



Language Through an Unfiltered Lens

18-21 MARCH 2021 | VIRTUAL CONFERENCE

DIMENSION 2021

Jacob Abell
Geraldine Blattner
Andrew J. DeMil
Paula Garrett-Rucks
Stacey Margarita Johnson
Gabriela Moreno
Oscar Moreno
Ashley Shaffer
Justin P. White

EDITOR
Paula Garrett-Rucks

Dimension is the annual volume of peer-reviewed articles sponsored by the 2021 Joint Conference of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT), the Southeastern Association of Language Learning Technology (SEALLT), and the Alabama World Language Association (AWLA).



Language Through an Unfiltered Lens

18-21 MARCH 2021 | VIRTUAL CONFERENCE

DIMENSION 2021

Jacob Abell
Geraldine Blattner
Andrew J. DeMil
Paula Garrett-Rucks
Stacey Margarita Johnson
Gabriela Moreno
Oscar Moreno
Ashley Shaffer
Justin P. White

EDITOR
Paula Garrett-Rucks

Dimension is the annual volume of peer-reviewed articles sponsored by the 2021 Joint Conference of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT), the Southeastern Association of Language Learning Technology (SEALLT), and the Alabama World Language Association (AWLA).

© 2021 Southern Conference on Language Teaching

PO Box 11348
Winston-Salem, NC 27116
Phone: 336-422-6192
<http://www.scolt.org>

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

Table of Contents

Review and Acceptance Procedures	iv
2021 SCOLT Editorial Board	v
Introduction	vi
1 L2 Classroom Willingness to Communicate as a Predictor of Participatory Behavior <i>Ashley Shaffer</i>	9
2 Perceptions and Practices in Language Teaching: A Survey of Experts in Literary and Cultural Studies <i>Justin P. White, Andrew J. DeMil, Geraldine Blattner</i>	25
3 Connections: Exploring Charles Moravia's <i>Le fils du tapissier:</i> <i>épisode de la vie de Molière</i> in the Introductory French Language Classroom <i>Jacob Abell, Stacey Margarita Johnson</i>	45
4 <i>Yo hablo el español de mi pueblo</i> : A Conscious Curriculum for the Heritage Language Learner <i>Gabriela Moreno</i>	59
5 Identifying and Placing Spanish Heritage Speakers: One Program's Placement Test Approach <i>Oscar Moreno, Paula Garrett-Rucks</i>	72
SCOLT Board of Directors	92
2021 SCOLT Sponsors: Individuals	93
2021 SCOLT Patrons: Individuals and Organizations	95

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 or prucks@gsu.edu. The Editor then uses a double blind peer 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, and one of the following recommendations is made: “accept as is,” “request a second draft with minor revisions,” “request a second draft with major revisions,” or “do not publish.” The Editor then requests second drafts of manuscripts that receive favorable ratings on the initial draft. These revised manuscripts are reviewed a second time before a final decision to publish is made.

The Editor of *Dimension 2021* 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 annual meeting of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching. Starting as a proceedings publication, *Dimension* is now the official peer-reviewed journal of SCOLT that publishes national and international authors in the spring. Contributing authors’ research findings and pedagogical implications are shared at the SCOLT Opening General Session with conference attendees and beyond.

To improve visibility of the authors’ work, the Board voted to publish the journal on the SCOLT website in an open access format. SCOLT *Dimension* is indexed with the Education Resources Information Center (ERIC) database sponsored by the Institute of Education Sciences of the U.S. Department of Education that connects 12 million users—researchers, educators, policy makers, and students from 238 countries. ERIC metrics biannual reports indicate that *Dimension* articles are being viewed or downloaded approximately 5,000 times a year. SCOLT *Dimension* is dedicated to the advancement of the teaching and learning of world languages and cultures and warmly welcomes a wide readership.

SCOLT Editorial Review Board 2021

Melisa (Misha) Cahnmann-Taylor
University of Georgia
Athens, GA

Gillian Lord
University of Florida
Gainesville, FL

Kelly Davidson
Valdosta State University
Valdosta, GA

Linwood J. Randolph Jr.
University of North Carolina
Wilmington, NC

Stacey M. Johnson
Vanderbilt University
Nashville, TN

Victoria Russell
Valdosta State University
Valdosta, GA

Jason Kemp
University of Wisconsin
Madison, WI

Sheri Spaine Long
Independent Scholar and
Editor of *Hispania*
Birmingham, AL

Shuai Li
Georgia State University
Atlanta, GA

Paul D. Toth
Temple University
Philadelphia, PA

Lara Lomicka-Anderson
University of South Carolina
Columbia, SC

Manuela Wagner
University of Connecticut
Mansfield, CT

Introduction

Language through an Unfiltered Lens

The Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) was scheduled for its annual conference March 27-29, 2020 in Mobile Alabama in collaboration with the Alabama World Language Association (AWLA) and Southeastern Association of Language Learning Technology (SEALLT). The conference was cancelled due to the Coronavirus, yet the SCOLT *Dimension* publication process continued over the year. Starting as a proceedings publication, *Dimension* is now the official peer-reviewed journal of SCOLT that annually publishes national and international authors, sharing their research findings and pedagogical implications with conference attendees and beyond. SCOLT *Dimension* is indexed with the Education Resources Information Center (ERIC) database sponsored by the Institute of Education Sciences of the U.S. Department of Education that connects 12 million users—researchers, educators, policy makers, and students from 238 countries. Bi-annual ERIC metrics reports revealed over 5,000 views of *Dimension* publications during 2020, specifically 2,563 abstracts viewed and 2,515 articles downloaded. SCOLT *Dimension* is dedicated to the advancement of the teaching and learning of world languages and cultures, particularly languages other than English.

There are five chapters in this year's volume. The volume begins with author **Ashley Shaffer** (*Temple University*) who reports on her investigation of beginning Spanish language learners' willingness to communicate (WTC) in a university classroom. WTC is an important factor in learners' language use. It is viewed as a volitional process influenced by individual, social, linguistic, and situationally dependent factors. The author explains that early WTC research focused on trait and state WTC influencing factors as separate entities, yet current research considers the dynamic relationship that occurs between the two, particularly in classroom interactions. Shaffer's study compared participants' WTC in both a teacher-led and a peer-led activity. She triangulated data gathered using questionnaires, video recordings, and stimulated recall interviews to investigate how learners' self-perception of WTC relates to their L2 classroom participation. Her findings suggest that WTC may be boosted based on activity and peer group type, emphasizing the necessity of careful lesson planning by language instructors. Specifically, learners in her study felt more comfortable engaging with their peers in small groups rather than speaking with the teacher in front of peers. Furthermore, Shaffer's participants were more likely to speak when they felt that it was required to complete a task than when given an option to participate by raising one's hand, regardless of trait WTC. She suggested that instructors be less concerned if lower WTC students do not volunteer in whole class activities, rather instructors should check in with these students in group and pair activities to encourage their speech in the "safer" small group contexts. Shaffer concluded that it is important for instructors to have multiple means of assessment including writing, reading, and auditory comprehension tasks, and to consider students' personalities when assessing oral language participation and WTC.

In Chapter 2, authors **Justin P. White** (*Florida Atlantic University*), **Andrew J. DeMil** (*University of Tampa*), and **Geraldine Blattner** (*Florida Atlantic University*) present findings from their study on university faculty teaching practices and perceptions toward Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Participants in their study included 38 university-level US Spanish and French professors with expertise in literary and cultural studies. Findings revealed a lack of familiarity with some Second Language Acquisition and CLT constructs—such as the importance of focusing on meaning and communication, appropriate feedback types (recasts and recall), and the role of explicit grammar and mechanical drills—such as the fact that research findings consistently report the inferiority of these exercises over focusing on meaning and communication. The ramifications of these findings are primarily that university world languages departments might not currently be the best place to initially learn a language, as suggested by VanPatten (2015), but that there is increasing interest in world language faculty to attend professional development. These research findings point to the invaluable contribution to the field by language organizations such as SCOLT that offer opportunities for professional development on research-informed practices and techniques for successful world language learning.

Next, in Chapter 3, authors **Jacob Abell** (*Vanderbilt University*) and **Stacey Margarita Johnson** (*Vanderbilt University*) detail an approach to focusing on *Connections*, one of the five Cs from the ACTFL World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages, as a means of exposing introductory language students to authentic texts through drama-based pedagogy. The authors' approach focuses on an instructor's work within an established university departmental curriculum for introductory French language courses. The instructor, first author Abell, created a two-day instructional sequence that allowed beginning French students to interact with each other through their engagement in the work of a 19th-century Francophone playwright (Charles Moravia). The activity sequence was embedded in the grammar and vocabulary from the textbook chapter, aligned with the communicative goals for the unit, and integrated the graduate student instructor's own doctoral research interests in a way that was energizing for instructor and students alike. The authors demonstrate the viability of expanding a prescribed syllabus to offer novice language students a more culturally diverse range of authentic texts, including a range of genres, all while consistently serving the needs of a proficiency-based classroom.

In Chapter 4, **Gabriela Moreno** (*New Mexico State University*) proposes a more comprehensive and conscious curriculum for Spanish Heritage Language (SHL) and Native Speaker (SNS) learners to support the diverse needs in the classroom with the theoretical framework and approaches that have facilitated instruction at her institution in the Southwest. The theoretical framework includes a Culturally and Linguistically Responsive (CLR) approach, the World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages, funds of knowledge, and Pueblo-based pedagogy, followed by activities that have been effective in establishing a conscious curriculum in SHL/SNS pedagogy. The conscious curriculum Moreno proposes unifies teachers, students, parents, and community to work toward the same goals. These goals include language maintenance, transfer of skills between languages, acquisition of academic skills in Spanish, promotion of positive attitudes towards a variety of dialects and cultures, and acquisition and development of cultural knowledge within local target

language communities and beyond. The classroom activities described include: (1) *Manifestos*—graphic representations that express opinions and visions about the life of the student author, ranging from identity issues, culture, gender roles, citizenship, nationality, and border politics and an action plan to explore solutions to community concerns; (2) *Cuentos Infantiles*—short stories written by SHL/SNS students centered on a topic that impacts the local/regional community that students later present at a local public school for children in the community; (3) *Ode to Home*—poems written about the place SHL/SNS feel most at home, often odes to their parents, hometowns, culture, food, and music; and (4) *Community Heroes*—a one-page editorial piece about the life and impact of a non-family member community hero, highlighting his or her accomplishments along with a picture. The activities described in this chapter are intended to help students to become cultural brokers and agents for themselves and their community, while taking responsibility for their own learning. The goals of the proposed conscious SHS/SNS curriculum are to include language maintenance, promote positive attitudes towards a variety of dialects and cultures, acquire academic skills in Spanish, and develop cultural knowledge.

In the final chapter, authors **Oscar Moreno** (*Georgia State University*) and **Paula Garrett-Rucks** (*Georgia State University*) address the unique needs of heritage speakers in the Spanish curriculum, problematize the traditional grammar-based placement exam, and describe a multiple-choice placement exam (free upon request) designed and used at Georgia State University (GSU). Taking a sociolinguistic approach to the dialectal nature of Spanish, first author Moreno, the GSU Spanish Language Program Coordinator, developed a placement test based on what students—heritage, native, and non-native—do when asked to perform various language tasks. The placement test design is outlined using distinctions of *linguistic norms*, both *local/regional* and *general*. Reference is made to the ways in which diverse types of Spanish speakers align linguistically with general Spanish. Pedagogical implications for identifying and placing K-16 learners in a meaningful Spanish for Heritage Speakers classroom are discussed.

As Editor, I worked collaboratively with members of the SCOLT *Dimension 2021* Editorial Review Board in a double blind, peer-review process and I would like to extend my gratitude for having their knowledge and expertise while reviewing articles. These individuals are leaders in the field 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. If you are present at any of the synchronous sessions at the virtual SCOLT 2021 conference, 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.

The Editor,
Paula Garrett-Rucks
Georgia State University

L2 Classroom Willingness to Communicate as a Predictor of Participatory Behavior

Ashley Shaffer
Temple University

Abstract

In the context of language instruction and learning, willingness to communicate (WTC) is an important factor in learners' language use. It is viewed as a volitional process influenced by individual, social, linguistic, and situationally dependent factors. Foundational research focused on trait and state WTC-influencing factors as separate entities. Current research considers the dynamic relationship that occurs between the two and particularly how it manifests in classroom interaction. This study investigated such differences by examining learners' self-reported WTC as trait-related and observed WTC as state-related. It compared WTC in both a teacher led and a peer led activity. Triangulated data were gathered using questionnaires, video recordings, and stimulated recall interviews. The importance of the study's findings lie in the investigation of how learners' self-perception relates to L2 classroom participation. Results showed that WTC may be boosted based on activity and peer group type, emphasizing the necessity of careful lesson planning by language instructors.

Keywords: *willingness to communicate, peer interaction, participation, individual learner factors*

Background

Current approaches in second language acquisition (SLA) instruction emphasize both the importance of recognizing individual learner factors as having an influence on second language (L2) learning and the ability to promote L2 learning by using certain instructional task types. One affective learner factor to be considered is willingness to communicate (WTC). Originally conceptualized in L2 learning by McCroskey and Baer (1985), WTC was considered a trait-specific quality evident in one's personality such as being introverted or extroverted. Subsequent research showed WTC to be a situational-specific quality that may change based on external elements such as classroom environment and relationship to peers, or internal conditions such as self-perception in the target language.

