Listening Questionnaire* (Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, & Tafaghodtari, 2006).

The *Learning Style Survey* (LSS) uses a 5-point Likert scale to measure participant responses. It consists of 110 items divided into 11 categories: How I use my physical senses (Visual, Auditory, or Tactile/Kinesthetic); How I open myself to learning situations (extraverted or introverted); How I handle possibilities (Ran-

dom-Intuitive or Concrete-Sequential); How I deal with ambiguity and deadlines (Closure-Oriented or Open-Oriented); How I receive information (Global or Particular); How I further process information (Synthesizing or Analytic); How I commit material to memory (Sharpener or Leveler); How I deal with language rules (Deductive or Inductive); How I deal with multiple inputs (Field-Independent or Field-Dependent); How I deal with response time (Impulsive or Reflective); How literally I take reality (Metaphoric or Literal). In developing and validating this survey instrument, a factor analysis involving a sample of 350 inventories yielded the aforementioned 11 categories (A. Cohen, personal communication, April 28, 2010). Because the items are not designed to correlate, an analysis of internal consistency was not conducted for this study. The LSS was chosen because, in addition to eliciting sensory/perceptual learning style data (visual, auditory or tactile/kinesthetic), it is capable of collecting psychology type data and cognitive learning style data, which will be used to inform follow-up studies. For the purposes of this article, only the physical senses data are presented.

The *Metacognitive Awareness of Listening Questionnaire* (MALQ) was informed by Falvell's (1979) model of metacognitive knowledge (Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal & Tafaghodtari, 2006). It uses a 6-point Likert scale and consists of 21 items divided into 5 categories: Problem solving; Planning and evaluation; Mental translation; Directed attention; and Person knowledge. Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, and Tafaghodtari conducted factor analysis of a very large sample (n = 966) and a Spearman *r* correlation analysis of the MALQ data and listening comprehension data suggested a strong relationship between students' reported behavior and their actual behavior; for that reason, the MALQ was chosen.

For the purpose of the present study, one minimal modification was made to the MALQ survey in order to make it more suitable for students of Spanish. The word "English" was substituted for the word "Spanish" in items three, eight and fifteen to read respectively: "I find that listening is more difficult than reading, speaking, or writing in Spanish"; "I feel that listening comprehension in Spanish is a challenge for me"; "I don't feel nervous when I listen to Spanish." Statistical analyses have determined the instrument to be both reliable and valid (Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal & Tafaghodtari, 2006, p. 432).

The two questionnaires were then converted to TeleForm documents to avoid the need for manual data input. TeleForm uses Global Positioning Systems technology to read human written responses and converts those responses to a file that can be interpreted by statistical software. The background questionnaire and the LSS were conflated into one TeleForm and administered on day one (see Appendix A), while the MALQ TeleForm document was administered on day two (see Appendix B). The data were uploaded to the Statistical Package for Social Sciences version 20 and subjected to a series of statistical analyses (see Result section).

Results

      To answer the first research question –Do MFLP and non-MFLP students differ significantly with regard to their preferred sensory/perceptual learning styles (Visual, Auditory, Tactile/Kinesthetic)? – the LSS data were subjected to three independent samples t-tests; one for each sensory/perceptual learning style: visual, auditory and tactile/kinesthetic A Levene's test and descriptive statistics were analyzed and all assumptions were met. The findings suggest that MFLP and non-MFLP group do not significantly diverge with regard to their preferred sensory/perceptual learning styles.

Table 1

Comparison of MFLP and non-MFLP Students' Preferred Sensory/Perceptual Learning Style

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p.*
Visual			.479	72	.634
MFLP	3.38	.441			
Non-MFLP	3.32	.570			
Auditory			.626	72	.533
MFLP	3.10	.413			
Non-MFLP	3.04	.475			
Tactile/Kinesthetic			-1.18	72	.244
MFLP	2.71	.465			
Non-MFLP	2.85	.578			

      A mixed ANOVA with a Hunyeh-Feldt correction was then conducted to determine whether or not the within group's preferred learning style was statistically significant. The findings suggest that MFLP students' preferred learning style is visual and the mean differences are statistically significant, $F (2.0, 146) = 28.25$, $p < .001$, $eta^2 = .28$.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for the Three Sensory/Perceptual Learning Styles

Variable	*M*	*SD*
Visual	3.38	.507
Auditory	3.10	.444
Tactile/Kinesthetic	2.71	.525

      To answer research question number two – Do MFLP and non-MFLP students differ significantly with regard to their perceived metacognitive listening strategy use? – the MALQ data were subjected to independent samples t-tests. Descriptive statistics and a Levene's test for equal variances were analyzed and all assumptions were met. Table 3 shows that MFLP students report more perceived use of metacognitive strategy use when listening in the target language than their non-MFLP counterparts; however, only one of the five categories was statistically significant. The findings suggest that MFLP students report a significantly greater degree of Planning and Evaluation than their non-MFLP counterparts.

Table 3

Comparisons of MFLP and non-MFLP Students' Perceived Use of Metacognitive Listening Strategies

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p.*
Problem Solving			.331	70	.741
MFLP	4.79	.515			
Non-MFLP	4.72	.535			
Planning & Evaluation			1.98	70	.049
MFLP	3.82	.954			
Non-MFLP	3.14	.743			
Mental Translation			.607	70	.546
MFLP	4.47	.646			
Non-MFLP	4.22	.771			
Directed Attention			-1.17	70	.079
MFLP	4.01	.601			
Non-MFLP	3.81	.291			
Person Knowledge			.939	70	.351
MFLP	4.13	.926			
Non-MFLP	3.85	.878			

To answer the third research question – What is the effect of learning style preference on perceived metacognitive listening strategy use for MFLP and non-MFLP students? – a simple linear regression was run on each of the five MALQ sections: Problem Solving, Planning and Evaluation, Mental Translation, Directed Attention, and Person Knowledge. The results suggest that only one dependent variable (Planning and Evaluation) was significantly affected by a MFLP student's preferred learning style, $F(2, 71) = 9.83$, $p = .003$. MFLP students with a visual preferred learning style self-reported using more planning and evaluation strategies than students with other learning styles and these findings were statistically significant.

Discussion

Listening is a difficult task for all, but, for MFLP students, it may be especially challenging. Previous research suggests that students who are more metacognitively aware are more proficient listeners (Goh, 2002; Macaro, 2001; Mareschal, 2002; Vandergrift, 1997; Vandergrift, 2002; Vandergrift, 2003). Findings from this study suggest that MFLP students, especially those students for whom listening is especially challenging, actually report more perceived usage of metacognitive listening strategies than their non-MFLP counterparts. On the surface, this may seem counterintuitive, but this finding is in line with previous research. According to Griffiths (2008), "Some studies have discovered that poor language learners use a great many strategies in their unsuccessful efforts to learn (for instance, Porte, 1988; Vann and Abraham, 1990)" (p. 89). This was borne out in Corbitt's 2013 study which investigated the effects of learning style preference on MFLP students' actual strategy use when reading in the target language.

The findings from this pilot study support previous research (Castro & Peck, 2005; Corbitt, 2011; Corbitt, 2013) that suggested that MFLP students have very rigid learning style preferences. An analysis of the qualitative data from Corbitt's 2013 study showed that an overreliance on the visual learning style might preclude foreign language reading success. This study, which sought to expand the conversation to include perceived listening strategy usage, justifies the need for further research.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

One must proceed with caution when interpreting the results of this study for two reasons: (1) While the MFLP students reported more perceived usage of metacognitive listening strategies than their non-MFLP counterparts, only the mean differences in one of the five categories was statistically significant (see Table 3). (2) While previous MALQ research (Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, & Tafaghodtari, 2006) suggested a significant correlation between what students self-report on the MALQ questionnaire and what they actually do, it is quite possible that, for the MFLP population, that is not the case. Corbitt (2013) found that, despite self-reporting a large amount and variety of reading strategies, MFLP students do not actually do what they say they do. Only investigating what students say they do is a limitation of this study. Future research is needed to investigate what MFLP students actually do while listening in the target language. Because strategies are for the most part unobservable, future research should consider employing introspective measures such as think-aloud tasks, stimulated recalls, and immediate recalls.

The findings from this study suggest a limited interaction between MFLP students' preferred learning style and their perceived metacognitive listening strategy usage. Previous research (Corbitt, 2013), however, had suggested that a statistically significant visual learning style preference negatively influences what strategies MFLP students use when reading in the target language. For this reason, and the other aforementioned reasons, future research will need to investigate the learning style/strategy relationship as MFLP students are performing specific tasks. Research should seek to determine what specific strategies MFLP students employ when listening in the target language and the degree to which the students' preferred learning styles either facilitate or impede comprehension and learning. Despite the aforementioned limitations, there are several pedagogical implications that teachers should consider.

Pedagogical Implications and Conclusions

According to Chamot (2008), there is considerable evidence to suggest that less successful students can benefit from explicit strategy instruction. To facilitate metacognitive strategy awareness, Anderson (2008) recommends first introducing the importance of strategies to students by having them complete a survey such as the MALQ or the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Oxford, 1990). Anderson also recommends that teachers: 1) have students keep journals in which they articulate their strategy usage experiences, evaluate their successes and failures, and describe their plans and goals; 2) implement self-assessments for both tasks and tests; and, 3) incorporate self-recordings or think-aloud protocols so that students can verbalize their thought processes, which helps facilitate self-awareness. Schneider and Crombie (2003) also believe that verbalization is the key to promoting metacognitive awareness and recommend that teachers do the following to help facilitate the

verbalization process: Teachers should 1) model questioning strategies for the students to help promote self-reflection and self-correction; 2) use a variety of textual enhancement techniques, such as color-coding and shape-coding, to help stimulate the thought process; 3) use mnemonic devices that help students recall previously studied material; and 4) create a classroom environment in which students feel comfortable discussing their difficulties and successes.

With regard to learning style preferences, the findings from this study support previous findings that MFLP students have a strong visual learning style preference and that their least preferred learning style is tactile/kinesthetic. This does not mean, however, that these preferences are static (Castro, 2006; Cohen, 1998; Cohen & Weaver, 2006). Students can be taught to stretch their approaches to learning so that they can more easily adapt to a wide variety of activities and teaching styles. As a beginning, Cohen and Weaver (2006) recommend that teachers have their students take the LSS because it "will help them begin to understand their own approaches to learning and can give you (the teacher) information about how they learn" (p. 19). To help attenuate possible teaching style / learning style conflicts, Cohen and Weaver also recommend that teachers take the LSS, "When you have information about your students' and your own learning style preferences, you can make the most of your students' style preferences and help them find ways to stretch themselves to benefit most from your teaching styles" (p. 11). For MFLP students, students who have a strong visual learning style preference and are primarily taught via a multisensory approach, learning style flexibility may even be more important (Corbitt, 2013). For more information regarding styles and strategies based instruction, see the Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition at the University of Minnesota.