Subsequent and current research has shown that other factors may influence WTC at a given time. MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels (1998) and MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, and Conrod (2001) found that confidence in the language and social support may factor into a learner's WTC apart from it being a trait-like personality feature. Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, and Shimizu (2004) likewise found that strong in-

terpersonal relationships with other learners may contribute to higher state WTC. Motivation has also been found to influence WTC (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Yashima, 2002). While researchers have investigated the extent to which proficiency places a role in learner WTC, Yashima (2009) discovered that having a higher proficiency in the L2 did not necessarily increase a learner's WTC. MacIntyre (2007) stated in later research that WTC should be viewed as an act of volition which can be fluid and change based on any given number of factors at any given time. Cao (2009) further supported the idea of WTC as situational rather than trait-specific, finding that learners' individual identities and classroom environment impact WTC. Studies by Peng and Woodrow (2010) and Alemi et al. (2013) contributed to the understanding of WTC as having a variable nature by presenting many factors at play including environmental conditions and level of interaction with native speakers in target language (TL).

This research aligns with the notion that learner WTC may correlate to L2 learning. SLA research for the past several decades has suggested that learners better acquire an L2 by participating in communicative tasks as in communicative language teaching (CLT) (Nunan, 1989) that require learners to negotiate meaning (Long, 1996) and produce speech in a meaningful context as in the output hypothesis (Swain, 1985). This poses several questions. First, if a learner has low WTC and is therefore reluctant to speak, will less learning take place? Next, is there a difference in a learner's WTC in a speech activity in front of peers, interacting with the teacher, versus interacting amongst peers but not in front of the rest of the class as an audience? Finally, can one say that there is a correlation between a learner's trait and state WTC in relation to different types of activities, or is state WTC completely dependent on the factors of that particular situation and thus fluid and not able to be related back to trait WTC? The present study seeks to find if different activity types can boost learner WTC, as evidenced through increased participation, thus allowing learners more time engaging with and speaking in the L2.

Literature Review

Origins of Willingness to Communicate as a Trait or State Based Feature

The concept of WTC began as an assessment of unwillingness to communicate in the first language (L1) by Burgoon (1976). The study sought to relate unwillingness to communicate to anomia, alienation, introversion, self-esteem and communication apprehension (Burgoon, 1976) as a trait-like disposition in L1 communication. The researcher believed that a person's communicative tendencies and apprehension in verbal communication could be predicted based on trait characteristics.

McCroskey and Baer (1985) later hypothesized that unwillingness to communicate in the L1 could be viewed as beneficial as a measure of WTC in the L2. They argued that WTC could be viewed as a trait-like personality construct, such as introversion and extroversion in which a person has predispositions to verbalize and initiate speech or not (McCroskey & Baer, 1985). With this idea in mind, McCroskey and Baer (1985) created the WTC Scale which placed items into four communication contexts: public speaking, talking in meetings, talking in small groups, and talking in dyads, with three types of receivers: strangers, acquaintances, and friends. The questionnaire is comprised of 20 questions which ask participants to rate their level

of WTC from a scale of 0%-100% for each question. McCroskey (1992) showed the questionnaire to be both reliable and valid in predicting a person's WTC, and it has since been used in other studies as a predictor of WTC (see Alemi *et al.*, 2013; Baker & MacIntyre, 2002; Cao & Philip, 2006; MacIntyre *et al.*).

MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels (1998) considered the WTC construct not only as trait-specific but rather conceptualized it as a fluid quality that could vary due to state quality; that is, they explained that WTC could be affected both by situational and affective factors. They even stated that boosting WTC should be the primary goal of language instruction because if an instructor had the ability to increase a learner's desire to communicate in the L2, then learners would communicate more, thus enriching their L2 learning experience and acquisition. MacIntyre *et al.* (1998) described WTC as influenced by many factors including communication behavior, intention of speech, situated antecedents, the affective-cognitive context, and the social and individual context, some of which could be manipulated by the instructor. However, Ellis (2012) pointed out that there is no existing evidence that clearly provides a link between a learner's WTC and improved learning (p. 324). However, research does show that individual learner differences play a role in L2 learning in general (Ellis, 2012), which suggests that WTC as such a factor can affect learning in some way.

Current Investigations on Trait versus State WTC

To date, a growing body of research addresses WTC within the L2 classroom as either a personality-based factor or a situational-based factor. Less research exists that examines state WTC and how it manifests in different types of instructional activities. Two studies investigating WTC in classroom contexts and in direct relation to activity type exist which are pertinent to this study. Dörnyei and Korsmos (2000) investigated the individual and social variables that contributed to L2 English learners' oral performance in a Hungarian school, with WTC being one of the variables analyzed. They found that students' WTC was influenced by their attitudes to instructional tasks. Believing that WTC has a relationship to learner motivation and task interest, Dörnyei (2005) later urged that researchers explore how different types of tasks may engage learners, perhaps increasing their WTC and prompting them to try out different speech strategies (Dörnyei, 2005).

Next, Cao and Philp (2006) conducted a study of non-native English speakers in a New Zealand school to find if there was any relation between self-report WTC ("trait WTC") and behavioral WTC ("state WTC") in different classroom contexts: whole class, group, and dyadic. Their findings showed that there was not a clear correlation between the learners' self-reports and their participatory behavior of WTC, finding much variation amongst learners and across the three types of contexts. Cao and Philp (2006) did, however, find a greater correlation between trait and state WTC in pair and group work than with whole-class activities. Cao (2009) continued to investigate activity type as it related to WTC as her dissertation study.

This study builds on the investigation of Cao and Philp (2006) in that it compares activity type as influencing state WTC. Their study examined perceived (trait) and actual (state) WTC in students in an English language learner (ELL) university course in New Zealand. It is important to note that, since English is the primary

language spoken in New Zealand, the motivation to learn the L2 may have been different for learners in Cao and Philp's (2006) study than for those in the present study who are learning an L2 (Spanish) as native speakers of the primary language in their country of origin (English in the United States).

Research Questions

Given the need for such a study and with the prior information in mind, the following research questions were proposed:

1. Does learners' WTC self-report (trait) correspond to their participatory behavior in class?
2. Does learners' WTC behavior (state) differ in the two observed contexts (teacher-led/student-led activities)?
3. What are the learners' perceptions of the factors contributing to their WTC in the contexts?

Methods

Participants

Participants in the study included 48 adult learners ages 18-29 in two classes of beginner level second-semester Spanish at a large, urban university in the US North-east. Of the 48 learners, 30 were female and 18 were male. Each class was comprised of 24 learners. Thirty-five of the 48 students, over two-thirds of the sample, reported some prior experience with learning Spanish at the elementary, middle school, or high school level. The other 13 students had no prior experience with Spanish but had taken other languages in high school: French, Italian, and Latin. All students in the class had previously taken beginner level first-semester Spanish, except for one student who had tested out of it and was placed in a second-semester class. Questionnaire results showed that no students had been exposed to Spanish at home, though two students had Spanish-speaking grandparents with whom they spoke English. Of the 48 students, five listed other languages as their native language: Farsi (2), Vietnamese, Krio, Mandarin. Finally, both courses followed the same curriculum and lesson and were taught by the same instructor on the same day. The two recorded activities were similar to ones the learners had completed in previous classes in first- and second-year Spanish, so they were not new activities where comprehension of task would be an impediment to completing the activity.

Procedures and Data Collection

The following design materials were used for the purpose of the study. The WTC questionnaire (Appendix A) developed by McCroskey and Baer (1985) was used as the main instrument. Comprised of 20 questions, learners were directed to respond to each question writing a percentage of 0%-100% as to how likely they would be to communicate in the situations (0% = never and 100% = always). Examples include 'Talk with a large meeting of friends' and 'Talk with a stranger while standing in line' (McCroskey & Baer, 1985). Eight of the questions are included as filler questions to throw off questionnaire-takers. The other 12 questions were ana-

lyzed according to the directions of the questionnaire. The learners were unaware that any of the questions were fillers, and they also did not know how the questions would be analyzed. Though the questionnaire scoring allows for sub-scores to be calculated for the four context-types (group discussion, meetings, interpersonal, public speaking) and three receiver-types (stranger, acquaintance, friend), only the total WTC score was calculated to obtain a general score for each learner. After the learner WTC levels were calculated on the 0%-100% scale, each learner was identified as either high overall WTC >82 , medium overall WTC <82 and >52 , or low overall WTC <52 . 'Overall' in this case means one global score comprised of both context-type sub scores and receiver-type sub scores. In Cao and Philp's (2006) similar study, the reliability of the scale using Cronbach's alpha was .917 (Cao & Philp, 2006).

One week after the questionnaire was administered, both classes of learners were recorded using two video recorders per classroom. Two activities were recorded per class: a teacher-led discussion and a learner-led discussion. The lesson topic was opinions and preferences regarding food and food practices. The first was a whole-class, teacher-led question and answer activity with questions displayed on a PowerPoint projection of ten separate questions in which students were asked to raise their hands if they were willing to be called on to answer the question. Sample questions include '*¿Tomas mucha agua todos los días?*' (Do you drink a lot of water every day?) and '*¿Comes chocolate cuando estás deprimido/a?*' (Do you eat chocolate when you are depressed?). Because the questions elicited yes/no responses initially, students were instructed to also ask a follow-up open-ended question such as '*¿Por qué comes chocolate cuando estás deprimido/a?*' (Why do you eat chocolate when you are depressed?) or '*¿Qué más haces cuando estás deprimido/a para sentir mejor?*' (What else do you do to feel better when you are depressed?).

The next activity, video recorded immediately after the first activity, was a whole-class, peer-led 10-question signature activity taken from the Interactive Resource Kit for the classroom text, *Tu mundo: español sin fronteras* (Andrade, Egasse, Muñoz, & Cabrera Puche, 2013), in which students were asked to circulate the room and ask/answer the questions of their peers, signing one another's papers once the information had been exchanged. Sample questions include '*¿Te gusta el bistec bien asado?*' (Do you like steak well done?) and '*¿Sabes preparar un postre especial?*' (Do you know how to prepare a special dessert?). Students were again instructed to ask a follow-up open-ended question to their peers.

Lastly, 12 stimulated recall interviews (Appendix B) took place within one week after the class activity recordings. Interview questions asked learners to describe how prepared and motivated they felt to raise their hands in each activity, how they felt during the activities and if they preferred one over the other, and a conversation about what they felt motivated them to speak and learn Spanish. Four students of each WTC level (high, medium, low) were interviewed based on availability.

All 48 participants who agreed to the survey were administered the demographic information sheet and WTC questionnaire on the same day. On a different class meeting day, a week after the questionnaire was administered, the two instructional activities in each class were recorded. Forty participants were present on the

day of recording. Twelve learners were selected for stimulated recall interviews lasting approximately 20 minutes in duration. Participants were selected on a volunteer basis so that the researcher had two participants per class from each WTC-level: two students of low WTC according to the questionnaire, two of medium WTC, and 2 of high WTC from each class. Four interviews were conducted per WTC level equaling 12 total interviews. In the meeting, each student was shown parts of the video to remember how he or she participated in class and asked the questions in Appendix B.

Data Analysis

Each learner was identified as either high overall WTC >82 , medium overall WTC <82 and >52 , or low overall WTC <52 based on their responses to McCroskey and Baer's (1985) WTC scale. Next, the researcher watched the videos and tallied each time learners raised their hand for the ten questions in the teacher-led activity, which indicated that participants were willing to be called on to answer the question in front of the class. For the peer-led activity, the researcher collected the ten-question signature activity and tallied the number of signatures, which indicated that the learners had completed that question-and-answer number with a peer. The researcher then watched the video recordings to observe students' interactions with one another and listened for follow-up questions posed during dyad interactions. Since each activity was comprised of ten questions, students' participation was measured as a 100-scale percentage based on how many times they raised a hand and how many signatures they obtained, because both indicated that WTC and/or actual verbal communication had taken place. For example, if a student raised his hand for five of the ten teacher-led questions, he was given a percentage of 50% WTC for the whole-class, teacher-led activity. If a student had eight of the ten lines signed on the signature page, she was given a percentage of 80% WTC for the peer-led activity.

Lastly, the stimulated recall interviews were analyzed by the researcher to provide insight into the students' responses and how they correlated with the students' trait-WTC as presented on the questionnaire and state WTC as observed in the two activities. Learners who took part in the stimulated recall interviews were closely observed to provide a qualitative look at their specific WTC tendencies. Use of movement in the classroom was observed; for example, how frequently the particular learner walked up to a peer versus having a peer walk up to him, or how much the learner circulated the room versus staying in one place.

Findings

All 48 learner responses to McCroskey and Baer's (1985) WTC questionnaire were calculated to identify each learner within the appropriate WTC range between 0-100 with >82 High Overall WTC, <82 and >52 Medium Overall WTC, and <52 Low Overall WTC. Figure 1 shows the WTC score of each learner. The mean WTC of all 48 learners was 68.64% so that, of the 48 learners, the average fell within the medium overall WTC range but was 1.64% closer to the high range than the low range. The range was 72.92 with the lowest reported level of trait WTC at 25% and the highest at 97.92%.

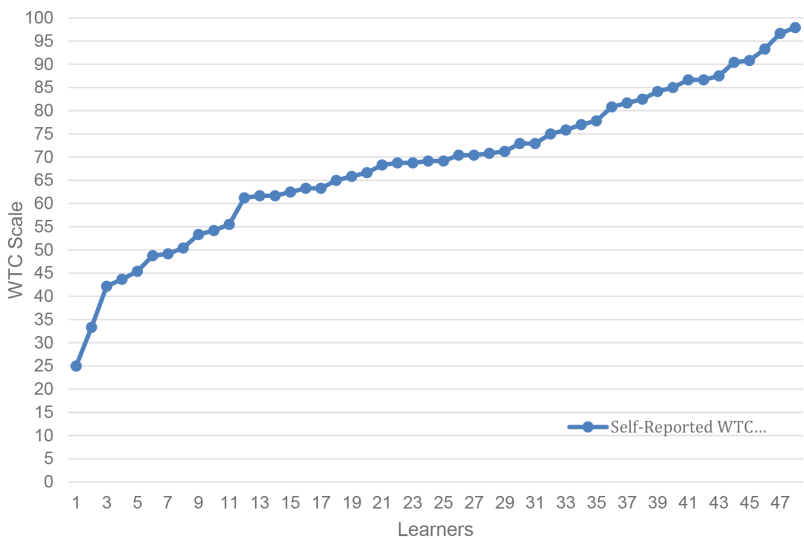


Figure 1. Learner self-reported WTC on McCroskey’s (1992) questionnaire

Figure 2 shows the results of the tabulation of countable hand-raises in the teacher-led activity and peer signatures in the peer-led activity. When comparing the teacher-led activity and the peer-led activity, every learner had higher participation in the peer-led activity than the teacher-led activity. The two learners who had 100% participation in the teacher-led activity also had 100% participation in the peer-led activity. Nine of the learners raised their hands 0% of the time for the teacher-led activity, while every learner participated 40% or more in the peer-led activity.

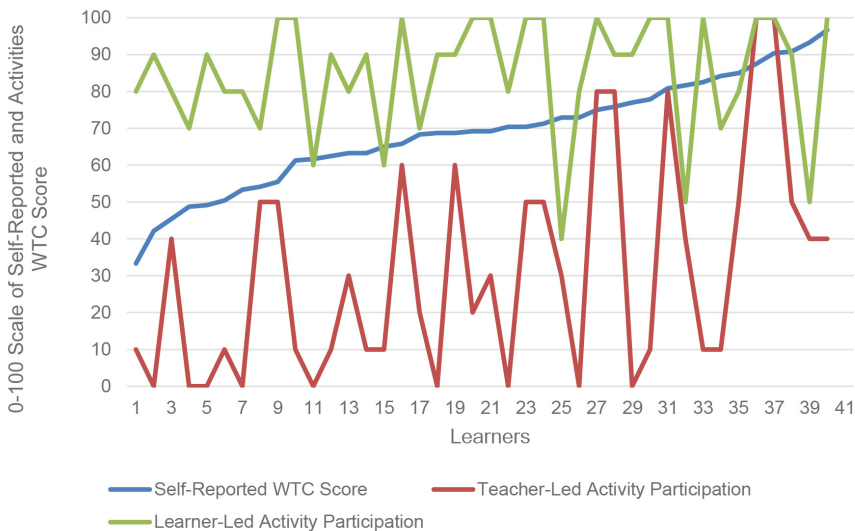


Figure 2. Learner self-reported WTC compared to peer and teacher led activity participation

Figure 3 shows the results of only the participants of the stimulated recall interviews. The same findings are evident in that all instances of learner-led participation are higher than teacher-led participation, except for one interviewed participant of high WTC who participated 100% of the time for both activities.

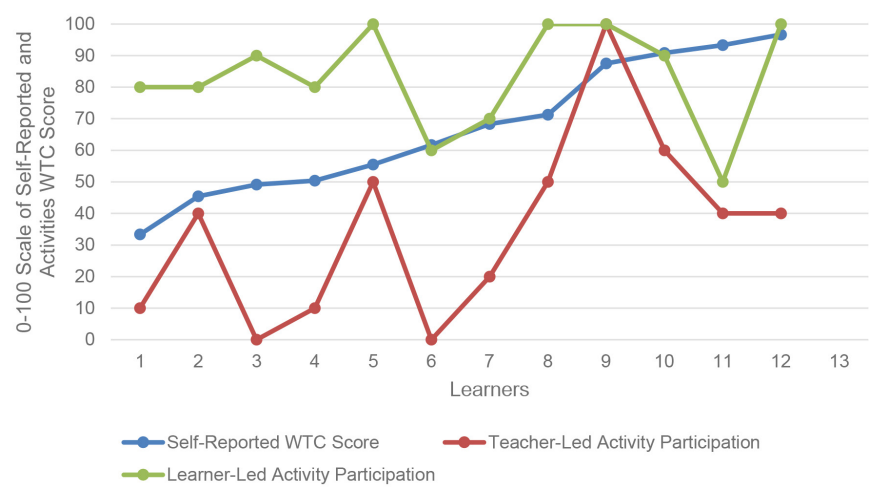


Figure 3. *Stimulated recall learners self-reported WTC compared with observed participation in teacher led and peer led activities*

A regression analysis (Table 1) was run to find the r-square value and correlation between all learners reported WTC and observed WTC in both the learner- and teacher-led activities. $R^2 = .209063391$ suggests a closer relationship between learner trait-state WTC in the teacher-led activity. $R^2 = .005786628$ suggests no correlation between the trait-state WTC in the peer-led activity. This finding is expected when one accounts for the social setting of teacher-led instruction. The learners' WTC trait tendencies were more apparent in high-stakes participation where they were expected to perform in front of peers. While an extroverted learner may not experience nervousness by raising her hand in front of the class or by making errors, a timid learner may experience increased anxiety at the thought of speaking in front of others and thus lower WTC. Conversely, the results suggest that a learner-led activity generally carries less pressure and room for embarrassment. Therefore, state WTC appears not to be predicted by trait WTC in peer-led or lower-pressure activities. This finding is beneficial for instructors as they remember that whole-class instruction allows all students to hear error-correction and see proper modeling; however, it may not be an ideal setting for all types of learners to actively participate and have the opportunity to speak.

Table 1
Regression statistics of teacher and peer led activities compared with expected participatory behavior based on self-reported WTC questionnaire

Activity Type	Regression Statistics	
Teacher Led	R Square	0.209063391
Peer Led	R Square	0.005786628

The qualitative element of the data was obtained from stimulated recall interviews. The interviews were conducted with four students of low WTC, four students of medium WTC, and four students of high WTC as reported on the questionnaire. When asked how prepared learners felt to raise their hands in the first activity (teacher-led), all four of the low trait WTC learners expressed that they comprehended the questions but felt more comfortable thinking of the answers in their heads to check their accuracy. All four participants mentioned that they liked having time to write down their answers as well as having the questions written down on a piece of paper in the learner-led activity because it gave them time to think of the question and their answers. When asked about which activity they preferred, three of the four students chose the learner-led activity. One learner stated:

I prefer the talking just to the classmates ones better just because it's one on one and I'd rather do that and towards that one I feel more comfortable because I have the paper in front of me and it's easier for me to figure out when I'm just like sitting there looking at the paper and when it's at the board in like a couple seconds like it makes me a little bit more nervous I guess, but not to the point where I'm like, 'Oh God this is awful'.

The low trait WTC learner who expressed preference for the teacher-led activity said "I like getting up and talking to people" but that "I do like listening to [the instructor] speak more because it helps me learn."

Of the learners who were medium-trait WTC, three of the four students in that group also cited the learner-led activity as preferable over the teacher-led activity while the fourth learner said he liked them both equally. Reasons included "I felt more comfortable," "you just like, talk to people," "I'm probably less scared because it's just like one-on-one, and they probably say things wrong too," "I feel comfortable and I definitely enjoy the like, more interactive things better because like, it's more fun to be in a class where you know more people so the Spanish classes are always closer because we're always interacting, so I'd say the interacting activities more than raising your hand."

In the high trait WTC group, all four learners expressed feelings of responsibility or the need to offer shared turn-taking amongst their peers to answer questions in class in the teacher-led activities that the low and medium trait WTC learners did not. For example:

Motivated it was just whenever, sometimes even when I don't want to answer questions and I just see that no one else is answering questions, like no one else is raising their hand I just raise my hand just because like participation like you should participate.

The other high trait WTC learners commented "I don't want to be the only person who is giving answers all the time because I want to give people chances to answer so, I was willing definitely, to answer all of them" and "I was prepared and had an answer for all of them basically. I just don't like answering all of them and like, not letting other people have a chance" and "Normally it's like, I'll answer questions, like, I'll let other people do it but if there's like a gap or if it's quiet I'll answer it or if I feel like I have a really good answer." It is important to mention that learner 11 on Figure 3, who was rated a 93.3% on the questionnaire, had 40% hand raises and 50%

signatures for the two recorded activities. The learner was normally a high participator but was sick the day of recording and had very little voice. She stated during the interview that she likes to speak and participate in all activity types.

Discussion

Interpretation of Findings

Returning to the research questions, does learners' WTC self-report (trait) correspond to their participatory behavior in class?, and does learners' WTC behavior (state) differ in the two observed contexts (teacher-led/student-led activities)?, the findings suggest that trait WTC does trend toward a correlate to state WTC, and that all learners' state WTC resulted higher in the peer-based activity. Research question three, what are the learners' perceptions of the factors contributing to their WTC in the contexts?, showed a variety of factors such as preference for having written questions in one's hand, fear of incorrect responses, and responsibility. One can also draw similarities in perceptions of each group of low, medium and high WTC learners.

Based on the questionnaire results and countable data from the teacher-led and learner-led activities, one conclusion that can be drawn is that all learners, regardless of self-reported WTC on the questionnaire had higher learner-led activity participation than teacher-led activity participation. It does not appear that one could draw the conclusion that having a higher trait WTC means a learner will automatically have a higher overall WTC in all state, observed types of activities. The highest cases of teacher-led activity participation, though, do occur with the learners with medium-high to high self-reported WTC. This means there is no self-reported low WTC learner with a higher participation rate than that of a self-reported medium-high or higher self-reported learner.

With regard to the interviews, the discovery that all learners had a higher tendency to participate in the learner-led activity than the teacher-led activity is not surprising. Similarly, the majority of interviewed participants stated the learner-led one as their preference for activity type. These results confirm the belief that learners feel more comfortable in a low-stakes, peer-to-peer interaction versus in front of an entire group of peers. The relationship is observable between the questionnaire WTC and observed participatory behavior in both activity types, though variance does exist. With regard to personality tendencies, none of the high or medium-high trait WTC learners mentioned nervousness or unsureness in answering in the teacher-led activity, while several of the low and medium-low trait WTC learners mentioned their need to feel comfortable or completely certain of their answers before responding or even willing to raise their hands in the teacher-led activity. Also, of the low WTC interviewed learners, all commented on their feelings as either "nervous" or "not sure." Several cited their feelings as having an impact on their participatory behavior. One learner stated:

If I was like, 100%, that I knew exactly what I was saying then I would raise my hand but if there was like doubts then I didn't – like if I would get it right or not – I guess cause I don't want to like stutter and look for Spanish words on the spot because then I get nervous and then like I can't think of any words, so, I think yeah.

Finally, to return to the research questions, it appears that some learners' WTC self-reports (trait) do correspond to their participatory behavior in class, and that general tendencies were expressed from the lower trait WTC learners in the teacher-led activity, such as feelings of unsureness and the need for reassurance, as well as preferring the learner-led activity over the teacher-led. The higher trait WTC learners in the interviews did not express concern over volunteering during the teacher-led activity; however, these students preferred the learner-led activity over the teacher-led one. Four of the 12 participants did express that they appreciated the teacher-led activity because they received correction, which they could not guarantee from peers. This finding suggests that the students, regardless of trait WTC, desire feedback to know if they are accurate or not, but not all learners (and none of the lower trait WTC learners) wanted correction in front of their peers. In regard to the learners' perceptions of factors contributing to their WTC during the different activities, feelings of nervousness impact students' participatory behavior. However, based on the interview discussions and WTC survey results, this factor did not stem from a personality trait so much as not wanting to say something incorrectly in front of the class, be it an entire class of peers, the instructor, or both, and wanting to be sure of their answers. That is, none of the interviewed learners self-identified as shy or nervous people, but they felt unsure and did not want to sound wrong in front of the entire group and instructor. This would confirm why these students felt more comfortable and less risk when speaking in peer activities with smaller groups of speakers and the instructor only present when checking in with their group.

Lastly, the interviewed learners expressed more comfort, feelings of interaction, and camaraderie in the peer-based activity, which could impact their willingness to speak. The fact that the students had to complete the activity; that is, they had to have signatures, which required speaking, meant that the students had to speak in order to complete the activity, whereas not all of the students felt obligated to raise their hands in the teacher-led activity.

Theoretical and Pedagogical Contribution

In comparing the findings in the two instructional activities to see if there was more participation in one activity or in the other, there was more participation from all students in the peer-based versus teacher-led activity regardless of their level of WTC on the questionnaire. While this suggests that, as the interviewed learners stated, there is a greater level of comfort and less concern for errors with peers, it does not necessarily mean that the peer-based activity is more beneficial to learning if students are not or do not feel they are receiving adequate feedback. However, the data show that all students were speaking more in the peer-based activity, which means all students were given an opportunity to negotiate meaning (to the extent to which the question/answer activity allowed) and practice multiple times rather than answering one question, which could be beneficial. Ellis (2012) explained:

speaking in an L2 may well assist in learning, but so may listening. We have seen plenty of evidence [...] to suggest that greater participation does not necessarily translate into more learning and that input-based instruction can be as effective as production-based approaches. Perhaps what is crucial for learning inside the classroom is not so much willingness to communicate as willingness to listen closely. (p. 324)

All of the low WTC interviewed students expressed that they were listening to, and understood, the teacher-led questions, and that they answered in their head or on paper and checked their peer's answer with theirs. This corresponds to Ellis's idea that listening can be just as useful to learning as speaking. Perhaps this depends on the student's individual learner factors. It certainly shows that many approaches such as task-based language teaching and collaborative based learning promote learner speech to aid in learning, students express that they feel confident and that they comprehend the material while listening and that speaking only makes them feel more nervous. From a pedagogical standpoint, this could mean that when instructors feel that a student who does not want to speak in class is doing so because she is not paying attention or does not understand, the student might actually be learning in the way that feels more beneficial as a (perhaps lower WTC) individual, through listening and checking comprehension. In this case, it is important that instructors have multiple means of assessment including writing, reading, and auditory comprehension tasks, and that they consider students' personalities when assessing oral participation. For example, instructors should be less concerned if lower WTC students do not volunteer in whole class activities but check in with these students when working in small group and pair activities to encourage speech in the "safer" small group contexts. It is also helpful to include questions on a beginning of the semester student survey about their tendencies in class about learning styles and if students feel comfortable participating or not.