Acknowledgements

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Appendix A

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Learning Styles Survey Pre-Test

Thank you for your willingness to participate. The purpose of this study is to find out more about the preferred learning styles and perceived foreign language strategy use of students of Spanish. The study is designed to inform teaching and learning.

Thanks again for your participation; you are helping me help teachers help their students. If you have any questions during the survey, don't hesitate to raise your hand and ask.

Demographics

Please indicate your gender: O Male   O Female

What is your age in years?

Course Name/Number

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Participant ID

Instructions:
For each item circle the response that represents your approach. Complete all items. There are eleven major activities representing twelve different aspects of your learning style. When you read the statements, try to think about what you generally do when learning.

Indicate your immediate response (or feeling) and move on to the next item. For each item, mark your immediate response: 1 = Never   2 = Rarely   3 = Sometimes   4 = Often   5 = Always

Part 1: How I Use My Physical Senses

	1	2	3	4	5
I remember something better if I write it down.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I take detailed notes during lectures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I listen, I visualize pictures, numbers, or words in my head.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I prefer to learn with TV or video rather than other media.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use color coding to help me as I learn or work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I need written directions for tasks.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have to look at people to understand what they say.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I understand lecturers better when they write on the board.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Charts, diagrams, and maps help me understand what someone says.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I remember people's faces, but not their names.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I remember things better if I discuss them with someone.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I prefer to learn by listening to a lecture rather than reading.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I need oral directions for a task.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Background sound helps me think.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like to listen to music when I study or work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I can understand what people say even when I cannot see them.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I remember people's names, but not their faces.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I easily remember jokes that I hear.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I can identify people by their voices (e.g., on the phone).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I turn on the T.V., I listen to the sound more than watch the screen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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Participant ID

1 = Never   2 = Rarely   3 = Sometimes   4 = Often   5 = Always

	1	2	3	4	5
I'd rather get started than pay attention to directions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I need frequent breaks when I work or study.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I need to eat something when I read or study.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
If I have a choice between sitting and standing, I'd rather stand.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I get nervous when I sit still too long.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I think better when I move around (e.g., pacing or my tapping feet).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I play with or bite on my pens during lectures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Manipulating objects helps me to remember what someone says.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I move my hands when I speak.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I draw lots of pictures (doodles) in my notebook during lectures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Part 2: How I Open Myself to Learning Situations

	1	2	3	4	5
I learn better when I work or study with others than by myself.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I meet new people easily by jumping into the conversation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I learn better in the classroom than with a private tutor.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is easy for me to approach strangers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Interaction with a lot of people gives me energy.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I experience things first, and then try to understand them.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am energized by the inner world (what I'm thinking inside).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I prefer individul or one-on-one games and activities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have a few interests, and I concentrate deeply on them.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
After working in a large group, I am exhausted.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I am in a large group, I tend to keep silent and listen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I want to understand something well before I try it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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Participant ID ☐☐☐

1 = Never   2 = Rarely   3 = Sometimes   4 = Often   5 = Always

Part 3: How I Handle Possibilities	1	2	3	4	5
I have an inventive imagination.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I try to find many options and possibilities for why something happens.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I plan carefully for future events.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like to discover things myself rather than have everything explained to me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I add many original ideas during class discussions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am open-minded to new suggestions from my peers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I focus on a situation as it is rather than thinking about how it could be.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I read instruction manuals (e.g., for computers or VCRs) before using the device.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I trust concrete facts instead of new, untested ideas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I prefer things presented in a step-by-step way.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I dislike it if my classmate changes the plan for our project.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I follow directions carefully.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Part 4: How I Deal With Ambiguity and Dealines	1	2	3	4	5
I like to plan language study sessions carefully and do lessons on time or early.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My notes, handouts, and other school materials are carefully organized.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like to be certain about what things mean in a target language.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like to know how rules are applied and why.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I let deadlines slide if I'm involved in other things.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I let things pile up on my desk to be organized eventually.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I don't worry about comprehending everything.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I don't feel the need to come to rapid conclusions about a topic.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

21456

Participant ID

1 = Never   2 = Rarely   3 = Sometimes   4 = Often   5 = Always

Part 5: How I Receive Information

	1	2	3	4	5
I prefer short and simple answers rather than long explanations..	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I ignore details that do not seem relevant.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is easy for me to see the overall plan or big picture.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I get the main idea and that's enough for me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I tell an old story, I tend to forget lots of specific details.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I need very specific examples in order to understand fully.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I pay attention to specific facts or information.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm good at catching new phrases or words when I hear them.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy activities when I have to fill in the blank with missing words I hear.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I try to tell a joke, I remember details but forget the punch line.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Part 6: How I Further Process Information

	1	2	3	4	5
I can summarize information easily.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I can quickly paraphrase what other people say.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I create an outline, I consider the key points first.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy activities where I have to pull ideas together.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
By looking at the whole situation, I can easily understand someone.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have a hard time understanding when I don't know every word.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I tell a story or explain something, it takes a long time.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like to focus on grammar rules.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm good at solving complicated mysteries and puzzles.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am good at noticing even the smallest details regarding some task.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

21456

Participant ID

1 = Never   2 = Rarely   3 = Sometimes   4 = Often   5 = Always

Part 7: How I Commit Material to Memory	1	2	3	4	5
I make an effort to pay attention to all the features of new material as I learn.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I memorize different bits of language material, I can retrieve these bits easily as if I had stored them in separate slots in my brain.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
As I learn new material in the target language, I make distinctions between speech sounds, grammatical forms, and words and phrases	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When learning new information, I may clump together data by eliminating or reducing differences and focusing on similarities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I ignore distinctions that would make what I say more accurate in the given context.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Similar memories blur in my mind; I merge new learning experiences with previous ones.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Part 8: How I Deal With Language Rules	1	2	3	4	5
I like to go from general patterns to the specific examples in learning a target language.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like to start with rules and theories rather than specific examples.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like to begin with generalizations and then find experiences that relate to them.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like to learn rules of language indirectly through being exposed to lots of examples of grammatical structures and other language features.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I don't really care if I hear a rule stated since I don't remember rules very well anyway.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I figure out rules based on the way I see language forms behaving over time.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

21456

Participant ID

1 = Never   2 = Rarely   3 = Sometimes   4 = Often   5 = Always

Part 9: How I Deal With Multiple Inputs

	1	2	3	4	5
I can separate out the relevant and important information in a givencontext even when distracting information is present.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I produce an oral or written message in a target language, I make sure that all the grammatical strucutes are in agreement.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I not only attent to grammar, but check for appropriate levels of formality and politeness	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When speaking or writing, a focus on grammar would be at the expense of attention to content.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is a challenge for me to focus on communication in speech or writing while paying attention to grammatical agreement (e.g., person, number, tense, or gender).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I am using lengthy sentences in a target language, I get distracted and neglect aspects of grammar and style.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Part 10: How I Deal With Response Time

	1	2	3	4	5
I react quickly in language situations.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I go with my instincts in a target language.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I jump in, see what happens, and make on-line corrections if needed.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I need to think things through before speaking or writing.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like to look before I leap when determining what to say or write in a target language.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I attempt to find supporting material in my mind before I start producing language.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Part 11: How Literally I Take Reality

	1	2	3	4	5
I find that building metaphors in my mind helps me deal with language (e.g., viewing the language like a machine with component parts that can be disassembled.)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I learn things through metaphors and associations with other things. I find stories and examples help me learn.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I take learning language literally and don't deal in metaphors.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I take things at face value, so I like language material that says what it means directly.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix B

Learning Styles Survey Post-Test

23686

Participant ID

The statements below describe some strategies for listening comprehension and how you feel about listening in the language you are learning. Do you agree with them? This is not a test, so there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. By responding to these statements, you can help yourself and your teacher understand your progress in learning to listen. Please indicate your opinon after each statement. Mark the number which best shows your level of agreement with the statement.

1 = Strongly Disagree   2 = Disagree   3 = Slightly Disagree   4 = Partly Agree   5 = Agree   6 = Strongly Agree

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Before I start to listen, I have a plan in my head for how I am going to listen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I focus harder on the text when I have trouble understanding.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I find that listening is more difficult that reading, speaking, or writing in Spanish.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I translate in my head as I listen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use the words I understand to guess the meaning of the words I don't understand.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When my mind wanders, I recover my concentration right away.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
As I listen, I compare what I understand with what I know about the topic.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel that listening comprehension in Spanish is a challenge for me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use my experience and knowledge to help me understand.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Before listening, I think of similar texts that I may have listened to.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I transliate key words as I listen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
As I listen, I quickly adjust my interpretation if I realize that it is not correct.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
After listening, I think back to how I listened, and about what I might do differently next time.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I don't feel nervous when I listen to Spanish.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I have difficulty understanding what I hear, I give up and stop listening.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use the general idea of the text to help me guess the meaning of the words that I don't understand.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I translate word by word, as I listen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I guess the meaning of a word, I think back to everything else that I have heard, to see if my guess makes sense.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
As I listen, I periodically ask myself if I am satisfied with my level of comprehension.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have a goal in mind as I listen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

The Effect of Pronunciation Instruction on the Perception of /s/ Aspiration

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Abstract

This study examines whether pronunciation instruction can improve listening comprehension in a second language. At the most basic level, listening comprehension involves the perception of individual sounds and sound contrasts, a process that is known to be related to production, or pronunciation, within the L2 phonological system. As improving listening comprehension has been cited as a reason to teach pronunciation in the L2 classroom (Arteaga, 2000; Brown, 1992; Gilbert, 1995), this study tests whether the positive relationship between pronunciation instruction and perception can be born out empirically using the case of /s/ aspiration in Spanish with native English speaking students.

Keywords: *pronunciation instruction, perception, listening comprehension, L2 phonological acquisition, aspiration, Spanish*

Background

Many reasons are often cited in support of teaching pronunciation in the second language classroom. One suggestion we find is that better pronunciation will improve students' listening comprehension (Arteaga, 2000; Brown, 1992; Gilbert, 1995). The belief is that if students understand the phonological processes that take place in native pronunciation of the target language, they will be able to identify them within native speech, and this will lead to better perception of individual sounds and an overall improvement in listening comprehension. This assumption seems logical, given that we know that the processes of perception and production are related within the phonological system, and current models— such as Flege's (1995) Speech Learning Model (SLM)— suggest that both processes depend on the same phonetic categories. There have, however, been few empirical studies investigating whether teaching pronunciation can in fact improve listening comprehension. Furthermore, many in the field of L2 phonology believe that the development of perception precedes production, meaning that learners must be able to accurately perceive an L2 sound or contrast before they will be able to produce it accurately (Rochet, 1995, p. 395).

It has been well established in the field of L2 phonology that training in perception (Bradlow, Akahane-Yamada, Pisoni & Tohkura, 1999; Hardison, 2005; Lively, Logan & Pisoni, 1993) and production (Elliot, 1995; Lord, 2005; Saito, 2012, Yule & Macdonald, 1995) can improve abilities in each respective process. However, only a handful of studies have examined whether instruction in one process can have a positive effect on the other. In this case, we are interested in examining whether

pronunciation instruction, or training in production, can positively affect listening comprehension, which at its most basic level involves the perception of individual L2 sounds and/or contrasts which may not exist in the learners' L1.