Limitations and Future Research

A limitation to this study was the short time duration and quantity of data collection. However, more studies comparing trait and state WTC directly related to quantity of peer interaction are needed so that instructors can better serve a variety of learner types, and this study sought to engage instructors in thinking of their students' willingness to take part in class activities. Furthermore, this study sought to serve as a starting point for research into how different activity types may promote or hinder trait-based WTC tendencies, though it only utilized one peer-led and one teacher-led activity. Future investigations that examine different student groupings and activity types could be beneficial.

Conclusion

This investigation sought to explore the relationship that exists between a learner's trait WTC as being highly, moderately, or not willing to communicate in the TL with the quantity of output produced in two different activity types in a university-level second-semester Spanish class. It showed a relationship between a certain WTC trait level and participatory behavior in one activity or the other, teacher-led or learner-led, and that the 48 learners had higher participation in the learner-led activity regardless of their trait WTC. This finding suggests that, overall, learners feel more comfortable engaging with their peers rather than in front of peers with the teacher, and that learners speak when they feel that it is something they 'have to do' to complete the task; if there is an option to raise one's hand or not, a learner may not, regardless of trait WTC.

The study did show that higher trait WTC learners tended to feel a sense of responsibility and desire to participate in an activity in front of the whole class and were not affected by feelings of nervousness or the fear of saying something incorrectly in front of peers. However, lower trait WTC learners did express apprehension about speaking in front of the whole class and saying something incorrectly. The lower trait WTC learners, though, also voiced that it was helpful to have something written down in front of them to feel comfortable and confident in their speech as a guide, and that they were always listening and comprehending what was taking place in both activities. Therefore, this study does not show that proficiency or comprehension were factors in learner WTC, but it suggests that handouts can act as a form of support for communication that lower proficiency students might need.

This research offers insight into what promotes or restrains students from speaking in the L2 in the classroom in relation to their level of WTC and what types of activities may be beneficial dependent on their level. Additionally, it adds to existing WTC research on L2 speakers in their native language environment, differing from existing studies of non-native speakers in the L2 native environment who showed no difference in perceived/actual WTC but expressed high anxiety in communicating and necessity in learning the language. With regard to prior WTC investigations mentioned in this study, several of the investigations looked at learner WTC while living in the country of the TL and thus the learners had high motivation to learn the language. When participants were asked what motivates them to speak and learn Spanish, all learners told a personal anecdote or belief as to why Spanish was important to them: some had Spanish-speaking relatives, others had Spanish-speaking co-workers or friends, and many expressed that it is very important in the workforce and in the country for them to know Spanish as well as they can. All students placed value on the TL in some way which could positively influence their own willingness to speak in the language or desire to learn it. It is evident that while not all students were highly *willing* to communicate, all expressed that they comprehended the material, were engaged, and had some reason motivating them to learn the language.

References

- Alemi, M., Tajeddin, Z., & Mesbah, Z. (2013). Willingness to communicate in L2 English: impact of learner variables. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 4, 42-61.
- Andrade, M., Egasse, J., Muñoz, E. M., & Cabrera Puche, M. J. (2013). *Tu mundo: español sin fronteras*. McGraw-Hill.
- Baker, S. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2002). The role of gender and immersion in communication and second language orientations. *Language Learning*, 50, 311-341.
- Burgoon, J. K. (1976). The Unwillingness-to-Communicate scale: development and validation. *Communication*, 43, 60-69.
- Cao, Y. (2009). *Understanding the notion of interdependence, and the dynamics of willingness to communicate* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Auckland.
- Cao, Y., & J. Philp. (2006). Interactional context and willingness to communicate: A comparison of behaviour in whole class, group and dyadic interaction. *System*, 34, 480-493.

- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Dörnyei, Z., & J. Kormos. (2000). The role of individual and social variables in oral task performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 4, 275–300.
- Ellis, R. (2012). *Language teaching research and language pedagogy*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- Long, M. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie & T. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition*. (pp. 413-468). Academic Press.
- MacIntyre, P. D. (2007). Willingness to communicate in the second language: Understanding the decision to speak as a volitional process. *The Modern Language Journal*, 91, 564-576.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clément, R., & Conrod, S. (2001) Willingness to communicate, social support, and language-learning orientations of immersion students. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 23, 369-388.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Charos, C. (1996). Personality, attitudes, and affect as predictors of second language communication. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 15, 3-26.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *Modern Language Journal*, 82, 545-562.
- McCroskey, J. C. (1992). Reliability and validity of the willingness to communicate scale. *Communication Quarterly*, 40, 16-25.
- McCroskey, J. C., & Baer, J. E. (1985). Willingness to communicate: The construct and its measurement. Paper presented at the annual convention of the Speech Communication Association, Denver, CO.
- Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing tasks for the communicative classroom*. Cambridge University Press.
- Peng, J., & Woodrow, L. (2010). Willingness to communicate in English: A model in the Chinese EFL classroom context. *Language Learning*, 60, 834–876.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235-253). Newbury.
- Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Japanese EFL context. *The Modern Language Journal*, 86, 54-66.
- Yashima, T. (2009). International posture and the ideal L2 self in Japanese EFL context. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Usioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and L2 self* (pp. 144-163). Multilingual Matters.
- Yashima, T., Zenuk-Nishide, L., & Shimizu, K. (2004). The influence of attitudes and affect on willingness to communicate and second language communication. *Language Learning*, 54, 119-152.

Appendix A

Willingness to Communicate (WTC) Scale (McCroskey & Baer, 1985)

Directions: Below are 20 situations in which a person might choose to communicate or not to communicate. Presume you have completely free choice. Indicate the percentage of times you would choose to communicate in each type of situation. Indicate in the space at the left of the item what percent of the time you would choose to communicate. (0 = Never to 100 = Always)

- _____ 1. Talk with a service station attendant.
- _____ 2. Talk with a physician.
- _____ 3. Present a talk to a group of strangers.
- _____ 4. Talk with an acquaintance while standing in line.
- _____ 5. Talk with a salesperson in a store.
- _____ 6. Talk in a large meeting of friends.
- _____ 7. Talk with a police officer.
- _____ 8. Talk in a small group of strangers.
- _____ 9. Talk with a friend while standing in line.
- _____ 10. Talk with a waiter/waitress in a restaurant.
- _____ 11. Talk in a large meeting of acquaintances.
- _____ 12. Talk with a stranger while standing in line.
- _____ 13. Talk with a secretary.
- _____ 14. Present a talk to a group of friends.
- _____ 15. Talk in a small group of acquaintances.
- _____ 16. Talk with a garbage collector.
- _____ 17. Talk in a large meeting of strangers.
- _____ 18. Talk with a spouse (or girl/boyfriend).
- _____ 19. Talk in a small group of friends.
- _____ 20. Present a talk to a group of acquaintances.

Appendix B

Stimulated Recall Interview Questions

1. How prepared did you feel to raise your hand in the first activity? How motivated? Please explain.
2. How prepared did you feel to initiate speech in the second activity? How motivated? Please explain.
3. Generally, what do you feel motivates you to speak in Spanish?
4. Describe what you were feeling during both activities. Did you prefer one over the other? Please explain.

Perceptions and Practices in Language Teaching: A Survey of Experts in Literary and Cultural Studies

Justin P. White

Florida Atlantic University

Andrew J. DeMil

University of Tampa

Geraldine Blattner

Florida Atlantic University

Abstract

This study serves as a follow-up to VanPatten's (2015a) demographic report including the makeup of many university language departments. The present study investigates what some literary and cultural studies experts self-report regarding their training in SLA/language pedagogy, term familiarity, perceptions of Communicative Language Teaching, and classroom practices. Participants included 38 university-level US Spanish and French professors with expertise in literary and cultural studies. Findings revealed a lack of familiarity with some SLA and language teaching constructs, feedback types, and the role of explicit grammar and mechanical drills. As such, we discuss the ramifications of these findings.

Keywords: *input processing, language teaching, teaching practices, feedback; survey*

Background

VanPatten (2015a) reported that language departments in universities across the United States comprise an overwhelming percentage of experts in literary and cultural studies. In brief, at the time of the 2015 study, out of 344 tenured and tenure-line faculty members in Spanish, only 22 faculty (6%) had an expertise in language acquisition, and in French, there were a mere four faculty members out of 248 in the areas of language acquisition, roughly equating to two percent. The remaining 322 (94%) tenured and tenure-line faculty in Spanish and 244 (98%) in French had areas of expertise other than language acquisition, with the vast majority boasting expertise in literary and cultural studies. VanPatten (2015a) states that, "... the vast majority of scholars populating academic "language" departments are not experts in language or language acquisition" (p. 4). He elaborates that these faculty are not necessarily experts in language in the same way as language scientists who investigate language as an object of inquiry and details a series of consequences of the

lack of language experts (i.e., perpetuation of myths about language, perpetuation of myths about language acquisition and language teaching, lack of training of future professoriate, and perpetuation of the standard textbook scope and sequence). The data for the 2015 report utilized the demographic information of these Spanish and French faculty by way of their online CVs and official positions at the university and with that in mind, the present study seeks to reveal to what extent some faculty in literary and cultural studies in Spanish and French are informed in topics related to language acquisition and language teaching. This study only targeted Spanish and French faculty given that the demographic represented in VanPatten (2015a) was exclusive beyond both Spanish and French.

Specifically, the present study is interested in the following: What do faculty in literary and cultural studies report knowing about second language acquisition, language teaching, and consequently, on what beliefs are they basing their pedagogy? The present study sought to address this issue by surveying tenured and tenure-line faculty member experts in literary and cultural studies regarding their prior formal academic training in SLA and language teaching pedagogy, the current frequency with which they engage in reading or producing related academic research, and their familiarity with select terms and constructs in language acquisition and language teaching pedagogy which may ultimately guide decisions in the language classroom. The main areas of interest were language processing, the role of explicit grammar and grammar instruction, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), and feedback.

Previous Research

Language learning has been an object of inquiry for millennia, but it was only recently, during the latter part of the 20th century, that this interest evolved into a science (VanPatten & Williams, 2015) and formed its own fields of research-informed second language teaching pedagogy and second language acquisition. On the acquisition side, researchers are interested in how x affects y . For example, the effects of x on acquisition (however it might be qualified in a particular research paradigm). Concomitantly, language teaching pedagogy is regularly informed by the findings of language acquisition research, and approaches are consequently drawn from this research. Given that the field of language acquisition attempts to explain how the mind works regarding the processes, products, and environments of language acquisition, it is generally accepted that language instructors can benefit from having a command of concepts in language pedagogy and SLA, particularly in light of the direct relationship between research and praxis (Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Long 2009).

A brief snapshot shows that from the early 1980s until now, in theory, language teaching moved from a focus on explicit grammar as an object of study to explicit grammar coupled with mechanical drills, input-based activities, meaningful and communicative drills, and interactive activities and tasks with emphasis on meaningful communicative exchanges. During this transition, a movement known as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was born out of the push to expose learners to meaning-bearing input combined with meaningful exchanges in the classroom in an effort to engage the cognitive processes involved in communication. The term CLT was used to describe language teaching practices that emphasize interaction among interlocutors during which communication comprises both the

means and the end goal. Researchers and pedagogues agreed that learners needed both exposure to comprehensible input and opportunities to interact with others in the target language in order to be successful in their language-learning pursuit (Gass & Mackey, 2015; VanPatten & Williams, 2015); therefore, grammar as an abstract object of study takes the backseat while communicative goals remain at the forefront. Attesting to the role of communication through interaction in language acquisition, Long and Robinson (1998) state that “people of all ages learn languages best, inside or outside a classroom, not by treating the languages as an object of study, but by experiencing them as a medium of communication” (p. 18). In other words, one of the leading principles of CLT, based on this line of research in language acquisition, involves providing learners with opportunities to communicate using the target language. Studies based on Long’s Interaction Hypothesis (Leeser, 2004; Mackey, 2006; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Pica et al., 2006) thereby provide support for the role of meaning-based interactive activities in language acquisition along with their viability of use in the language classroom.

One of the principal tenets of Communicative Language Teaching was instructors’ advocating for the provision of learners’ exposure to meaning-based input. Since the early 1980s, scholars have made claims regarding the role of input such as the following: Krashen (1982) claims that “comprehensible input causes acquisition” (p. 16), Lee and VanPatten (1995) state that “successful language acquisition cannot happen without comprehensible input.” (p. 29), Lee and VanPatten (2003) claim that, “Every scholar today believes that comprehensible input is a critical factor in language acquisition.” (p. 16), and finally, VanPatten and Williams (2007) state that, “acquisition will not happen for learners of a second language unless they are exposed to input” (p. 9). That being said, scholars, over the past nearly 40 years, have emphasized the imperative nature of input and its role in L2 acquisition. With that in mind, and all major theoretical frameworks in SLA posit a fundamental role for input (e.g., N. Ellis, 2007; Gass & Mackey, 2007; VanPatten, 2007; White, 2007), and for that reason, one of the primary areas of study within instructed SLA research is to investigate ways in which instruction can enhance how L2 learners process input.