The only current model of L2 phonological acquisition that considers both the processes of perception and production, as well as their relationship with each other, is Flege's (1995) Speech Learning Model. The SLM proposes that learners have phonetic categories at the allophonic level for both L1 and L2. When a learner hears a new sound in the L2, one of two things can happen. If the L2 sound is noticeably dissimilar to any L1 category that already exists, the learner will establish a new L2 category within the phonological system. However, if the L2 sound is similar to an L1 category that already exists, through a process called *equivalence classification*, the learner will assume that the L2 sound he heard pertains to the L1 category (Flege, 1995). It is through experience that a learner may eventually begin to distinguish between the L1 and L2 sounds that have been classified as being the same L1 sound, and with enough experience, a new L2 category may be established.

One of the hypotheses of the SLM reflects what has long been the consensus in the field: that perception precedes production in L2 phonological acquisition. In other words, productive accuracy is limited by the accuracy of perceptual categories as it relies on these categories for articulatory instructions. Given this relationship one might argue that perception training has the potential for increasing production because it would improve the perceptual categories on which production depends. Our interest in this study is the reverse: training in production to increase perceptual abilities. In order for improved listening comprehension to be a theoretically possible result of pronunciation instruction, there must be a positive correlation between the two processes within the L2 phonological system. There is little debate in the field about whether or not a positive relationship exists between the processes of perception and production. Many studies have shown positive correlations of varying strengths (Akahane-Yamada, Tohkura, Bradlow & Pisoni, 1996; Flege, 1995; Flege, Bohn & Jang, 1997; Flege, MacKay & Meador, 1999; Hattori & Iverson, 2010) and others have argued that a deep relationship exists between two processes (Kusmoto, 2012; Listerri, 1995; Peperkamp & Bouchon, 2011). As correlations do not indicate causality, the agreement that a correlation exists between perception and production leaves room for the possibility that the improvement in either process can improve the other.

Some studies have shown improvement in students' L2 perception and listening comprehension after pronunciation instruction or phonetics training (Aliaga-García & Mora, 2008; Aminaei & Jahandar, 2015; Ghorbani, Neissari & Kargozari, 2016; Khanghaninejad & Maleki, 2015; Rasmussen & Zampini, 2010). However, the instruction given to the students included either listening comprehension activities or perceptual training which highlighted the sound contrasts being taught. It is difficult to draw clear conclusions on the effect of pronunciation instruction in these studies as listening and perceptual activities can clearly positively affect listening comprehension.

A few studies, however, have better isolated the effects of pronunciation instruction on listening comprehension. Catford and Pisoni (1970) compared articulatory training to auditory training with regard to native English speakers' abilities to produce and perceive "exotic sounds" from languages to which they had not been

exposed. Participants in the articulatory group received only instructions on the articulatory postures required to produce the sounds. They outperformed the auditory group, which only heard the exotic sounds as compared with familiar sounds, in both production and perception tasks. There was a statistically significant difference in the perception of exotic vowels, but the difference in exotic consonants was not significant. Ahangari, Rahabar and Maleki (2015) used listen-and-repeat activities in the instruction of English pronunciation to Iranian learners and found that after two months of regular pronunciation instruction, listening comprehension increased significantly as compared to the control group.

While Catford and Pisoni (1970) were able to completely avoid influencing the perception of participants in the articulatory group, it is very difficult to avoid providing some type of perceptual information to learners in a language class setting because listen-and-repeat type activities allow students to hear the L2 sounds that are being modeled. Although students may gain some amount of perceptual information from hearing L2 sounds, it is important to avoid explicit contrastive perception training which compares two sounds and raises awareness of the contrasts being tested. As we have seen previously, training in perception has been shown to improve perceptual abilities and this type of training would therefore compromise the results if we are seeking to test the effect of pronunciation instruction on learners' perceptual abilities.

With regards to how pronunciation can be taught without offering contrastive analysis or additional listening comprehension activities, a study by Yule and Mac-Donald (1995) offers us a comparison of three methods. Two experimental groups participated in listen-and-repeat activities, one in a classroom setting and the other in a laboratory setting. The participants in the classroom setting received feedback from the instructor during instruction, while the participants in the laboratory setting completed the activities on their own. A third group received no instruction but was asked the question "what?" by the instructor during a presentation in order to elicit clearer pronunciation. Surprisingly, the group that showed the most improvement and best maintained that improvement over time was the laboratory group.

Based on these previous studies, we can conclude that there has been some success in improving students listening comprehension after articulatory and auditory pronunciation instruction, but that other types of activities that focus on perception rather than production may have an unintended positive effect on the results. Two aims of the current study are to control for the positive effect that contrastive perception training can have on listening comprehension and to compare the effects of two methods of teaching pronunciation.

Aspiration of /s/

In our study we have chosen to focus solely on the case of /s/ aspiration in Spanish because at the beginner-level, it is likely that many students have not been exposed to it. This can be a particularly difficult sound to perceive for native English speakers as it does not have strong articulatory features and it occurs in different positions in Spanish and English. Schmidt (2011) tested the perception of /s/ aspiration by providing several options of words for participants to choose from while listening to recordings and the findings suggested that while beginners had great

difficulties in perception, such abilities became more native-like at very advanced levels or after exposure through study abroad. George (2014) also tested the perception of /s/ aspiration and found that native English-speaking learners of Spanish at all levels exhibited perception difficulties, especially when asked to write the word that they heard. Rasmussen and Zampini (2010) tested the effect of phonetics training on the perception of /s/ aspiration and found that their results were affected by many external factors, including the types of words that can exhibit /s/ aspiration in native Spanish speech, as well as the location of the aspiration within the word. These studies show that while perceiving /s/ aspiration can be especially difficult for learners at the lower levels, testing the perception of /s/ aspiration can also present challenges to researchers.

The aspiration of /s/ in Spanish occurs in coda position, or after the vowel within a syllable.[1] Therefore, it may occur in word-internal or word-final position. For example, plural articles, adjectives, and nouns in Spanish often end in /s/ or /es/. Testing the perception of /s/ in the word-final position is difficult because listeners can often understand or guess the plural meaning based on context. To avoid context, the perception of /s/ aspiration can be tested in word-internal position when words are pronounced in isolation, but it makes perception much more difficult for native English speakers. The phoneme /h/ does not exist in coda position in English so when a word such as *gasto* [expense] is pronounced with aspiration [ˈgah.to], it contains [h] in coda position. Without context, native English speakers may perceive [ˈga.to], or *gato* [cat], as [h] does not occur in that position in English nor does it have strong articulatory features. While /s/ aspiration may be difficult for native English speakers to perceive and for researchers to test, using near minimal pairs such as *gasto-gato* [expense-cat] and avoiding context allows the best possible chance to test what students do perceive.

Methodology

Research Questions

This study examined two research questions, the first regarding the relationship between pronunciation instruction and listening comprehension and the second regarding the type of pronunciation instruction.

1. Does teaching pronunciation of /s/ aspiration positively affect the perception of the allophone [h] in word-internal position by native English speakers learning Spanish?
2. Will teacher-lead (classroom) instruction or self-guided (laboratory) instruction have a greater effect on the improvement of the perception of [h] produced by /s/ aspiration?

Participants

Participants in this study were 43 students of intensive beginner Spanish courses. Although these students were enrolled at the beginner level, all of them had been exposed to Spanish previously, at community colleges or in high school, and were therefore not true beginners. The participants were split by class section into three groups. The control group consisted of 19 students, the classroom experimental group consisted of nine students, and the laboratory experimental group had a total of 15 students.

Through a questionnaire, background data were gathered about all of the participants. The questionnaire included basic personal information such as age, gender, native language, number of years of second language study, age at beginning of second language study, as well as information about any previous exposure to Spanish through family, travel, or study abroad; and finally motivations for studying Spanish. This background data allowed us to control to the degree possible for previous exposure to /s/ aspiration. Any student who had been exposed to a dialect that exhibits /s/ aspiration, through Spanish-speaking family, travel abroad, or study abroad, was excluded. The data also allowed us to compare the groups to confirm that there was no statistically significant difference on any other important factor that could potentially affect the results.

A one-way ANOVA showed that there was no difference in the mean age of the participants across the three groups, $F(2,40) = 1.379$, p = .263 and a Chi-square test revealed no differences in gender distribution between the groups, $X^2(2, N = 43)$ = .185, p = .912. A one-way ANOVA to compare the beginning age of acquisition of Spanish of the participants also revealed no difference, $F(2,40) = 1.858$, p = .169. Similarly, there was no difference between the total number of years of study of Spanish between the three groups, $F(2,40) = 2.154$, p = .129. Since this intensive beginner course counts towards the language requirement within the institution, motivational factors were also compared across the groups. The questionnaire included twelve motivational factors, or potential reasons for taking the course, including options such as a program requirement or having Spanish-speaking friends. A Chi-square test showed that although there were a few students in two of the sections who were not taking the course to fulfill the language requirement, there was no difference in motivational factors selected between the groups, $X^2(2, N = 43) = 3.325$, p = .190. Finally, in a comparison of pretest scores, a one-way ANOVA confirmed that there was no difference between the pretest scores of all three groups, $F(2,40) = .331$, p = .720. Given all of these factors, we can conclude that all groups had similar makeups and perceptual abilities at the beginning of the study.

Materials Design

The materials in this study included recordings and an answer sheet used in the perception tests, as well as a PowerPoint presentation used in the instructional sessions. During the perception test, which lasted approximately 10 minutes, students listened to the recordings of 40 pairs of words and they were asked to indicate on an answer sheet whether the words were the same or different by circling one of the two options. The recordings were played for all participants in each group at the same time and the same recordings were used in the pretest, immediate posttest, and posttest, but items were played in a random order for each test.

Given the complexity of the phonological process of /s/ aspiration, we tried to eliminate the two issues that offer perceptual clues: context and word-final position of /s/. In order to accomplish this, each item contained only a pair of words generated from a list of near minimal pairs. Unlike minimal pairs, a near minimal pair contains one word that has one more segment than the other which distinguishes the two words. An example is the previously discussed pair *gasto-gato* [expense-cat], where the presence, absence or aspiration of the coda position /s/ is what distin-

guishes the meaning of the two words. Every near minimal pair that was chosen contained an /s/ in word-internal coda position (see Appendix A for a complete list of near minimal pairs). As we have seen previously, /s/ in this position may undergo aspiration in some dialects, and this is the same position in which it is difficult for a native speaker of English to perceive the pronunciation of [h]. With aspiration the minimal pair *gasto-gato* [expense-cat] is pronounced ['gah.t̪o]-['ga.t̪o]. However, without explicit instruction on this process, a native English speaker learning Spanish may not perceive this near minimal pair as being different, as both words may be perceived as *gato* [cat]. It should be noted that in some dialects /s/ may be deleted in this position, but all near minimal pairs with /s/ aspiration contained one token with the allophone [h].

 While some of the items were near minimal pairs with /s/ aspiration, other types of pairs were generated as distractors and as controls. A second type of pair contained the same word with [s], for example *gasto-gasto* [expense-expense] pronounced ['gas.t̪o]-['gas.t̪o]. A third type contained a near minimal pair with the pronunciation of [s] such as gasto-gato [expense-cat] pronounced ['gas.t̪o]-['ga.t̪o]. The final type was a distractor pair which contained any two tokens within the list of near minimal pairs such as *gato-mosca* [cat-fly] pronounced ['ga.t̪o]-['mos.ka]. Table 1 includes examples of each type of item used in the perception tests. Ten pairs of each type were included in the perception tests for a total of 40 items.

Table 1

Examples of Items Used in Perception Tests and Correct Answers

Item Type	Example	Correct Answer
Same Words	['gas.t̪o]-['gas.t̪o]	same
Different Words	['ga.t̪o]-['mos.ka]	different
Near Minimal Pairs [s]	['gas.t̪o]-['ga.t̪o]	different
Near Minimal Pairs [h]	['gah.t̪o]-['ga.t̪o]	different

 Instructional materials for both experimental groups consisted of a PowerPoint presentation which was designed to guide a 15-minute lesson with activities on /s/ aspiration. The lesson began with slides explaining which dialects of Spanish include aspiration, how the phonological process of aspiration works, and where aspiration typically occurs within a word. This explanation included interactive questions to check for students' comprehension of the key concepts. The animation feature was utilized to allow for immediate feedback to students about their own comprehension by revealing the answers directly after the questions. Following the explanation of /s/ aspiration, the presentation guided students through a pronunciation activity to practice pronouncing words with aspiration in word-internal, coda position. Recordings of words with aspiration were linked to the presentation and after listening to the recordings, students were asked to repeat the words aloud. As the goal of instruction was to avoid contrastive perception training, the pronunciation activity was a listen-and-repeat type of activity but it did not contrast near minimal pairs nor did it provide further input in the form of additional listening activities.

Tasks and Procedures

This study took place over a five-week period in which the researcher conducted sessions once every other week during each participant group's regularly scheduled class time. In the case of both experimental groups, the researcher was also the students' regular instructor. During week one, all groups were asked to fill out the background questionnaire and then they completed the pretest. During week three the experimental groups participated in an instructional session. The classroom experimental group progressed through the lesson detailed above with the help and explanations of the instructor. Students in this group were allowed to ask questions during the lesson and the instructor was able to monitor their comprehension and pronunciation. The laboratory group attended the instructional session in a computer lab. All students were able to progress through the same lesson at their own pace and they used headphones to complete the listen-and-repeat pronunciation activity. Due to the fact that the laboratory group's lesson was modeled on a traditional language lab activity, the instructor did not answer questions or monitor students' comprehension or pronunciation. Directly following the instructional sessions of both experimental groups, students took an immediate posttest. In the final week of the study, all groups completed a posttest.

Results

The average overall pretest score for all three groups was 80.9%. As reported in the section on participants, a one-way ANOVA revealed no statistically significant difference between the pretest scores of all three groups, $F(2,40) = .33$, p = .720. Participants in all groups had high rates of accuracy with near minimal pairs with [s] and when both words were the same or completely different; however, the average score on near minimal pairs with [h] was only 30.7% for all groups. Given the difficulty that native English speakers have in perceiving /s/ aspiration, the low scores on the near minimal pairs with [h] were expected prior to instruction.

When we compare the scores of the two experimental groups on the pretest and the immediate posttest, paired-sample t-tests revealed a statistically significant difference between the two tests for the classroom group, $t(8) = 3.29$, $p = .011$, and for the laboratory group, $t(14) = 3.09$, $p = .008$. These results indicate that there was a change in overall perception test scores directly after instruction, but examination of the values reveals that accuracy scores in both groups declined after instruction. Table 2 shows the overall scores and scores on individual sets of items on the pretest and immediate posttest for both experimental groups.

Table 2

Pretest and Immediate Posttest Scores for Experimental Groups

	Classroom Group				**Laboratory Group**			
	Pretest		Im-Posttest		Pretest		Im-Posttest	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Overall	80.83	4.84	65.56	15.30	87.17	5.58	69.83	14.71
Same Words	97.78	6.67	98.89	3.33	94.00	11.83	98.67	3.52

Different Words	100.0	0.00	98.89	3.33	100.0	0.00	100.0	0.00
Near Min. Pairs [s]	100.0	0.00	45.56	46.40	98.67	5.16	57.33	45.27
Near Min. Pairs [h]	25.56	21.28	18.89	18.33	32.00	20.77	23.33	23.50

Note. Mean scores presented in percentages.

Paired-sample t-tests were conducted to see if either of the experimental groups experienced improvement on specific item types between the pretest and the immediate posttest. Table 3 shows the results for the classroom group and Table 4 shows the results for the laboratory group. No significant difference was found in the scores for minimal pairs with [h] for the classroom group, $t(8) = 1.16$, p = .282, or the laboratory group, $t(14) = 1.44$, p = .171, which indicates that the posttest changes were not due to change in the scores for near minimal pairs with aspiration. Similar tests were conducted for the other types of pairs, revealing no significant differences for items with pairs of the same word or with pairs containing two different words. In items containing near minimal pairs with [s], a significant difference was found for both the classroom group, $t(8) = 3.52$, $p = .008$, and the laboratory group, $t(14) = 3.46$, $p = .004$. Therefore, the participants' performance on these items seems to account for the decline in overall scores for both experimental groups.

Table 3

Paired Sample T-Tests on Pretest and Immediate Posttest for Classroom Group

	M	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Overall	15.28	13.94	3.29	8	**.011**
Same Words	6.67	17.32	-0.43	8	.282
Different Words	1.11	3.33	1.00	8	.347
Near Min. Pairs [s]	54.44	46.40	3.52	8	**.008**
Near Min. Pairs [h]	6.67	17.32	1.16	8	.282

Note. Mean represents mean change (pretest score-immediate posttest score). Statistically significant differences of p < .05 appear in bold.

Table 4

Paired Sample T-Tests on Pretest and Immediate Posttest for Laboratory Group

	M	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Overall	11.33	14.20	3.09	14	**.008**
Same Words	-4.67	11.87	-1.52	14	.150
Different Words	n/a, scores equal on pretest and immediate posttest				
Near Min. Pairs [s]	41.33	46.27	3.46	14	**.004**
Near Min. Pairs [h]	8.67	23.26	1.44	14	.171

Note. Mean represents mean change (pretest score-immediate posttest score). Statistically significant differences of p < .05 appear in bold.

A closer examination of the posttest scores reveals some interesting findings. When comparing the overall posttest scores for the classroom group (*M* = 68.06, *SD* = 11.91) to the immediate posttest scores, a paired sample t-test did not reveal statistically significant difference, *t*(8) = -.85, *p* = .421. Similarly, no significant difference was revealed for the laboratory group when comparing the posttest scores (*M* = 73.00, *SD* = 14.05) to the immediate posttest scores, *t*(15) = -1.57, *p* = .139. We can therefore conclude that changes to participants' phonological systems were maintained two weeks after instruction. When examining overall scores for control group we find a statistically significant difference, *t*(18) = -2.51, *p* = .022 between the the posttest score (*M* = 82.89, *SD* = 4.19) and pretest score (*M* = 80.79, *SD* = 46.44), although the changes is very slight.

Discussion

Consideration of the Findings

The results of the study did not reveal improvement in the perception of /s/ aspiration for either of the experimental groups, and therefore do not allow us to answer the second research question, which asked if a particular instructional style would lead to more improvement in students' perception. We can, however, draw some conclusions regarding the first research question, which considered whether pronunciation instruction could improve the perception of /s/ aspiration in Spanish by native English speaking participants. While there was a statistically significant difference in the pretest and immediate posttest scores for both experimental groups, the scores revealed a decline in accuracy even though the scores on minimal pairs with [h] such as *gasto-gato* [expense-cat] pronounced ['gah.t̪o]-['ga.t̪o] remained unchanged after instruction.

As noted earlier, aspiration has proven to be difficult to perceive by native English speakers (George, 2014; Rasmussen & Zampini, 2010; Schmidt, 2011). The aspiration of /s/ produces an allophone [h] which is very similar to the faithful allophone of the phoneme /h/ in English. The SLM predicts that L2 sounds that are similar to L1 sounds are more difficult to differentiate due to equivalence classification and therefore similar sounds require more input to differentiate them from already established L1 categories (Flege 1995). The finding that perception in minimal pairs with [h] did not improve suggests to us that perhaps more input was needed for participants to establish a new L2 category [h], which would allow them to perceive the sound in word-internal position.

Of the four item types included in the perception tests, the only statistically significant difference that was found after instruction was for items containing near minimal pairs with [s], such as *gasto-gato* [expense-cat] pronounced ['gas.t̪o]-['ga.t̪o], which declined after instruction (see Tables 2-4). Had instruction positively affected the perception of /s/ aspiration, we would have expected the accurate perception of minimal pairs with [s] to stay the same after instruction, while expecting the inaccurate perception of minimal pairs with [h] to to improve after instruction. On the immediate posttest, participants in the experimental groups began to mark pairs such as *gasto-gato* [expense-cat] pronounced ['gas.t̪o]-['ga.t̪o] as being the same rather than different, which contributed to an overall decline in their scores after

instruction. [2] It seems that the awareness of /s/ aspiration and the position in which it can occur that was gained through pronunciation instruction led students to assume that the second token in minimal pairs with [s] actually contained aspiration, such as ['gas.to]-['gah.to] meaning *gasto-gasto* [expense-expense]. Their awareness of this process may have allowed them to come to the conclusion that this type of pair included the same word pronounced two ways: without /s/ aspiration and with /s/ aspiration. This finding demonstrates that even though participants' perception of pairs with aspiration did not show improvement, they developed an understanding of the process and were able to generalize it to positions in which it could actually occur.

It is interesting to note that although production was not explicitly tested in this study, participants in the classroom group were observed accurately pronouncing the aspiration of /s/ during instruction. As the laboratory group worked independently, the researcher was not able to observe the participants' production collectively. This observation cannot be explained by the SLM as it assumes that productive accuracy cannot exceed perceptual accuracy, but it does seem to mimic the findings of a handful of other studies which have found that learners are more accurate in their production than their perception of particular sound contrasts (Gass, 1984; Goto, 1971; Kluge, Rauber, Reis & Hoffman, 2007; Sheldon & Strange, 1982; Tsukada et al., 2005; Zampini, 1998).