Nonetheless, despite the call to shift focus from explicit grammar instruction to providing learners opportunities to process grammatical forms for meaning within a communicative context from as early as Krashen (1982), there has still been a reported predominant focus on explicit grammar instruction in the classroom (Fernández, 2008; VanPatten & Wong, 2003). In other words, in its infancy, language instructors still heavily relied on explicit grammar instruction, which was typically operationalized by imparting explicit grammar instruction by lecturing about how a particular grammatical structure is formed and how this same particular grammar form is used in a sentence. Within this same approach, what little communication in the classroom there was, was seen merely as a vehicle for a grammar-driven practice as opposed to completing task-based communicative goal-oriented interactive activities. VanPatten (1996) draws attention to this then ‘current state’ and points out that many language instructors’ common practice still maintained a heavy grammar focus in the classroom and, despite providing more opportunities for communication, the instructor was still the primary source of knowledge.

During the early and mid 1990s, a series of publications of relevant acquisition-oriented studies related to the role of input and explicit grammar information in language learning emerged, such as VanPatten and Cadierno (1993), VanPatten and Sanz (1995), and VanPatten and Oikkenon (1996), all providing empirical support for the use of input-based activities in the language classroom and providing little to no support for the role of explicit grammar information in language acquisition or mechanical drills. These studies investigated the effects of an instructional intervention known as Processing Instruction (PI) which in its complete form consists of explicit grammar information (EI), processing strategy information, and a type of input-based Focus on Form (FoF) activity (i.e., designed for learners to attend to meaning with the target form embedded) titled Structured Input (SI). For a complete overview of PI, see: VanPatten (2004).

Given the revolutionary nature of this research agenda to the fields of SLA and language teaching, it has evolved in the past 25 years into one of the most well-known research agendas, and has continued into the following decades by investigating the effects of EI in isolation and/or in combination with Structured Input (Fernández, 2008; White & DeMil, 2013) and with other forms of input (Morgan-Short & Bowden, 2006; White, 2015). EI in these studies consists of metalinguistic information about how a particular grammatical structure is formed. The findings since the early and mid-1990s to the present date have consistently indicated that exposure to input (and particularly certain types of input such as SI) is responsible for acquisition, not EI, and that mechanical drills are not necessary for language acquisition in any language, at any time (VanPatten et al., 2013).

Another topic of considerable interest in both language acquisition research and language teaching is related to the effectiveness of types of feedback provided to learners during language instruction. Feedback comes in different forms, and the two most common provisions of feedback are recasts or recalls (prompts) (Gass & Mackey, 2015). “Recasts” are a type of corrective feedback during which the instructor provides the correct form in response to a learner’s incorrect utterance. Recasts attempt to draw learners’ attention to an incorrect utterance in either oral or written form and push learners to notice the correct form while maintaining the flow of communication (Long, 1996; Ohta, 2000; Oliver, 1995; Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Doughty (2001), states that recasts function by maintaining a status of an “immediately contingent focus on form” and work within a “cognitive window” (p. 252) during which learners can attend to the feedback and appropriately access the language present in their interlanguage. Recalls, on the other hand, push learners to self-correct by calling learners’ attention to the incorrect utterance; this feedback asks the learner to notice the error and self-correct. Recalls prompt the learner to pay attention to the teacher’s indication that the utterance was incorrect and waits for the learner to respond (recall) with the now correct utterance (Long, 1996; Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Numerous studies have measured the effectiveness of feedback by either comparing the effects of feedback types to each other, or by comparing the provision of feedback to the absence of exposure to feedback of any sort. These studies, while experimentally controlled, are based on conversation pairs including second language learning adults. Long, Inagaki, and Ortega (1998) investigated the effects of providing learners with either recasts or information about correct grammar. The results

of their study indicated that recasts demonstrated more effectiveness than simply providing learners with target-like grammar models. Mackey and Philp (1998) also investigated the effects of feedback and found that recasts were more effective than no feedback at all with adult ESL learners. Loewen and Erlam (2006) investigated the effectiveness of corrective feedback in an online chatroom during which elementary learners of English as a second language received either recasts or grammar information, and who were subsequently tested on timed and untimed grammaticality judgment tasks. Their results indicated that both the recast and grammar groups outperformed the control group who received no feedback at all, thereby providing supportive evidence to the effectiveness of the implementation of corrective feedback in the classroom. In their meta-analysis of 15 total studies, Russell and Spada (2006) found that overall, corrective feedback is considered a positive contributing factor to second language acquisition. For a comprehensive review of recast studies, see Nicholas, Lightbown, and Spada (2001).

Although the research reviewed in the areas of input exposure, input processing, interaction (operationalized through group work in the language classroom), and feedback are not exhaustive to the many areas of interest in language acquisition research, they are simply a few of the many areas that have received durative attention in the research community that are relevant to language teachers. Given that the majority of professors in language departments across the country who have an area of expertise in literary or cultural studies are regularly tasked with teaching language courses, the present study is interested in revealing what *they* know about these terms as well as their training in language acquisition and related pedagogical fields. Based on the data reported in VanPatten (2015a), it is clear that on paper they are not experts, but perhaps they are informed practitioners with a sufficient level of familiarity to be able to make research-oriented informed decisions in their praxis. Therefore, this study seeks to provide a more internal view on the issue by reaching out directly to tenure and tenure-line faculty and asking them to self-report on whether they consider their language teaching approach to be communicative, their formal training in SLA/Language teaching pedagogy, engagement with field-relevant research, frequency with which they teach language courses, familiarity with a select few related terms and constructs, and their in-class practices.

The Current Study

The present study was thus guided by the following specific research questions:

1. How often do participants report reading or conducting research in SLA or language pedagogy?
2. What is participants' reported training in SLA and language pedagogy?
3. What are participants' reported familiarity levels with key terms and constructs in language acquisition and language teaching?
4. What are participants' reported perceptions of Communicative Language Teaching?
5. What are participants' reported perceptions of their practices in the language classroom?
6. What are participants' reported perceptions about influential factors in language acquisition?

Methods and Procedures

Participants. The participants from this study included university-level tenured and tenure-line Spanish and French language professors from various institutions in the U.S. Participants were deemed suitable for this study if they reported both having a Ph.D. in literature or a related field and holding a tenured or tenure-line position as a Spanish or French language professor at the university level. The initial participant pool consisted of 75 participants that began the survey and a final *n* size after attrition of 38 participants resulting from survey non-completion. The final participant pool consisted of 35 Spanish professors at the Associate Professor level, two Spanish professors at the Assistant Professor level, and one French professor at the Associate Professor level. That said, all participants are grouped together in the subsequent survey-questionnaire analyses.

Materials. The data collection materials in the present study consisted of a survey targeting 7 main areas of interest: background information, field activity (reading and conducting SLA or language teaching research), terms and familiarity in language teaching, common myths and statements about language acquisition, instructor classroom practices, and perceptions of students' needs for language acquisition. The survey consisted of a total of 38 questions; 7 questions related to participant background and profile, 3 field activity questions, 6 terms related to language teaching and 6 confidence of knowledge questions with the same terms, 16 true/false statements about common myths about language acquisition and respondents' perceptions of these claims. See Appendix A for the full list of survey questions.

Procedure. An email list of 216 professors in language departments was compiled by using university and department web pages, personal contacts, and language program listservs. The recruitment email included an invitation to participate in a study investigating language learning perceptions and practices along with a link to the survey housed on SurveyMonkey.com. Participants completed the survey online (Appendix A) and upon clicking a final 'submit' button, their results were uploaded and recorded in the online survey system. In an effort to gather the most candid data, participation in the survey was kept anonymous and no contact information was requested. For that reason, no follow-up letter or findings of the study were sent to participants. Participant responses for those that completed the survey in its entirety were recorded and subsequently submitted to simple response-percentage calculations.

Findings

Respondent Background Information and Field Activity

As a summary statistic, the survey items targeting formal training in both language teaching and language acquisition data is combined to provide a snapshot of the background information of all respondents. Based on the survey, 86% (33 out of 38) of the participants reported having taken a teaching methodology course and 65% (25 out of 38) reported having completed a course in SLA. Regarding participants' involvement in language acquisition research, 89% of all respondents (34 out of 38) reported reading empirical studies in SLA or language pedagogy either as often as weekly and monthly or as often as two to three times a year. In

terms of producing scholarship in the form of academic publications, 13% (5 out of 38) reported publishing annually in either the fields of language acquisition or language pedagogy.

In order to better understand their level of contact with language instruction, participants reported the frequency with which they routinely teach languages courses. All respondents (100%) reported either currently teaching, or having taught within the past 2 years, at least one Spanish or French language course. Additionally, 81.5% (31 out of 38) reported having taught 31 or more language courses throughout their career.

Summary of Background Information and Field Activity

Considering that the majority of participants reported having taken either a language methodology course or a course in second language acquisition (86% and 65% respectively), the participants in this study have undergone formal training in these principal areas of interest. Additionally, nearly all participants (89%) reported reading publications about either language acquisition or language teaching at least two times a year and many as often as weekly or monthly, which leads us to deduce that they are regularly engaging in relevant research. The participants in this study are experienced language teachers given the quantity and recency with which they report teaching language courses (i.e., 100% of participants reported either currently teaching or having taught a language course within the past year and 89% reported having taught more than 30 language courses throughout their career).

Respondent Familiarity in Key Terms and Concepts Related to Language Processing

In order to gauge respondents' familiarity level with some select terms and concepts in the fields of language acquisition and language teaching related to language processing, participants were asked to respond to a variety of types of survey items. The first item type asked participants to self-rate their familiarity related to a series of terms as either expert level, near-expert level, mildly familiar, or not familiar. As a follow-up item, participants were asked to respond by rating their confidence level with being able to provide an accurate definition of the terms if asked to subsequently supply one. In some cases, additional survey items related to content questions were also included. In short, the purpose of these survey items related to the terms was to find out, (a) with what level of familiarity they rated themselves; (b) if their reported ability to be able to subsequently provide a definition aligned with their stated level of familiarity; and (c) if their responses to content statements pertaining to some of the terms were accurate (i.e., myths about language acquisition). The participants were not asked to provide definitions of terms, given that this would be both labor intensive and time consuming for participants and consequently might dissuade them from completing the entire survey.

The first term in the study targeting language processing was "input." When asked to rate their familiarity with this term, 68% (26 out of 38) of participants reported being at either expert or near-expert levels, and the remaining 32% (12 out of 38) reported being either not familiar or mildly familiar with this term. Sixty-six percent of participants (25 out of 38) responded as either highly confident or con-

fidient that they could provide an accurate definition, whereas 34% (13 out of 38) responded as being mildly confident or not confident of being able to provide an accurate definition. A follow-up survey item — again, in lieu of asking for participants to provide a definition — asked participants to respond to the following claim regarding the definition of the term itself: Input includes the explanation of grammar rules. In response to this statement, 60% of participants (23 out of 38) reported that, yes, input includes the explanation of grammar rules, 8% (3 out of 38) reported that they did not know, and 32% (12 out of 38) reported that, no, input does not include the explanation of grammar rules. In this case, the correct answer is “no.” See Table 1 for a visual representation of these findings.

The second term regarding language processing about which participants were asked a series of questions was “intake.” In response to participants’ familiarity with this term, 34% (13 out of 38) reported being at expert or near-expert level, and 66% (25 out of 38) responded not being familiar with the term. As a follow-up survey item, participants were asked to rate their confidence in being able to provide an accurate definition of “intake.” The results showed that 32% (12 out of 38) of participants reported being extremely confident or confident at being able to provide an accurate definition, and 68% (26 out of 38) reported not being confident in providing an accurate definition. Table 1 presents these findings visually.

Table 1
Respondent data regarding input and intake

	Expert/near-expert	Not familiar	Confident	Not confident
Input	68%	32%	66%	34%
Intake	34%	66%	32%	68%

Summary of Reported Familiarity with Language Processing

In general, the findings for the terms related to language processing, “input” and “intake,” reveal the following. In the case of input, 68% (26 out of 38) of participants rated themselves at either expert or near-expert levels. Out of these 26 participants who self-reported being at expert or near-expert levels, 11 of them reported erroneously that input includes the explanation of grammar rules. Complicating this issue, 32% (12 out of 38) reported either not being familiar or mildly familiar with the term “input.”

In the case of the term “intake,” 34% (13 out of 38) reported being at either expert or near-expert levels, however, upon looking more closely at the responses, the following issue presents itself: 10 of the 13 participants who responded as being at expert or near-expert level also reported not being able to provide an accurate definition of intake, if asked to provide one. Additionally, 6 of the 25 participants who reported as not being familiar with the term also reported being confident that they could provide an accurate definition. How is it possible to not be familiar with a term but then self-rate as confident in providing an accurate definition? Additionally, how is it possible to be an expert (or near-expert) and self-report as not be able to provide an accurate definition? These issues will be further explored in the discussion section of the present study.

Respondent Familiarity in Key Terms and Concepts Related to Explicit Grammar and Mechanical Drills

The second series of survey items addresses the role of explicit grammar information and the use of mechanical drills in order for successful language acquisition to take place. As discussed earlier, explicit grammar information is considered explaining grammar in the abstract sense (i.e., syntactic structures, morphological derivation) and often includes the extensive explanation of grammar via paradigmatic charts. Mechanical drills are defined as those drills for which learners do not need to attend to meaning to complete (i.e., fill-in-the-blank drills with the appropriate verb form when the corresponding verb is supplied). Table 2 displays a summary of these findings.