Unlike with the experimental groups, our examination of the control group revealed a very slight improvement in the overall posttest scores. This improvement may reflect an increased familiarity with the testing procedure. The pauses between items were designed to be short in order to foster quick decisions rather than analysis. Due to the relatively rapid succession of items, participants had to adjust to recording their decisions quickly on the pretest. When it came time for the posttest, participants' previous experience likely allowed them to be more prepared to answer quickly on the first few items.

Based solely on the results of this study, we are unable to support the hypothesis that pronunciation instruction has a positive effect on discriminatory listening comprehension, at least in the case of /s/ aspiration. The results do suggest, however, that learning about a phonological process can occur and can even be applied to environments within a word where it naturally occurs in native speech.

Limitations and Future Studies

One limitation of the study seems to be that more instructional time was needed in order to provide a sufficient amount of input. This is an obviously tricky obstacle as certain types of input would be categorized as contrastive perceptual training, which would compromise the methodological design of the study. The number of activities that a researcher has to choose from that both provide input and avoid explicit perception training is relatively limited, as is the potential attention span of students asked to participate in a lesson consisting only of listen-and-repeat activities. Increasing instructional time by providing more sessions over several classes could help to resolve this problem.

In addition to the need for more input, some improvements could have been made to the materials. An examination of the recordings made for the perception

tests revealed that some pairs of words exhibited different intonations, which could offer clues to students that particular pairs of words were different. One of the near minimal pairs with [h] also included additional noise in the first word of the pair which led some participants to mark the pair as being different in the pretest, even though they likely would have marked the pair as being the same given that their perceptual accuracy of /s/ aspiration was low for all other similar items. Rather than recording each pair of words separately, recording only one token of each word and splicing the recordings together to create the pairs would have avoided the potential effect of intonational information on the students' perception.

Very few studies to date have investigated the isolated effect of pronunciation instruction on learners' listening comprehension, while limiting the effects of contrastive perception training. Clearly, our understanding of the effect of instruction on learners' developing L2 phonological systems would benefit from further study. It seems that some sound contrasts, like /s/ aspiration for native speakers of English, may be harder to affect through pronunciation instruction than others. Previous studies have focused on the effects of broader instruction on overall listening comprehension, while this study focused on the perception of a single L2 contrast. It would be beneficial to combine these methodologies in order to compare overall listening comprehension to the perception of particular L2 contrasts that were taught. A combined methodology will help us gain insight into which types of L2 sound contrasts are most positively affected by pronunciation instruction and which contrasts are the most important to teach in order to improve students' listening comprehension.

Implications for Teaching Pronunciation

There are some obvious benefits of teaching pronunciation in the beginner language classroom (Arteaga, 2000). As observed incidentally within this study, participants in the classroom group were readily able to produce /s/ aspiration. While retention of pronunciation was not tested, this observation indicates it is possible that teaching pronunciation for the sake of more native-like pronunciation may be successful within a short instructional session. A review of studies on the perception of non-native Spanish by native speakers found that pronunciation plays a major role in learners' intelligibility (Agostinelli, 2012) as it can cause more comprehension difficulties on the part of native-speakers than grammatical errors (Gynan, 1985), and at the beginner-level, students make more pronunciation errors than other types of errors (Galloway, 1980). As one overarching goal of L2 instruction is to prepare learners to interact with native speakers outside the classroom, we can conclude that devoting time to pronunciation instruction is indeed worthwhile, as it has the potential to increase learners' intelligibility.

While we are not necessarily advocating teaching the process of /s/ aspiration with the intention of having students regularly reproduce it within their own speech, a major benefit to students is that it raises dialectal awareness. Such awareness can aid in successful communication outside of the classroom. Knowing that a process, such as aspiration, exists and how it affects the pronunciation of a word can allow a student to be aware of these differences when interacting with native speakers. Schmidt (2009) found that dialect familiarity gained through a three-week study

abroad trip significantly improved students' listening comprehension of that dialect. Students' generalization of the aspiration to minimal pairs containing [s] on the perception tests clearly indicate the development of an awareness of /s/ aspiration after one relatively short instructional period, which suggests that we may be able to offer the same type of benefit through pronunciation instruction.

Conclusion

Studies such as this one highlight the need for sound empirical research to guide teaching methodologies used in the L2 classroom. While this study showed that pronunciation instruction can help learners develop an awareness of a /s/ aspiration, it may be too early to conclude that articulatory pronunciation instruction always offers significant benefits to discriminatory listening comprehension. This should not, however, detract from the many ways in which pronunciation instruction has been shown to benefit learners, such as improving their intelligibility and raising their awareness of dialectal variation. Further study will help us to better understand the complex effects that pronunciation instruction has on the L2 phonological system and may reveal additional ways in which we can enhance its benefits for learners.

Endnotes

[1] It is worth noting that in some dialects there is free variation between deletion and aspiration of /s/. As this variability was not introduced to participants through instruction, such variability did not play a role in the methodological design of the study.

[2] For items such as ['gas.t̪o]-['ga.t̪o], a native speaker could possibly identify these as being two pronunciations of the same word given the free variation of deletion and aspiration of /s/ that exists in some dialects.

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Appendix A

Near Minimal Pairs

Spanish Pair	Phonetic Transcription	English Translation
basta-bata	['bas.t̪a]/['bah.t̪a]-['ba.t̪a]	that's enough!-coat/gown
gasto-gato	['gas.t̪o]/['gah.t̪o]-['ga.t̪o]	expense-cat
hasta-ata	['as.t̪a]/['ah.t̪a]-['a.t̪a]	until-he/she/you (formal) ties
mismo-mimo	['mis.mo]/['mih.mo]-['mi.mo]	same-mime
mosca-moca	['mos.ka]/['moh.ka]-['mo.ka]	fly-mocha
muslo-mulo	['mus.lo]/['muh.lo]-['mu.lo]	thigh-mule
pisco-pico	['pis.ko]/['pih.ko]-['pi.ko]	grape liquor-beak
pista-pita	['pis.t̪a]/['pih.t̪a]-['pi.t̪a]	clue-agave
resto-reto	['res.t̪o]/['reh.to]-['re.t̪o]	remainder-challenge
risco-rico	['ris.ko]/['rih.ko]-['ri.ko]	cliff-rich

Spanish↔English Translation Studies: An Adaptable Curricular Model

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Abstract

The University of North Carolina at Charlotte has long offered undergraduate and graduate programs in Spanish↔English Translating and Translation Studies (TTS). The curriculum is based on a systematic articulation of history, theory, and method for all course work in different translation modes and content domains, and on continuously relating this foundational knowledge to praxis and vice versa. History, theory, method, and praxis are intertwined with the learner outcome goals of developing research skills, resources, and technology-based tools upon which to continue building in order to become effective translators for the long term. The program and curriculum provide an adaptable model for meeting this objective.

Key words: translating, translation studies, translation history, translation theory and method, translation curriculum development, translation curricular model

Curricular vision and implementation must always keep a finger on the pulse of the times in order to best prepare students for the world they will encounter upon graduation and in order for academic programs to retain and strengthen their relevance and centrality.

(Doyle, 2010, p. 84)

Background

The University of North Carolina at Charlotte has long offered undergraduate and graduate programs in Spanish↔English Translating and Translation Studies (TTS) as core options within its Spanish for the Professions and Specific Purposes (SPSP) curricular portfolio. This article provides an overview of the creation and evolution of the undergraduate and graduate TTS curricula, based on the importance of laying a multifaceted foundation in history, theory, and method for all related course work in different translation modes and content domains such as film subtitling, political speeches, and business, among others. The goal of the article is to share an adaptable curricular model based on sustained best practices in university-level Spanish↔English TTS. The key outcome anticipated is that this should be of interest for institutions contemplating similar curricular development, or adjustments to an

existing curriculum, whether for the Spanish↔English language pair or additional language pairs, as has also been done at UNC Charlotte. The article proceeds from general to specific considerations, moving from an overview of program architecture to theoretical and methodological foundations, and then to representative examples of recent graduate courses.

Curricular Overview of Spanish↔English Translation Studies at UNC Charlotte

In 1979, three professors in the Department of Foreign Languages at UNC Charlotte had the collaborative foresight to imagine and implement a tripartite undergraduate certificate in translating (CT).[1] Today, nearly four decades later, the department, renamed the Department of Languages and Culture Studies (LCS) in 1999, has built upon those forward-looking architectural foundations to offer a rich array of programming in translating (praxis) and translation studies (a theory-based scholarly field of inquiry), consisting of:

- An undergraduate Certificate in Translating (CT in French-English, German-English, Russian-English, or Spanish↔English), which has awarded 204 certificates since the year 2000;[2]

- Undergraduate majors in French, German, and Spanish that include substantial course work in translating;

- A Graduate Certificate in Translating and Translation Studies (GCTTS: Spanish↔English);

- A Master of Arts in Spanish with the option of a full Concentration in Spanish↔English Translating and Translation Studies.

In addition, the following curricular proposals have recently been approved on campus:[3]

- Add Japanese↔English to the undergraduate CT, increasing the total number of language pairs to five.

- Add French↔English, German↔English, Japanese↔English and Russian↔English options to the Graduate Certificate portfolio, also bringing its language pair total to five.

- Change the undergraduate CT rubric to Certificate in Languages and Culture Studies (CLCS): X, in which the part preceding the colon symbolizes the broadly inclusive department name itself—thereby strengthening the name recognition and brand of the Department of Languages and Culture Studies—while the part following the colon, represented here by an X for illustration, names a specific purpose such as Certificate in Languages and Culture Studies (CLCS): Spanish↔English Translation (adaptable for other language pairs such as Japanese↔English Translation, or even multilingual combinations such as French↔German↔English Translation, etc.). Such a rubric provides the flexibility to adjust the specific purposes of X as warranted, pivoting across an evolving range of possibilities.

- Replace the existing GCTTS: English↔Spanish by folding it into a new Graduate Certificate in Languages and Culture Studies (GCLCS): Translating (options in French↔English, German↔English, Japanese↔English, Russian↔English,

and Spanish↔English), further reinforcing departmental name recognition and branding while also positioning the proposed new certificate to add other major world language pairs over time, e.g., Chinese↔English, Arabic↔English, etc.

These graduate certificates may serve as end products in themselves. They may also constitute the components for a stackable 30-credit hour M.A. in Language for Specific Purposes (LSP), whereby different GCLSPs (which may include different X content domains such as translating or business language) may be stacked together or combined to meet the bulk of the new M.A. credit hour requirements (24 credit hours + 6 more credit hours). This may be achieved by:

- Stacking or combining *within* the same language concentration (e.g., French, German, Japanese or Spanish) a minimum of two different 12-credit hour graduate certificates (= 24 credit hours) in X-LSP content domains, e.g., translating + business language; or by

- Stacking or combining two 12-credit hour graduate certificates (= 24 credit hours) coherently *across* different language concentrations, such as Spanish + French, or French + Japanese, or German + Spanish.