Table 2
Respondent data regarding explicit grammar and mechanical drills

Statement	Agree	Disagree
1. Explicit grammar is necessary for successful language acquisition.	53%	47%
2. Mechanical drills are necessary to learn any second language.	37%	63%
3. Mechanical drills are necessary to learn some languages (i.e., Russian).	37%	63%
4. Mechanical drills are useful during a class session.	32%	68%
5. Mechanical drills are useful before, during, or after class, it just depends.	68%	32%
6. Mechanical drills are not necessary to successfully learn a language.	37%	63%

Summary of Reported Perceptions of Explicit Grammar and Mechanical Drills

In general, the findings for participants' responses regarding the role of explicit grammar information and mechanical drills indicate that over half of the participants (53%) consider explicit grammar a necessary component of language instruction in order for successful language acquisition to take place. Based on participant responses to the survey items regarding the role of mechanical drills, at least 37% of respondents and upwards of 68% indicate that mechanical drills are either necessary or useful at some point during instruction for successful language learning.

Respondent Perceptions of Communicative Language Teaching

The following set of survey items addresses instructors' self-reporting on their approach to language teaching as well as their perception and implementation of types of activities during Communicative Language Teaching. The purpose of these survey items is to determine if participants consider their approach to be communicative, gauge how they perceive Communicative Language Teaching, and find out some information about their class-time praxis. A summary of these findings is displayed in Table 3.

Table 3

Respondent perceptions of communicative language teaching, mechanical drills, and non-target language use

Statement	Agree	Disagree
1. CLT is, by nature, ‘wishy-washy’ and does not help learners learn grammar.	20%	80%
2. I consider my approach to language teaching as communicative.	100%	0%
3. Rehearsing dialogues (i.e., plays, scripts) is a communicative activity.	58%	42%
4. Usually, when presenting vocabulary, I read it to students and they repeat it.	32%	68%
5. Typically, students complete grammar worksheets in class.	50%	50%
6. During class, we do a lot of group work.	82%	18%
7. During group work, students use a lot of English.	53%	47%
8. During group work, students stay on task.	47%	53%
9. During class, we do a lot of translation exercises.	29%	71%

Summary of Perceptions of Communicative Language Teaching

In general, the findings for instructor perceptions of Communicative Language Teaching are two-fold. Even though 100% of participants report their approach to language teaching as communicative, responses to survey items containing statements regarding non-communicative praxis provide conflicting data. More than half of the participants (58%) consider rehearsing plays and dialogues as communicative, nearly one third of participants (32% and 29% respectively) report a call-and-response method of vocabulary presentation and completing translation exercises in class, and half of participants (50%) report completing grammar worksheets during class.

Respondent Familiarity in Key Terms and Concepts Related to Feedback

The final series of terms addressed in this survey are related to feedback in the language classroom. The first term for which participants were asked to respond is the term “recall.” Again, recalls are considered a type of elicitation feedback that prompt learners to produce the correct form after an incorrect utterance is made by calling their attention to the error. In terms of familiarity, 58% (22 out of 38) reported being at either expert or near-expert levels and 42% (16 out of 38) reported not being familiar with the term. In terms of participants’ confidence level at providing an accurate definition, 29% (11 out of 38) reported being extremely confident or confident, and 71% (27 out of 38) reported not being confident at providing an accurate definition, if asked.

The second term related to feedback about which participants were asked to respond was “recasts.” To reiterate, recasts are considered a type of instructor feedback during which the instructor repeats the corrected form of an incorrect utterance while maintaining the conversation stream and the focus on meaning. The following data revealed itself: 55% (21 out of 38) of participants reported being at expert or near-expert levels, and 45% (17 out of 38) reported not being familiar with the term. When asked to rate their confidence level of providing an accurate definition, 50% (19 out of 38) reported not being confident with providing an accurate definition. In this case, no discrepancy with the self-reports of familiarity level and confidence in being able to provide a definition was found.

Summary of Reported Familiarity with Feedback

The findings for respondents' familiarity with two terms related to feedback, recalls and recasts, reveals the following: in both cases, over one half of the participants self-reported being at expert or near-expert levels; however, nearly one half of respondents reported not being familiar with the two terms (42% and 45% respectively). Additionally, for recalls, nearly three quarters of participants (71%) reported not feeling confident they could supply an accurate definition and in the case of "recalls," half (50%) of the participants reported the same. The data also indicates that five of the participants that self-reported to be at expert or near expert-levels for recalls reported not being able to provide an accurate definition.

Discussion

In general, the findings from the survey responses beg the question what the respondents perceive to be necessary and/or responsible for successful language acquisition. As a reminder, the overall design of the study included survey questions targeting the following topics: 1) demographic data including prior training in SLA and language teaching pedagogy, activity in, and exposure to, field-specific research; 2) terms and constructs related to language processing and feedback for which participants were asked to rate their familiarity, their confidence level in providing an accurate definition (if subsequently asked to do so), and in some cases, to respond to claims about these same targeted terms (i.e., input includes grammatical explanation.); 3) the role of explicit grammar explanation and mechanical drills for which participants were asked to respond whether they agree or disagree with a series of claims (i.e., Explicit grammar is necessary for successful language acquisition); and 4) topics related to Communicative Language Teaching and interaction for which participants responded to survey items addressing construct-specific claims (i.e., rehearsing dialogues, plays, or scripts is a communicative activity). Based on participants' responses, there are a series of findings of interest regarding the terms and constructs targeted in this study as well as respondents' exposure to relevant research and training in the fields of SLA and language teaching pedagogy.

Regarding participant background and field activity levels, 85% of all participants reported having taken a course in pedagogy, 65% a course in SLA, and 90% reported reading language acquisition or language teaching research as often as weekly, monthly, or at least twice a year. This demonstrates that both their preparation in the fields as well as their dedication to maintaining themselves informed of research is quite promising for professionals whose main area of research focus rests in literary and cultural studies. These findings suggest that value is placed on both professional preparation during their studies in addition to keeping up to date with relevant research in language acquisition and teaching. Nonetheless, the participants' experiences with preparation and research and their self-reported level of activity do not align with the results of the content-specific areas targeted in this study.

In the case of issues related to language processing, a high percentage of participants (68%) self-rated at expert or near-expert levels with the term "input," and if this finding is taken at face value in isolation, it seems quite promising. However, one intriguing issue presents itself here regarding the responses to the follow-up

survey items about the nature of input; nearly half of the participants (42%) who self-reported as experts or near-experts also agreed that “input includes the explanation of grammar rules.”

An anonymous reviewer of a previous version of this manuscript commented that if the grammar explanation is in *lingua*, then it can be input. This is a common misconception and perpetuation of myths about language acquisition, one that merits addressing here again: explaining grammar and providing input have two entirely different purposes. The former intends to explain *how* the grammar works in the abstract sense and any language used during this explanation is not what learners are focusing on to extract meaning; they are simply trying to figure out how the grammar forms presented might function mechanically. Input, on the other hand, is message-containing linguistic data that is to be processed for meaning, which often includes specific target forms presented in a meaningful context so that they can be attended to. Complicating this issue even more, 12 out of 38 participants reported not being familiar or only mildly familiar with the term “input,” despite this term being common in the literature throughout the past nearly 40 years. Although the data from the current study cannot make any direct claims about what they are using as input for their language classes, it does create more questions about actual class practices.

Similar findings present themselves through responses related to the role of explicit grammar information. To remind the reader, over half of all participants (53%) responded that explicit grammar is necessary for language acquisition to take place. The role of explicit grammar is debated in the field and there exists considerable research suggesting that it is either not necessary for successful language acquisition (VanPatten & Oikkenon, 1996; White & DeMil, 2013) or that it might be useful, but not necessarily necessary, for some target forms and not others (Fernández, 2008). The key word in the survey question was “necessary”; however, perhaps the question was not read in the strictest of senses by participants, which resulted in a range of responses. The responses to this question are either due to the saliency of the question itself, or there is in fact cause for concern regarding the perpetuation of myths about language acquisition.

Regarding the usefulness of mechanical drills, 63% of participants reported that mechanical drills are necessary to successfully learn a language, and 68% reported that they believe that mechanical drills are useful (before, during, or after class, it just depends). That said, research has demonstrated that language acquisition is facilitated by making form-meaning connections (Carroll, 2001; VanPatten, 2015b; VanPatten & Rothman, 2014; White, 1987), which mechanical drills do not facilitate. In the case of the present study, upwards of 68% of participants reported that mechanical drills were either necessary or useful, which leaves us to question why they might believe this to be true. One possible interpretation is that these participants deem mechanical drills necessary because they test learners using them and therefore consider them useful given that they prepare students for their tests or other assessment measures. Another possible interpretation is that participants do not actually know what a mechanical drill is, in which case they might interpret the survey questions to refer to any type of activity that has multiple choices or limited responses, even including meaning-based fill-in-the-blank activities or input-based

multiple-choice activities. Or finally, this could be an indicator that there is a general misconception as to the nature of language acquisition and further perpetuation of myths about language acquisition given participants' responses regarding their usefulness. Future studies need to provide participants with examples of activity and drill types asking them to comment if they would use them and why. Additional follow-up interviews also need to be conducted in order to explore this dynamic relationship between instructors and their activity selections. In the case of the present study, the survey was purposefully designed to be anonymous in order to incentivize participants and for that reason, no follow-inquiries were possible.

In terms of participant familiarity with two fundamental feedback-related terms, recalls and recasts, participant familiarity was comparably low to that of the terms related to language processing and participants' perceptions of the role of explicit grammar. Only roughly half were familiar with these terms, which leads us to question exactly what type of feedback might be used in the classroom, if any. On the other hand, perhaps the concepts are familiar to the participants but the terms used to identify these concepts are not. Could it be that the participants are implementing these types of feedback but just do not realize it? Nonetheless, the findings suggest that these terms, although used in research in SLA, are not widely familiar to the participants in this study, even though many participants reported having taken courses in SLA or language teaching and reported regularly reading research in these fields.

And finally, regarding the nature of Communicative Language Teaching, the findings of the present study suggest a similar misconception about what communication actually consists of, or at minimum, what types of activities involve communication. In the present study, all participants consider their language teaching approach to be communicative even though more than half of participants consider rehearsing plays and dialogues to be communicative. However, communication itself involves the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning, which these activities do not. In other words, rehearsing dialogues or plays does not align with what communication actually is, given that it lacks these necessary elements. That said, the data from at least half of the participants shows a lack of understanding of what must be present for communication to take place despite having reported their approach to language teaching to be communicative in nature.

Limitations, Directions for Future Research, and Conclusions

This study, of course, is not without its limitations. Although the original participant pool consisted of over 200 Spanish and French professors of varying ranks (Assistant Professor, Associate Professor, and Full Professor) who directly received the survey and who were asked to share the survey with their colleagues, the final participant pool for which data were collected included only 38 responding participants. Although the percentage of responses is low, it is not surprisingly low given that the recruitment method was online via email and the survey itself was lengthy. Notwithstanding, this final participant pool still provides a snapshot of responses to some questions regarding training, experience, and familiarity with a few select formal constructs in L2 teaching and acquisition. Future research needs to include

more participants to capture the responses of a higher percentage of language department faculty with areas of expertise in literary and cultural studies.

Another limitation to this study is that the survey itself is static and does not account for the dynamic nature of language professors and language teaching. The purpose of the survey was to maintain anonymity and provide some insight into a fundamental knowledge base for language teachers and those involved in language teaching and research. Future research will benefit by incorporating a more dynamic approach by implementing other methodological components such as interviews, observations, class recordings, or open-ended questions in survey form. In the case of the present study, although it is quite possible that respondents are familiar with some of the constructs addressed in this study, they were simply not familiar with the terms themselves; yet this explanation does not apply blanketly. To respond to this issue, a follow-up study can provide examples of constructs or types of feedback and ask participants whether or not they would incorporate these into their curriculum through subsequent interviews.

One final limitation to the present study is that it focused solely on a limited number of terms related to the technical aspects of acquisition. This study targeted a subset of commonly-recurring themes in SLA and language teaching including processing, feedback, explicit information, and interaction; future research needs to target a broader scope of terms related to language acquisition and language teaching. Additionally, this study did not target some other important areas related to L2 learning and teaching such as the teaching and learning of culture, intercultural communicative competence, or socio-pragmatic language skills. Naturally, language is not learned in a vacuum and these other equally-important L2-relevant domains focusing on a variety of aspects of culture need to be examined in detail in future research.

Based on the respondent data to the survey completed for this study, perhaps VanPatten (2015a) was indeed accurate in stating that “...language departments are not the best place to learn languages” (p. 12). The potential ramifications of lack of familiarity or misconceptions of the terms addressed in this study, then, continue to be the same concerns raised in VanPatten (2015a): perpetuation of myths about language, perpetuation of myths about language acquisition and language teaching, and perpetuation of lack of training of the professoriate. The implications of the findings from this study are quite clear for Instructed Second Language Acquisition – learners might still be completing mechanical drills, rehearsing memorized scripts, and practicing pronunciation through call and response, much like they were half a century ago in some language classrooms.

On a positive note, however, one additional finding in this study is that 76% of participants (29 out of 38) also reported being interested in attending language teaching workshops. To that end, the overall attendance at these workshops might increase, as well as more opportunities for workshops created, given the findings reported in this study. This may be necessary in order to dispel some of the myths and misconceptions of language acquisition and work towards a common understanding of what language acquisition is, and what language acquisition is not.

Acknowledgements

Many people read previous versions of this article and there are too many to list here. That said, we would like to especially thank Ivy Gilbert for the insight she provided during the final manuscript preparation and editing process as well as Bill VanPatten for his guidance, collegiality, and ongoing support, without which this project, and others, would not have been possible. We would also like to thank the anonymous reviewers for their useful comments and observations. All errors and omissions remain our own.