The ongoing evolution of the TTS curriculum at UNC Charlotte, particularly in Spanish, the non-English language of largest national enrollment in the U.S. for many decades now, represents "ongoing efforts to create and maintain a timely, responsive, and integrative Spanish curriculum at UNC Charlotte" (Doyle, 2010, p. 83). The TTS program and course offerings have been a curricular response to learner needs and enrollment demand driven by the legitimate needs of society, long considered a most fundamental educational raison d'être (Bok, 1990; Gilley, 1991). They also continue to respond to compelling calls for curricular transformation such as "Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World," issued by the Modern Language Association of America in 2007 to " '[d]evelop programs in translation and interpretation' because '[t]here is a great unmet demand for educated translators and interpreters, and translation is an ideal context for developing translingual and transcultural abilities as an organizing principle of the language curriculum' " (Doyle, 2010, p. 81).

Such demand is fully supported by the *Occupational Outlook Handbook, 2016-17 Edition* forecast, consistent with and even surpassing its own compelling trends from preceding years:[4]

> Employment of interpreters and translators is *projected to grow 29 percent from 2014 to 2024, much faster than the average for all occupations*. Employment growth will be driven by increasing globalization and by large increases in the number of non-English-speaking people in the United States (...). The median annual wage for interpreters and translators was $43,590 in May 2014 [$20.96 per hour]. (Emphasis added.) (United States Department of Labor, 2015).

The *Handbook* also reported that "Job prospects should be best for those who have at least a bachelor's degree and for those who have professional certification. Those with a master's degree in interpreting and/or translation also should have an advantage" (United States Department of Labor, 2015). Further, "interpreters and translators of Spanish should have good job prospects because of expected increases

in the population of Spanish speakers in the United States" (United States Department of Labor, 2015). All of the above points to learner-centered concerns such as:

> [H]ow do we enhance our preparation of today's students of Spanish for fuller participation in the global village and economy into which they will graduate? How might they become better prepared to put their study of other languages and cultures to use, which increasingly factors in *their* real-world needs and inclinations, once they begin to seek gainful employment? (Doyle, 2010, p. 80).

Of course, the highly marketable skills in translating and interpreting extend beyond the dedicated education and training of qualified translators and interpreters to include critical-thinking skills such as intercultural communication per se, editing, quality assurance, and cross-cultural localization (i.e., cultural adaptation).

Particulars of the Spanish↔English TTS programs at UNC Charlotte are the following:

- The undergraduate Certificate in Translating, which has awarded 86 certificates since 2000, is earned by completing 12 credit hours of the following course work:

  - TRAN 3401 - Introduction to Translation Studies. Credit Hours: (3) History, theory, pragmatics, and procedures of the field of translation. Introduction to text typology, terminology, and issues such as register, audience, editing, and computer-assisted translating. Conducted in English.

  - TRAN 4402S - Practicum in Translating I - Spanish. Credit Hours: (3) May count as coursework for the Spanish major. Understanding audience, text typologies, register, and regionalisms. Continues with theory of translation. Conducted in English and Spanish.

  - TRAN 4403S - Practicum in Translating II - Spanish. Credit Hours: (3) Emphasizes commercial, financial, legal, political, medical, and scientific translation. Continues with history and theory of translation. Conducted in English and Spanish. May be taken concurrently with TRAN 4404S and may also count as coursework for the Spanish major.

  - TRAN 4404S - Practicum in Translating III - Spanish. Credit Hours: (3) Emphasizes literary, cultural, and consumer-level translation. Conducted in English and Spanish. May be taken concurrently with TRAN 4403S and may also count as coursework for the Spanish major. (See UNC Charlotte Catalog in References)

- The 31-credit hour undergraduate BA in Spanish may include up to nine TTS credit hours in its Concentration in Applied Spanish (which accounts for 75% of the enrollment in the Spanish major) as follows: TRAN 4402S, TRAN 4403S and TRAN 4404S (UNC Charlotte Planning Sheet). It may include up to three TTS credit hours in its Concentration in Literature and Culture (either TRAN 4402S, TRAN 4403S or TRAN 4404S). (See UNC Charlotte Planning Sheet in References).

The Graduate Certificate in Translating and Translation Studies (GCTTS: Spanish↔English) is designed for post-baccalaureate, graduate, and post-graduate students who study the history, theory, and profession of translation; work intensively

in the analysis and translation of different types of discourse, including non-literary and literary texts; become familiar with computer-assisted translation; and develop project management and advanced post-editing skills. Graduate-level coursework may also include special topics courses in translation and up to three credit hours of professional internship in translating. Twenty-eight graduate certificates have been awarded since the program's implementation in 2004. It is earned by completing 18 credit hours of course work (See Appendix A).

The 30-credit hour Master of Arts in Spanish: Concentration in Spanish ↔English Translating and Translation Studies consists of six credit hours in Spanish course work plus 24 specialized TTS credit hours that draw from course work in the history, theory, and method of translation; the analysis and translation of different types of texts and discourse: business, technical, medical, legal, scholarly, and literary; and linguistics for translators, computer-assisted translating, and translation project management. It may also include special topics courses in Spanish↔English translation, up to 3 hours of professional internship in translating, and a translation thesis (equivalent to 6 hours). 65 of the 103 M.A. in Spanish degrees awarded since 2004 (63% of total) have been in the TTS concentration. (See Appendix B for M.A. TTS concentration courses.)

In sum, the TTS programs in Spanish↔English at UNC Charlotte currently offer a total of 15 courses: 4 undergraduate and 11 graduate. Overall, factoring in French, German, Russian and Spanish, the Department of Languages and Culture Studies offers a total of 13 undergraduate TTS courses, which will grow to 16 when Japanese is added. The number of graduate courses will increase from 11 to 21 with the addition of four new languages to the graduate certificate. Throughout the TTS curriculum

> The teaching of translation involves mentoring in methodology, which presupposes theory, interwoven diachronically and synchronically, that ranges from descriptive to prescriptive to speculative; all are important considerations for the practicing or would-be translator who benefits from being theoretically informed and therefore more self-critically and confidently engaged in the act of translation (Doyle, 2012, p. 44).

Furthermore, there exists a shared conviction that it is "theory-based translation pedagogy that helps anchor translation studies firmly in the humanities" (Doyle, 2012, p. 47), such that broad foundational considerations in history, theory, and method permeate the curriculum.

Foundations in History, Theory, and Method: TRAN 3401 (Undergraduate) and TRAN 6001 (Graduate)

As a student described it at the end of the Fall 2015 semester, TRAN 3401 has the dubious distinction of being considered one of the most difficult courses that can be taken at UNC Charlotte. Paradoxically, the course has become increasingly popular and it regularly enrolls 60 to 80 students per semester, up dramatically from the 10-15 a decade ago when it was first taught. TRAN 3401 does not count for the Spanish major because it is taught in English but it is a required core course for the Undergraduate Certificate in Translation. The course syllabus specifies that TRAN 3401 could also be called "Becoming a Translator" since this is the main objective of

the readings and projects that students engage in throughout the very intense semester. The course quickly dispels many myths about translation. It highlights that while translation consists of nitty-gritty tasks, the work can be very exhilarating. Through a series of theoretical and practical readings, practice exercises, projects and presentations, students who successfully complete all the tasks should be able to develop foundational research skills, resources and the tools upon which to build in order to become effective translators. TRAN 3401 is a course that can be taken by students from any language taught in the Department of Languages and Culture Studies, whether for credit toward their respective Translation Certificate or as part of the foreign language majors other than Spanish. It is also a course that can count toward the recently established interdisciplinary minor in linguistics, offered by the Department of English. Thus, TRAN 3401 is geared toward a highly diverse population, which is why students are not asked to complete translation tasks; instead the course focuses on how a translator prepares, thinks, works and accomplishes the daunting task of conveying information in another language. Students' different backgrounds require that the class concentrate mostly on the *process* instead of the *product*, the *how* instead of the *what*, which is emphasized in subsequent courses. Moreover, students are expected to develop their own methods to better suit their particular needs and objectives because, as Robinson (2003) has written, "good translators are always in the process of 'becoming' translators—which is to say, learning to translate better, learning more about language and culture and translation" (p. 56).

The undergraduate TRAN 3401 course is structured in three parts. First, students are introduced to the basics of translation: from understanding the difference between translation and interpretation to familiarizing themselves with the website of the American Translators Association and the ATA "Code of Ethics and Professional Practice" that they are expected to follow. During this initial stage, the importance of literacy proficiency in both the source and target languages is also discussed. Any committed translator will attest to the need of being obsessed with language and this is one of the main objectives for the course. The course emphasizes to students that being bilingual, or spending a year abroad is not enough. It is important that they recognize that their language skills must be constantly refined and improved if they are to become successful translators. It is, for most students, a harsh realization. The aim of TRAN 3401 is to have students come out of the course with a fuller understanding of the inherent difficulty that the profession entails; that is, a commitment to languages and to deepening one's knowledge about them. Robinson (2003) summarizes this process:

> Translators and interpreters are voracious and omnivorous readers, people who are typically in the middle of four books at once, in several languages, fiction and nonfiction, technical and humanistic subjects, anything and everything. They are hungry for real-world experience as well, through travel, living abroad for extended periods, learning foreign languages and cultures, and above all paying attention to how people use language all around them: the plumber, the kids' teachers, the convenience store clerk, the doctor, the bartender, friends and colleagues from this or that region or social class, and so on. (p. 23)

The group exercises during the initial phase of the course have to do with how

quickly languages change, now more than ever, and how meanings shift. There are exercises that show the students how well prepared they need to be, in two languages, before starting to translate. One of the most well received exercises is the comparison of two English translations of the opening paragraphs of *À la recherche du temps perdu* by French novelist Marcel Proust (1871-1922). The first translation is Moncrieff's from 1922, which was subsequently revised seventy years later by Kilmartin and Enright in 1992; the other is by the noted American writer Lydia Davis whose new version of the novel appeared in 2004. In the future, the activity will incorporate articles dealing with the Oregon Shakespeare Festival decision to translate Shakespeare's language into modern language since the original text is often too difficult for today's audiences to understand.[5]

The goal of these exercises is two-fold: initially, students need to understand how pliable language can be depending on its purpose. Also, once students realize how playful and provisional translation can be, they will soon move beyond the idea that since they speak two languages, they are ready to translate. The readings are intended to show that translation is radically different from a simple transference of words into two languages, rather it is actually a highly complicated and arduous transformational process. Tangentially, these readings reveal to students that their reading and writing skills in the target language (mostly English) need to be improved greatly. As Dryden wrote in 1693 (as cited in Mitford, 1836, vol. 2):

> The qualification of a translator worth reading must be a mastery of the language he translates out of, and that he translates into; but if a deficiency be allowed in either, it is in the original… It is impossible to render all those little ornaments of speech in any two languages; and if he have a mastery in the sense and spirit of his author, and in his own language have a style and happiness of expression, he will easily supply all that is lost by that defect. (p. 425)

Achieving a high proficiency level in the target language so that students can "easily supply all that is lost" in the translation process should become apparent to the learners during the first part of the course.

The second part of TRAN 3401 deals with the history of the academic discipline known as translation studies. Here students are moved away from any ethnocentric tradition and begin with an overview of the earliest translations recorded, such as the *Rigveda* in Sanskrit (1500-1200 BC) or the earliest definitions of the translation process in China around the 11th century BC. Centuries later, in 379, Dao An creates the Chang'an School of translation and the debates about literal and free translation, a core issue in translation studies, begin. Considerations then move to the House of Wisdom (*Bayt al-Hikma*) where scholars and translators undertook the translation into Arabic of all the texts from the ancient world that had survived, followed by a discussion of the works of Hunayn ibn Ishaq (808-873) who translated Plato and Aristotle and the most important treatises of medicine published until then. The vast output of the House of Wisdom and its many translators will constitute the "original" works that the "Toledo School of Translators" (approximately 11th-13th centuries AD) will later translate into Latin following the cross-translation method carried out by three translators from the different cultures who lived in Toledo at the time: Arabic, Jewish and Catholic.

TRAN 3401 proceeds chronologically with the study of major translation theo-

rists and the different debates around topics such as: word for word vs. sense for sense or literal vs. free translation, and students routinely discuss issues of equivalence, untranslatability, accuracy, faithfulness, adequacy, identity, correspondence, loss and gain, and, of course, the translation of religious texts and its significance. Jeremy Munday's *Introducing Translation Studies. Theories and Applications* is the text for this section. Students become acquainted with the historical significance in the field of translation studies of Cicero (106 BC-43 BC); St. Jerome (340-420) and the Vulgate; Martin Luther (1483-1546) and his "Circular Letter on Translating" from 1530; Etienne Dolet (1509-1546); John Dryden (1631-1700) and his foundational definitions of paraphrase, metaphrase and imitation; and A. F. Tytler (1747-1813). The work of Friedrich Schleiermacher (1768-1834) in the field of hermeneutics is of particular interest for the course given his impact on future translation studies, especially his notions of translation as a process where there are but two choices: either the original author is brought to the reader (naturalization) or the reader is taken to the author (alienation).

At this point, the course focuses on Roman Jakobson (1896-1982) and his seminal "On Linguistic Aspects of Translation" (1959) and, specifically, his discussions of linguistic meaning and equivalence. Students examine the equivalence effect and how translators address problems when no immediate equivalent is found. Jakobson's argument helps Eugene Nida (1914-2011) formulate his model of dynamic vs. formal equivalence. For both Jakobson and Nida, there was always an equivalent to be found; it might not be an exact equivalent but there were resources that translators could use so the translation would convey a very similar meaning to the target reader. Other key linguistic theorists studied in the course are Noam Chomsky, Katharina Reiss, Peter Newmark, Hans Vermeer's Skopos theory, and Even-Zohar's polysystems theory, which serves as a linchpin for the last group of theorists and is closely related to what has been called "the cultural turn" in translation studies.

After the linguistic and structuralist approaches to translation, a major shift takes place during the 1980's put forth by André Lefevere (1945-1996) and Susan Bassnett (b. 1945). For Lefevere (2004), "Translation needs to be studied in connection with power and patronage, ideology and poetics, with emphasis on the various attempts to shore up or undermine an existing ideology or an existing poetics" (p. 10). He moves the field of translation studies from notions of equivalence and translatability to an analysis of the "intercultural transaction" (Bassnett, 2014, p. 83) of discourses that occurs during the translation process. Students consider the key role that translation plays in the dissemination and the censoring of ideas and the fact that some of the foundational texts of Western society are a product of one or sometimes multiple translations. Since students have already analyzed how challenging and perilous translating can be, the cultural turn allows them to examine how some texts have prevailed over others. Moreover, and perhaps most importantly, it opens doors for them to ask why. The cultural turn was heavily influenced by the postmodernist academic discourses, mainly on gender and postcolonial studies led by the work of Jacques Derrida (1930-2004) on deconstruction, Gayatri Chakravorty Spivak, and Homi Bhabha, theorists who have worked directly with the issues of translation and who always make us question what society chooses as its discourse. This section of TRAN 3401 concludes with the work of Lawrence Venuti (2004) and

his critique of the invisibility of the figure of the translator in the U.S.

The final part of the course is devoted to reading Mona Baker's *In Other Words. A Coursework on Translation*. Since the students come not only from different backgrounds but also will be working with different target languages and will be taking the different practica courses that the Department of Languages and Culture Studies offers, all the examples are in English. Mona Baker offers a systematic approach to the translator's task. She begins with translation problems of equivalence at word level before moving to equivalence beyond the word level. In both cases, she offers examples of non-equivalence and strategies to solve the problems in a systematic manner. Through the use of semantic sets and lexical fields, students are given tools for the complex task of translation. Baker also explains the importance of both pragmatics and implicature in the translation process and ends by developing her notions of coherence and cohesion in translation. Coherence and cohesion, two difficult concepts for many students, are addressed recurrently so that they may acquire a full comprehension of these concepts by the end of the course. Coherence deals with the understanding of the text and translating it so that it is fully understood by the target audience. Cohesion is the process of finessing the five elements that Mona Baker groups under this second step: reference, ellipsis, substitution, conjunction and lexical cohesion. Once students understand what the coherence-cohesion interplay entails, they are better positioned to begin translating.

Throughout this demanding undergraduate course, students are introduced to a significant number of translation theories and a variety of methods. The course guides them through the theory and the practice in order for them to develop their own strategies in their respective target languages. Robinson (2003) considers the translator to be "at once a *professional* for whom complex mental processes have become second nature (and thus subliminal), and a *learner* who must constantly face and solve new problems in conscious analytical ways" (p. 84). The effort that students put forth to understand foundational theories and translation issues prepares them for the practica that follow. At the beginning of the semester, students may think that translation would be a relatively easy and simple transfer of meanings; but they soon discover that the question posed by Venuti (2004), "Can a translation ever communicate to its readers the understanding of the foreign text that the foreign readers have?" (p. 487), demands a methodological process that is far more daunting than they expected it to be.

For the M.A. in Spanish: Concentration in Spanish↔English Translating and the Graduate Certificate in Translating and Translation Studies, the theory course is TRAN 6001S. It is required for both the M.A. and the Graduate Certificate because of a shared belief by the faculty that graduate students need to have knowledge of the translation process supported by a solid academic understanding of its history, theories, methods, and evolution. Graduate students are required to read the source texts of representative thinkers and translators, which will provide them with a deep understanding of the critical issues in translation theory and translation studies. Most importantly, graduate students are expected to develop their own theory-based framework for discussing issues related to the course. The required core readings are Susan Bassnett's *Translation Studies*, André Lefevere's *Translation/ History/ Culture: A Sourcebook*, and the Lawrence Venuti edited collection *The Translation Stud-*

ies Reader, which contains many of the key theory figures in the 20ᵗʰ Century, very similar to the authors that are read in the undergraduate course, allowing learners to trace the recent evolution of translation studies. M.A. graduate students are also expected to complete the Graduate Reading List for the Translating and Translation Studies (TTS) concentration (see in References). As Venuti (2012) writes in the introduction to the edited volume that is used in the course:

> The map of translation studies drawn here, its centers and peripheries, admissions and exclusions, reflects the current fragmentation of the field into subspecialties, some empirically oriented, some hermeneutic and literary, and some influenced by various forms of linguistics and cultural studies which have resulted in productive syntheses. (p. 2)

Given the interdisciplinary nature of translation studies, students are encouraged to apply the readings to other academic specialties where they can combine their particular background knowledge to that particular field. Other disciplines such as gender studies, history, philosophy or art, which might seem distant to the world of translation are, in actuality, always present and, in the cultural turn, students are invited to explore and deconstruct the once-ignored figure of the translator. The last part of the readings is expected to challenge graduate students to think critically about the processes and products of translation while also challenging antiquated notions of what translation means in our contemporary world.

Curricular Innovation: Examples of Graduate Course Translation Modes, Content Domains, and Methods

As has been shown, the Department of Languages and Culture Studies has been adopting forward-looking curricular revision strategies that build on the foundations of the past and look at the present and future in order to make the curriculum relevant in a variety of ways. The innovations that have been introduced throughout the history of UNC Charlotte's Translation Studies Program reflect needs assessment in the areas of student language proficiency, student learning outcomes, student interests, infrastructures where translations are developed, research on translators' competencies, and market demand for translation services. The most recent example of this type of needs assessment leading to curricular innovation in the department is a survey of students enrolled in foreign languages, distributed from March 15-18, 2016 to gauge interest in "adding INTERPRETING (spoken, oral translation) to its longstanding programs in TRANSLATING (written translation)." The survey instrument explained the following, along with possible outcomes:[6]

> Interpreting between languages often is used by intercultural communication facilitators in areas such as Business, Medical and Health Care, Criminal Justice, Conference Interpreting, and Community Interpreting. We are interested in hearing back about your level of interest in adding INTERPRETING to our courses and programs (the certificates in translating, minor and majors). The Certificate in Translation might then evolve into a CERTIFICATE IN TRANSLATING AND INTERPRETING.

There were 141 respondents with 117 (83%) indicating that "If INTERPRETING

were added to the curriculum, I would enroll in a class." 55 of the 141 respondents took the time to provide comments explaining their support. The result is that in the fall semester of 2016, the department offered its first-ever, upper-level undergraduate course in Spanish↔English interpreting, taught by a specialist in medical interpreting with an M.D. degree along with a UNC Charlotte Master of Arts in Spanish: Concentration in Spanish↔English Translating and Translation Studies. Interpreting is now being added to the graduate offerings as well.

The profile of both undergraduate and graduate student-translators at UNC Charlotte is similar to that of students in other programs with regard to the types of texts they prefer to translate when they first begin the program and what they imagine being a translator is all about. At the beginning of their program, student preferences are usually driven by the type of translation that the market demands, along the lines of what Lung and Yan (2004, p. 5-7) report in reference to student translators at the University of Hong Kong. In their study, they found that undergraduate students who were in the second year of their translation major were more interested in translating non-literary texts. In contrast, those who had recently graduated expressed appreciation toward translating literary texts. In fact, the very notion of *literary text* evolves as learners progress through the program and begin to see that the neatly Manichaean conceptualization of *non-literary texts* versus *literary texts* as the only two camps where text types exist gradually becomes more textured. They realize that the two super-abstractions encapsulated in the labels *literary texts* and *non-literary texts* mask a complex canvas of texts where scientific texts can be literary and literary may read as technical. The discovery of this complex canvas is no less trivial than the awe moment students experience when they realize that generic terms such as *language, Spanish,* and *English*, to name just a few, obscure a complex reality of dialects, idiolects, sociolects, regionalects, registers, and a countless number of nuances that become invisible when we use these generic terms. Discovering the complexities of a natural language as a communication tool and weaving the resulting knowledge into the translation task constitutes the specialized body of knowledge that characterizes the practitioner and the professional, it is the type of knowledge that Cordero (1994) cites as the "most distinguishing factor of a profession" (p. 177).