References

- Carroll, S. E. (2007). Autonomous Induction Theory. In B. VanPatten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction* (pp. 155–174). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Doughty, C. (2001). Cognitive underpinnings of focus on form. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp. 206–257). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, N. (2007). The Associative-Cognitive CREED. In B. VanPatten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 77–95). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Ellis, R., & Shintani, N. (2014). *Exploring language pedagogy through second language acquisition research*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Fernández, C. (2008). Reexamining the role of explicit information in processing instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 30(3), 277–305.
- Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2007). Input, interaction, and output in second language acquisition. In B. Vanpatten, & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition* (pp. 175–200). London: LEA.
- Gass, S. & Mackey, A. (2015). Input, interaction and output in second language acquisition. In B. VanPatten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition* (2nd ed.) (pp. 180–206). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford, UK: Pergamon.
- Lee, J. & VanPatten, B. (1995). *Making communicative language teaching happen*. Boston, MA: McGraw Hill.
- Lee, J., & VanPatten, B. (2003). *Making communicative language teaching happen, 2nd ed.* New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Leeser, M. (2004). Learner proficiency and focus on form during collaborative dialogue. *Language Teaching Research*, 8(1) 55–81.
- Loewen, S., & Erlam, R. (2006). Corrective feedback in the chatroom: An experimental study. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 19(1), 1–14.
- Long, M. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie & T. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413–468). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Long, M. (2009). Methodological principles for language teaching. In Long, M. H. & Doughty, C. J. (eds.), *Handbook of language teaching* (pp. 373–94). Oxford: Blackwell.

- Long, M., Inagaki, S., & Ortega, L. (1998). The role of implicit negative feedback in SLA: Models and recasts in Japanese and Spanish. *Modern Language Journal*, 82, 357–71.
- Long, M., & Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on form: Theory, research and practice. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Lyster, R. & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19(1), 37–66.
- Mackey, A. (2006). Feedback, noticing and instructed second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 27, 405–430.
- Mackey, A. & Philp, J. (1998). Conversational interaction and second language development: Recasts, responses, and red herrings? *The Modern Language Journal*, 82(3), 338–56.
- Morgan-Short, K. & Bowden, H. (2006). Processing instruction and meaningful output-based instruction: Effects on second language development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(1), 31–65.
- Nicholas, H., Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2001). Recasts as feedback to language learners. *Language Learning*, 51(4), 719–758.
- Ohta, A. (2000). Rethinking recasts: A learner-centered examination of corrective feedback in the Japanese classroom. In J. K. Hall & L. Verplaeste (Eds.), *The construction of second and foreign language learning through classroom interaction* (pp. 47–71). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Oliver, R. (1995). Negative feedback in child NS–NNS conversations. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 17(4), 459–481.
- Pica, T., Kang, H., & Sauro, S. (2006). Information gap tasks: Their multiple roles and contributions to interaction research methodology. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(2), 301–338.
- Russell, J., & Spada, N. (2006). The effectiveness of corrective feedback for the acquisition of L2 grammar: A meta-analysis of the research. In J. Norris and L. Ortega (Eds.), *Synthesizing research on language learning and teaching* (pp. 133–161). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate: A step towards second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 16(3), 371–391.
- Van Patten, B. (1996). *Input processing and grammar instruction: Theory and research*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Van Patten, B. (2004). *Processing instruction: Theory, research and commentary*. NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Van Patten, B. (2007). Input processing in adult second language acquisition. In B. Van Patten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition* (pp. 115–135). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Van Patten, B. (2015a). Where are the experts? *Hispania*, 98(1), 2–13.
- Van Patten, B. (2015b). Input processing in adult SLA. In B. Van Patten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition* (pp. 113–134). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

- VanPatten, B., Borst, S., Collopy, E., Qualin, A., & Price, J. (2013). Explicit instruction, grammatical sensitivity, and the first-noun principle: A cross-linguistic study in processing instruction. *Modern Language Journal*, 97(2), 506–527.
- VanPatten, B., & Cadierno, T. (1993). Input processing and second language acquisition: A role for instruction. *The Modern Language Journal*, 77(1), 45–57.
- VanPatten, B., & Oikkenon, S. (1996). Explanation versus structured input in processing instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18(4), 495–510.
- VanPatten, B., & Rothman, J. (2014). Against “rules.” In C. Laval & M. J. Arche (Eds.), *The grammar dimension in instructed SLA: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 15–36). London: Continuum Press.
- VanPatten, B., & Sanz, C. (1995). From input to output: Processing instruction and communicative tasks. In F. R. Eckman, D. Highland, P. W. Lee, J. Mileham & R. R. Weber (Eds.), *Second language acquisition theory and pedagogy* (169–86). Hillsdale, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- VanPatten, B., & Williams, J. (2007). *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- VanPatten, B., & Williams, J. (Eds.). (2015). *Theories in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- VanPatten, B., & Wong, W. (2003). Processing instruction and the French causative: Another replication. In B. VanPatten (Ed.), *Processing instruction: theory, research, and commentary* (pp. 97–114). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- White, L. (1987). Against comprehensible input: The input hypothesis and the development of second language competence. *Applied Linguistics*, 8, 95–110.
- White, L. (2007). Linguistic theory, universal grammar, and second language acquisition. In B. Van Patten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition* (pp. 37–55). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- White, J.P. (2015). The effect of input-based instruction type on the acquisition of Spanish accusative clitics. *Hispania*, 98(2), 264–284.
- White, J. P., & DeMil, A. J. (2013). Transfer of training in PI: The role of FREI. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 35(3) 1–26.

Appendix A

Survey Instrument

Part 1: Background

Instructions: In this section, we would like some information about your background. Please answer all questions accurately.

1. What is the highest degree of education you have completed?

B.A./B.S. M.A./M.S. PhD. Other (explain) _____

2. Which of the following best describes your employment (check all that apply)

____ Assistant Professor

____ Associate Professor

____ Full Professor

____ Department Chair

____ Graduate Teaching Assistant

____ Full Time Instructor

____ Part Time Instructor

____ Full Time Adjunct

____ Part Time Adjunct

____ Other (explain) _____

3. Does your major field of expertise rest in (check all that apply):

____ literary or Cultural Studies

____ linguistics

____ Other (explain) _____

4. Approximately, how many beginning / intermediate language course sections have you taught (ever)?

0 -----10-----20-----30-----40-----50+

5. When was the last time you taught a language course?

____ I currently teach one (or more)

____ last semester

____ last year

____ within the past 3 years

____ within the past 6 years

____ other _____

6. Have you taken a teaching methodology course?

Yes No

7. Have you taken a Second Language Acquisition course?

Yes No

Part II: Field Activity

Instructions: In this section, we would like some information about your habits. Please answer all questions accurately.

1. How often do you read literature in the field of language acquisition or language teaching (i.e., Studies in Second Language Acquisition, Foreign Language Annals)?

____ Daily

____ Weekly

____ Bi-weekly

____ Monthly

____ A few times a year

____ Twice a year

____ Once a year

____ Never

2. Are you interested in attending language teaching workshops?

Yes No

3. How often do you publish scholarly work in SLA or language teaching?

Once a year Twice a year Never Other_____

Part II: Term Familiarity

Instructions: In this section, we would like some information about your familiarity levels with some terms. Please answer all questions accurately. Rate your familiarity with the following concepts on the following scale of expert level, near-expert level, mildly familiar or not familiar.

1. Input

2. Intake

3. Output

4. Communicative Language Teaching

5. Recalls

6. Recasts

In the following section rate your confidence level with being able to provide an accurate definition of the following terms if asked to subsequently supply one by using the following scale: extremely confident, confident, not confident.

1. Input
2. Intake
3. Output
4. Communicative Language Teaching
5. Recalls
6. Recasts

Part III: Perceptions

Instructions: In this section, we would like some information about your perceptions. Please answer all questions by selecting Agree or Disagree.

1. Grammar drills are necessary to learn any second language.
2. Grammar drills are necessary to learn some languages (i.e., Russian).
3. Input includes the explanation of grammar rules.
4. Mechanical drills are most useful during a class session.
5. Mechanical drills are useful before, during, and after class, it just depends.
6. Mechanical drills are not necessary to successfully learn a language.
7. Explicit grammar is necessary for successful language acquisition.
8. CLT, by nature, is wishy-washy.
9. Rehearsing dialogues (i.e., plays, scripts) is a communicative activity.
10. Usually, when presenting vocabulary, I read it to students and they repeat it.
11. Typically, students complete grammar worksheets in class.
12. During class, we do a lot of translation exercises.
13. During class, we do a lot of group work.
14. During group work, students stay on task.
15. During group work, students use a lot of English
16. I consider my approach to language teaching as Communicative?

Connections: Exploring Charles Moravia's *Le fils du tapissier: épisode de la vie de Molière* in the Introductory French Language Classroom

Jacob Abell

Vanderbilt University

Stacey Margarita Johnson

Vanderbilt University

Abstract

This paper describes one approach to focusing on Connections, one of the five Cs from the World Readiness Standards for Learning Languages, as a means of exposing introductory language students to culturally diverse authentic texts through drama-based pedagogy. Our approach focuses on an instructor working within an established departmental curriculum for introductory language courses. Despite these constraints, the instructor was able to create a two-day instructional sequence that allowed students to interact with each other through their engagement with the work of the Francophone playwright Charles Moravia (1875-1938). The activity sequence was embedded in the grammar and vocabulary presented in the assigned textbook chapter, aligned with the communicative goals for the unit, and also integrated the graduate student instructor's own doctoral research interests in a way that was energizing for instructor and students alike. The authors demonstrate the viability of expanding a given syllabus to offer novice language students a more culturally diverse range of authentic texts, including a range of genres, all while consistently serving the needs of a proficiency-based classroom.

Keywords: proficiency, drama-based pedagogy, Francophone, authentic texts, novice learners

Instructors who teach coordinated multi-section courses face a number of complex dynamics in their classrooms while often having little say in determining the curriculum or the syllabus. Day-to-day instructional decisions are typically guided by the needs of standardized assessments rather than the interests and expertise of the instructor or the students. We are especially conscious of the challenges faced by graduate student instructors, who are likely to be new to the classroom, engaged in highly specialized study within their field, and also developing signature pedagogies and techniques that they will carry with them into future faculty positions.

In this article, we argue that instructors teaching under such constraints can effectively integrate their own literary and cultural interests into their teaching, expand the syllabus to include diverse representation, and scaffold the types of immersive and community-engaged practices that are the hallmark of upper-level lan-

guage study. All this can be done while also teaching for proficiency and meeting the goals of the coordinated syllabus. As Lord and Lomicka (2018) pointed out, language departments generally are slow to move toward integrated approaches, despite the forward momentum of specific individuals within their ranks. The practices we recommend fall under several of the standards from the World Readiness Standards for Learning Languages (National Collaborative Board, 2015), notably the “Connections” standard which requires language learners at all levels to “...build, reinforce, and expand their knowledge of other disciplines while using the language to develop critical thinking and to solve problems creatively” (p. 1 in the summary) as well as to “... access and evaluate information and diverse perspectives that are available through the language and its cultures.”

This article lays out a pedagogical example designed by Jacob Abell, co-author of this article and graduate student instructor of a second semester French course. Abell’s two-day sequence of instructional activities centered on the Haitian play “Le fils du tapissier: épisode de la vie de Molière” [The Upholsterer’s Son: Episode from the Life of Molière] (Moravia, 1923), integrated his own professional interest in theater, and enlivened a required textbook-based unit on the theme of labor and work. Students engaged with a comprehensible excerpt of the text, experiencing in the process a Haitian introduction to Molière as well as an underrepresented voice in Francophone drama.

Historical Consciousness and L2 Community Engagement

In the MLA’s 2007 report on the state of foreign language education, the profession was charged with the mission of creating new structures and approaches for developing students’ knowledge, skills, and attitudes that represent the highest ideals of humanities education:

In the course of acquiring functional language abilities, students are taught critical language awareness, interpretation and translation, historical and political consciousness, social sensibility, and aesthetic perception. They acquire a basic knowledge of the history, geography, culture, and literature of the society or societies whose language they are learning. (para. 10)

In order to meet these ambitious objectives in language education, the MLA notes that departments must “systematically incorporate transcultural content and translingual reflection at every level” (para 13). Yet, just as language instruction must be scaffolded to correspond to the growing competences and capabilities of a student group, the type of community engagement and immersive experiences that lead to transcultural competence must also be scaffolded to gradually increase in complexity and to require more authentic engagement from students. First year students may not have the intercultural or communicative skills to be able to engage effectively in service learning, for example. However, by scaffolding service activities, students can, over time in the program, develop the range of skills necessary for communicating with respect in the L2 community.

This principle also applies with other immersive experiences. We broadly define immersive experience as any language learning experience in which students use language for authentic purposes rather than solely as an academic endeavor. As

an example, consider Granda's course which she described in her 2019 article. Her students explored the Way of St. James's pilgrimage route without actually walking it themselves. Recreating or reenacting the experience at a distance becomes an immersive, performative, interpersonal, and communicative experience that is highly educative without providing the fully immersed experience of physically traveling the Way. This sort of scaffolding is required at all levels if we as a profession plan to meet the ambitious goals laid out in the MLA report (2007). Through immersive learning, instructors can prepare students to read different genres from a variety of time periods and geographical locations by starting at the earliest levels with developmentally appropriate texts and building over time.