UNC Charlotte's translation program is designed so that students experience the act of translation as a multifaceted intellectual endeavor that requires competencies that go well beyond bilingual proficiency. At the same time, the design of the courses reflects the curricular philosophy of the program architects, who from the outset realized that, exception made of a couple of courses, the program had to offer courses that provided a substantial amount of actual translation experience inside and outside the classroom. The pedagogical principle that there is no substitute for theory-based, hands-on translation to develop expertise has been the foundation for both the current selection of courses, and the teaching and learning dynamics that characterize each of them.

The undergraduate translation certificate includes four courses, three of which are designated as *practicum*, focusing mainly on hands-on translation, and one (the TRAN 3401 presented earlier) focusing on the foundational history, theory, and method of translation. The practica are language-specific and they are offered in French, German, Russian, and Spanish. The Japanese program has recently added its

first practicum and is in the process of adding the remaining two, in alignment with the general structure of the undergraduate certificate. Each practicum is organized so that students are exposed to a rich sampler of varied sets of translation challenges that they need to resolve as student-translators. The first practicum places an emphasis on reflecting on how different audiences may affect the way the final translation product is shaped. The second has students zoom into the hands-on translation of financial, legal, medical, and scientific texts. Finally, the third has students reflect on texts that are characterized by the use of metaphor and the elaboration of ideas that stimulate the imagination. What sets apart this course from the traditional literary translation course is that the course provides a framework by which students can detect the hard-to-translate literary features not only in fiction and poetry but in other texts that are usually excluded from the literature canon, such as commercial advertising texts and political speeches.

All three practicum courses are designed so that students have translation experience with both a corpus of texts that all the students translate and are discussed in class, and a text chosen by each student as an individual semester-long 1500-2000-word translation project. Because in the translation industry translators usually translate into their strongest language, students may choose the language direction of their translations based on the language in which they are most proficient. However, some students realize the potential of translating into the language they are still developing as an opportunity to improve language proficiency and they will undertake the challenge of translating into their developing language. A key feature to the semester-long translation project is that students have to demonstrate awareness of their translation decisions and begin to develop expertise in heuristic decision making. Throughout their translation project student-translators have to document a selection of translation decisions by footnoting the nature of problems they encounter in specific segments of the source text, how they go about finding a translation solution (their methodology), and how this solution is informed by translation theory.

The undergraduate practica are taught with the aim of providing students with opportunities to gain awareness of translation decisions, decision-making strategies, and research strategies that they can apply later in their careers as they may specialize in the translation of specific text types and topics. In this respect, the pedagogy of the practicum courses is in line with the approach of other translation programs (Vermeer, 1998, p. 63).

Among the graduate courses, two reflect how professional translation works from the point of view of business dynamics. One is a course that has student-translators experience translation as assisted by different types of software. While machine-translation is often looked upon by professional translators as unreliable, the fact is that computer-assisted translation software, such as TRADOS and Déjà Vu, is increasingly used, or even required, by translation firms. These software vendors have even woven Google Translate into their systems (Killman, 2014, p. 86). The other graduate course, whose objective is to prepare students so that they may understand how a translation job is handled in the real world, is on translation project management. This course exposes students to the project manager role in the life cycle of a translation project, from inception to completion, including the role of the

translation project manager on the level of satisfaction of translators involved in the completion of a project (Rodríguez-Castro, 2013, p. 44).

There are two other graduate courses that have grown out of the realization that student-translators must be given opportunities to observe how fluid the notion of text type is and how important it is to be aware of this fluidity to understand how communication in natural languages works and, by extension, how the translation process should work. One of these courses is "Pragmatics, Politics, and Translation," which focuses on how natural language communication can be deceiving for naïve translators who approach the translation task with the assumption that every information unit is neatly hard-coded in either lexical, morphological or syntactic units. The course emphasizes the notion that the art of suggestion, hinting or insinuation, typically associated with literary texts, is a core element in political speeches that aim at persuading the masses. The semester-long 2500-3000-word translation project consists of translating a political speech. This project can be completed by one or two authors. The reflective footnotes on the translation process of this project have to demonstrate that the student-translators have identified areas of the message that are not explicitly coded, but rather suggested or hinted. Once these areas are identified, the students explain in a footnote the rationale behind the translation solution by drawing on theoretical concepts covered in the class or in other classes. In this course students have translated political speeches by General Francisco Franco, Salvador Allende, Fidel Castro, and Hugo Chávez.

Another course that gives students the opportunity to observe the text-type continuum and therefore the fluid notion of text type is the course on Audiovisual Subtitling. The semester-long 2500-3000-word project consists of two options, namely, subtitling a film, show, series, or documentary, or writing a critique on a subtitled audiovisual piece, including videogames. The in-class dynamics include discussion of the notion of metaphor and the theory of metaphor, identification of metaphors in different language domains (everyday language use, fiction, poetry, and audiovisual material), and the translation of such metaphors. In-class activities also include translations of film titles, which elicit critical thinking and insightful discussions on how the ultimate task is not to render a language into another language, but rather a message into another message that fits the target-culture audience.

Conclusion: Developing Effective Translators for the Long Term

For nearly forty years UNC Charlotte has been developing a successful curriculum that offers a rich array of programming in translating (praxis) and translation studies (a theory-based scholarly field of inquiry). This curricular architecture reflects ongoing needs assessment in the areas of student language proficiency, student learning outcomes, student interests, infrastructures where translations are developed, research on translators' competencies, and market demand for translation services. It is built upon a vibrant complementarity between history-theory-method-praxis. These four elements are intertwined with the learner outcome goal of developing critical-thinking and problem-solving strategies, research skills, resources, and the technology-based tools, such as computer-assisted translation and translation memory software programs, upon which to continue building in order to become more effective translators and interpreters over the long term. Learners are

expected to evolve their own methods to better suit their particular needs and objectives, mapping their ongoing development as intercultural communicators. This of course engages students in life-long learning because, as Robinson (2003) reminds us, "good translators are always in the process of 'becoming' translators" (p. 56). After many years of existence, the TTS programs at UNC Charlotte continue to evolve to meet the intercultural communication needs of today's learners and society, and can serve as an adaptable curricular model, or features thereof, for other institutions of higher learning contemplating similar curricular development.

Endnotes

[1] The three faculty members who pioneered the undergraduate certificate in translating were Dr. Judith Suther in French-English, Dr. William (Bill) Park in German-English, and Dr. Ralph McLeod in Spanish-English. The first certificate courses were offered in 1979, although the inaugural Concentration in Translating (CT) is not listed formally until the *UNC Charlotte Undergraduate & Graduate Catalog: 1981-1982* edition, as follows:

> Successful completion of FL 371, 372, 471, and 472 entitles the student to a Certificate in Translating. The Certificate is not equivalent to a major in a foreign language, but represents a skill developed at the level of a baccalaureate degree. The Certificate in Translating may be taken in conjunction with a major in any field. NOTE: All courses in the Certificate sequence involve translating into English from the source language (p. 143).

The four original CT courses were: FL 371 - Introduction to Translating; FL 372 - Elementary Translating; FL 471 - Intermediate Translation; and FL 472 - Advanced Translation. Course descriptions can be accessed at http://tinyurl.com/zft283s.

The 204 CTs awarded since 2000 are distributed as follows: Spanish↔English: 86; French-English: 33; German-English: 67; and Russian-English: 18.

[2] The ↔ symbol, as in Spanish↔English, indicates that the translating is done bi-directionally, both from English to Spanish and from Spanish to English. The hyphen, as in German-English, indicates that the primary directionality is into English.

[3] These are included because they may also be of interest for institutions contemplating broader or additional curricular development for TTS within LSP.

[4] In 2010, Doyle reported in "A Responsive, Integrative Spanish Curriculum" (81) that:

> In its 2008–2009 edition of the *Occupational Outlook Handbook,* the U.S. Department of Labor published the following forecast, consistent with its favorable estimates in preceding years:
>
> > Employment of interpreters and translators is projected to increase 24 percent over the 2006–16 decade, much faster than the average for all occupations. . . . [H]igher demand for interpreters and translators results directly from the broadening of international ties and the increase in the number of foreign language speakers in the United States. Both of these trends are expected to continue.

[5] Consult James Shapiro (2015) for more information about the translation of Shakespeare into an easier-to-understand English.

[6] The department periodically conducts learner needs surveys among its students to gauge their interest in possible curricular modifications. The limitations of such surveys are that they are typically one-time survey instruments for a specific curricular purpose. Yet their results have proven to be very useful in explaining to various stakeholders (such as faculty and administrators) the benefits perceived by the learners.

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Appendix A

Graduate Certificate in Translating and Translation Studies (GCTTS: Spanish↔English) Earned by Completing 18 Credit Hours of Course Work

- Core Courses (12 credit hours)

    TRAN 6001S - History, Theory, and Method of Translation (3)

    TRAN 6472S - Workshop on Non-Literary Topics I (Business, Legal, Governmental) (3)

    TRAN 6474S - Workshop on Non-Literary Topics II (Medical and Technical) (3)

    TRAN 6476S - Workshop on Literary and Cultural Topics (3)

- Elective Courses (6 credit hours). Select from the following:

    SPAN 6001 - Advanced Studies in Spanish Language (3) (especially recommended)

    TRAN 6002 - Linguistics for Translators (3)

    TRAN 6003S - Computer-Assisted Translating (3)

    TRAN 6004S - Translation Project Management (3)

    TRAN 6480S - Translation Internship (1-6)

    TRAN 6900S - Special Topics in Spanish↔English Translation Studies (3)*

    TRAN 6901S - Advanced Project in Spanish↔English Translating (1-3)*

*May substitute for a course listed under Certificate Requirements above.

    Students enrolled in the Language, Literature and Culture (LLC) concentration (LLC) of the M.A. in Spanish program can earn the GCTTS by completing 12 credit hours of Certificate Requirements as indicated (see http://tinyurl.com/holx3cq and http://tinyurl.com/zy2uk9n).

Appendix B

M.A. TTS Concentration Courses

    TRAN 6001S - History, Theory, and Method of Translation (3 credit hours)

    TRAN 6002 - Linguistics for Translators (3)

    TRAN 6003S - Computer-Assisted Translating (3)

    TRAN 6004S - Translation Project Management (3)

    TRAN 6472S - Workshop on Non-Literary Topics I (Business, Legal, Governmental) (3)

    TRAN 6474S - Workshop on Non-Literary Topics II (Medical and Technical) (3)

    TRAN 6476S - Workshop on Literary and Cultural Topics (3)

    TRAN 6480S - Translation Internship (3)

    TRAN 6481S - Translation Cooperative Education (3)

    TRAN 6900S - Special Topics in Spanish↔English Translation Studies (3)

    TRAN 6901S - Advanced Project in Spanish↔English Translating (3)

    TRAN 6902S - Thesis

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