Drama-based Pedagogy

One type of immersive experience that is practical and potentially immersive at the lower levels of language learning is drama-based pedagogy (DBP). Lee et al. (2015) have explored the benefits of DBP for student learning across different subjects and disciplines. Broadly construed as "a collection of drama-based teaching and learning strategies to engage students in learning," (p. 4) drama-based pedagogy aims to offer students an "embodied process-oriented approach to learning." As such, DBP can describe a range of learning activities, from interactive engagement with a dramatic text in the classroom to fully realizing a dramatic performance for a public. While more research is needed to establish the consistent benefits of DBP in different learning environments, Lee et al. (2015) summarize several studies over the last thirty years that have shown some demonstrable benefits in both learning outcomes and other positive social outcomes among learners. For instance, DBP "may be effective because it reflects an environment in which basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness are supported" (p. 5). Furthermore, studies have shown that DBP is correlated with positive outcomes in academic achievement across curricula in the sciences, mathematics, and foreign language instruction. While more research seems required to supply a clearer picture of these achievement gains, studies already suggest that DBP can lead to "positive effects on oral and written language outcomes" (p. 7) in language arts contexts.

In the advanced French-language classroom, Mangerson (2019) and Virtue (2013) have both introduced fully realized dramatic performance into their curricula. Mangerson (2019) forged a partnership between her upper-level French drama course and the Francophone Youth Theater Festival. Founded in Chicago, the festival "was created in 2016 to propose a new pedagogical practice of the French language through the staging of plays, and to encourage American students to speak French with pleasure and confidence through performance" (p. 50). The festival largely consisted of high school student groups who analyzed the text of a French language play as part of their academic coursework. Eventually, they staged these plays as fully realized performances for the public. Mangerson's (2019) upper-level university students were the exclusive university-level participants, staging scenes from several plays ordered around a common theme. As a result, "a survey course in French drama was transformed into an experiential learning opportunity" (p. 46).

Virtue (2013) described a similar project in which her upper-level medieval French literature course performed the Old French play, "Le jeu d'Adam" [The Play of

Adam]. Virtue's (2013) students analyzed the play as dramatic literature, conducted scholarly research on the text, and even adapted the material into modern French. Like Mangerson's (2019) project, Virtue's (2013) work with students culminated in a public performance for a variety of French language learners, including high school students from area schools. In reflecting on the benefits of the process, Virtue (2013) notes that dramatic performance can help students to overcome what Savoia has called the "great divide" (as cited in Virtue, p. 883), the gap in skills required for students to succeed in the relatively straightforward content of introductory language classes versus the more complex, intellectually rigorous, and conceptually challenging aspects of advanced courses. Willis Allen (2009) has discussed a similar division, one that emphasizes a gap in curriculum rather than student learning. This "language-literature split" (p. 88) describes the way in which introductory language curricula often emphasize grammar and language acquisition whereas literary and cultural topics tend to be reserved for advanced classes. Despite an awareness of this broad curricular split between language and literature, "little has changed in how foreign language teachers and students grapple with the consequent discontinuities of the curriculum" (p. 88). Willis Allen's observation amplifies Savoia's (2010) argument that upper-level students often find themselves underprepared for the sorts of activities (such as dramatic performance) that advanced courses demand. Clearly, introductory language students need more opportunities to prepare the skills required for advanced coursework while also having occasions to explore literature and culture before upper-level courses.

In order to lessen the difficulty of the student transition into advanced courses, Savoia (2010) created "The Italian Theatrical Workshop" for third-year students. The curriculum carefully scaffolded a semester-long process of building skills in text analysis, communication, L2 pronunciation, and collaboration in order to support more robust forms of theatrical performance in the target language. Similarly, Virtue (2013) asserted the value of dramatic performance to close the gap posed by the "great divide," promoting "communicative skills and language proficiency" (p. 883) in a way that eases the difficult passage from introductory to advanced courses.

The success of DBP in the classroom, however, may depend upon the right forms of academic preparation. Specifically, Lee et al. (2015) have suggested that the effectiveness of DBP is at least partially contingent on a student group's prior experience with interactive forms of learning: "Even students who are readily active in learning may need practice in how to participate in theatre games or role-playing in an educational setting" (p. 10). Crucially, the activities ordered around dramatic literature described in Savoia (2010), Mangerson (2019), and Virtue (2013) all occurred in upper-level courses. In this article, we describe one instance of a classroom activity that can help prepare students with basic level-appropriate skills in communication, text analysis, and low stakes performance--all skills that can be introduced through activities that harmonize with standardized departmental curricula.

Diverse Representations and ACTFL Standards at all Levels

As established above, there is a gap in practice in theater-based pedagogy between lower and upper level classrooms. In addition, students who move onto the upper levels of French at the university level will also be expected to engage in textual analysis of literature and will be exposed to a variety of language sources, particularly

literature written by people of diverse origins and perspectives or with identities that are underrepresented in the canonical tradition.

Furthermore, many students in introductory language courses do not continue to take courses once their general education requirement has been fulfilled. As Garrett-Rucks (2016) has noted, statistics featured in the 2010 MLA enrollment report “showed that only 9% of students at the college/university level study a foreign language, and at the advanced level, the percentage is 1.6% (Zimmer-Loew, 2008, p. 625).” (p.10) The gap in these percentages suggests just how few students opt to continue their study of foreign languages at the advanced level. This effectively means that most students who come through a language department on a college campus will not have the opportunity to develop the range of skills we aspire to impart through language study at the college level. Therefore, waiting until the upper levels of language study will not be an effective strategy for developing the historical consciousness, social sensibility, or understanding of diverse L2 communities as described in the MLA’s white paper on the future of the profession. With respect to historical consciousness, the need for early exposure in introductory courses may be especially critical; before initiating the lesson that we recount below, many students in the described introductory French language course had little or no awareness of Haitian history, French colonialism, or the fact that Francophone writers had reimagined canonical French figures through drama. Our activity was the first opportunity for some students to gain even a cursory experience of entire literary and cultural traditions that they had not substantively encountered through their high school classes in language, history, and literature.

In language instruction at all levels, ACTFL’s world readiness standards propel the proficiency movement by asking teachers to focus on the “Five Cs” of Communication, Culture, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities rather than presenting language as a collection of static lexical items and grammatical rules. Teaching students to make sense of authentic resources, meaning literary texts, artifacts from everyday use, pop culture, and other examples of community-generated texts used for authentic communicative purposes, is at the center of language instruction and particularly of critical approaches to language instruction (Conlon Perugini et al., 2019). ACTFL has long promoted interactive reading and listening comprehension tasks to be designed and carried out using “authentic cultural texts of various kinds with appropriate scaffolding and follow-up tasks that promote interpretation” (ACTFL, n.d.). Barnes-Karol and Broner (n.d.) recommend curating a collection of diverse authentic resources including images, literary texts, and other comprehensible resources to use as anchor texts within any given unit. For instructors teaching lower-level language courses at the college level, these authentic texts provide necessary L2 input for our students and also prepare students for the more advanced community engagement and textual analysis to come.

Teaching Authentic Texts in a Communicative Framework

If communication in the target language is the goal of the course, then we should start with a communicative basis for our pedagogy. Communication is essentially the successful sending and receiving of messages, but that is not as simple as it may seem on the surface.

Even the exchange of information is dependent upon understanding how what one says or writes will be perceived and interpreted in another cultural context; it depends on the ability to decenter and take up the perspective of the listener or reader. But successful 'communication' is not judged solely in terms of the efficiency of information exchange. It is focused on establishing and maintaining relationships. (Byram, 1997, p. 3)

Our framework for a communicative pedagogy, in particular at the lower levels of instruction which is the focus of our teaching and of this article, has four elements:

- Start with rich sources of comprehensible language to provide meaningful and culturally authentic input for students to process.
- Provide low-stakes, low-production opportunities to communicate that build confidence and increase in difficulty over time (scaffolding).
- Ask students to produce language using the building blocks presented in the input.
- Provide feedback in a way that increases student confidence/risk-taking and promotes further communication.

Derived from principles set down by Scott (2010), our approach to meaningful communicative activities emphasizes the importance of students communicating with one another, the use of authentic texts, comprehensible instructor input, and the avoidance of "repetitive or noncreative" (p. 125) student activity. With this framework as a guide for all instruction, the following lesson represents a communicative approach to incorporating theater, historical consciousness, and diverse representations into a lower-level course that followed a departmentally standardized syllabus.

Example from a Second-Semester French Classroom

In 2017, I (Abell, first author and instructor of record for the course) planned a lesson in consultation with my co-author (Johnson) which I later developed and executed. This lesson introduced aspects of my own research on Francophone drama into my introductory language classroom curriculum. During that semester of my graduate work, I was translating into English and staging a production of the French-language play, "Le fils du tapissier: épisode de la vie de Molière" written by the Haitian playwright Charles Moravia (1875-1938). The play imagines the seventeenth-century playwright Molière, the titular son of the king's upholsterer, as he passionately declares his desire to become a dramatist to his disapproving father. In the course of rehearsing the play with the English-speaking cast, I realized that the French text of Moravia's play signaled a rich opportunity to develop several of the ACTFL goals described above. On the one hand, Moravia's play could serve as an introduction to the figure of Molière, whose plays form a crucial component of advanced literature and drama courses in many undergraduate French language programs. "Le fils du tapissier" also provided a way to introduce this crucial literary figure through the voice and perspective of a Caribbean writer, one whose cultural context as a Haitian artist lent a complex and enriching context for discussing colonial and post-colonial themes in the context of French history.

I had first been introduced to Moravia's plays by my colleague, Nathan Dize (2017). Dize also voiced the importance of incorporating texts, ideas, and traditions from the francophone Caribbean in order to diversify representations of French-language speakers and cultures throughout French language curricula. Acting on this crucial suggestion, I developed a brief lecture on the Haitian Revolution for use in my introductory French course. Students were particularly receptive to this addition to the course curriculum and approached me after class with enthusiastic questions; it was clear that the complex political, racial, and cultural dynamics of Haitian history had piqued their curiosity even after a modest introduction.

Building on the demonstrable interest of these introductory language learners, I created a series of classroom activities based on the reading, discussion, and performance of a brief key passage from the emotional climax of Charles Moravia's play. Following the communicative model described previously, this activity had four parts spanning two days. On the first day, I presented an overview and background information; on the second day, students worked with a selection from the play itself.

With this two-day sequence, I hoped that students would emerge with an introductory exposure to a Haitian playwright, a historical awareness of Francophone drama from beyond France, and a deepened capacity to recognize the course's vocabulary and grammar in an authentic text. I had several criteria in mind when selecting an exchange of dialogue from the larger work. The passage should have relatively comprehensible vocabulary. Students should feel empowered by their nascent language abilities. Finally, the selection from the play should correspond to the material of the pre-established course curriculum. The dramatic text was written in verse, but I selected a passage whose vocabulary and grammar were appropriately matched to the beginning proficiency of novice students and could correspond to the material of the current thematic unit on the arts, labor, and work. In the brief scene extracted from "Le fils du tapissier" (see fig. 1), the vocabulary--dialogue between two characters--was highly focused around the fine arts and labor. Grievously disappointed in his son's decision to pursue a life in the theater, Molière's father asks, "*Mais que vas-tu faire en attendant?*" [But what will you do in the meantime?] In the resulting exchange, Molière triumphantly shows the contract that he has already signed with the *Illustre Théâtre*.

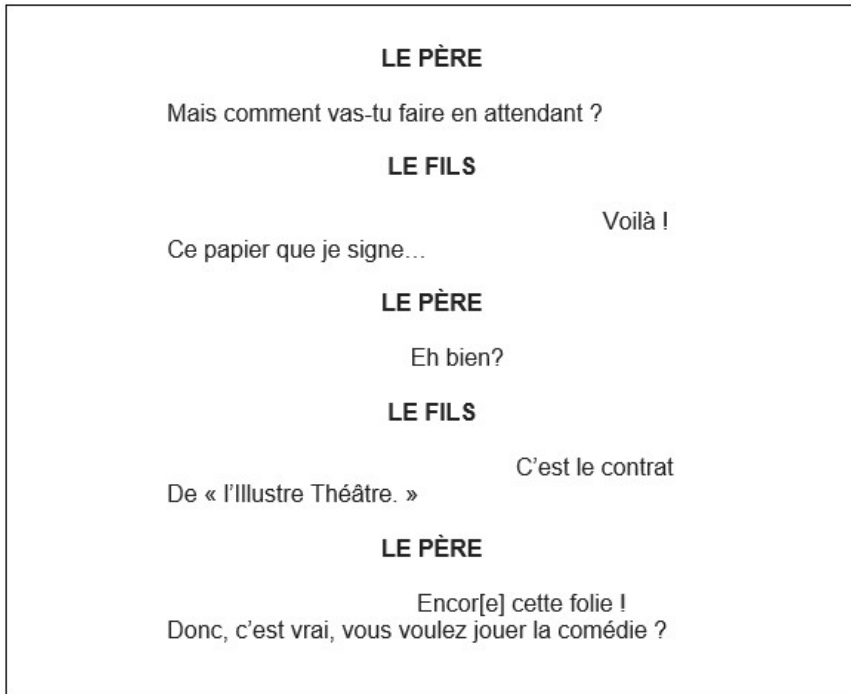


Figure 1. Excerpt from Charles Moravia's *Le fils du tapissier: épisode de la vie de Molière*

These brief exchanges highlight terms like *contrat*, *comédie*, *théâtre* [contract, comedy, theater] and associated verbs such as *jouer*, *signer*, *faire* [to play, to sign, to do]; this lexical field was all imminently related to the students' chapter vocabulary related to occupations, work, and professions.

To prepare students to engage this comprehensible selection from the play, I composed a short lecture in comprehensible French (fig. 2) that covered a basic historical overview of Charles Moravia, the plot of his play prior to the scene to be explored in class, and the figure of Molière. During the first class of the two-day sequence, I delivered this brief lecture/historical overview in comprehensible French to establish background knowledge and teach basic vocabulary relevant to the selected passage from the play before jumping into the authentic text the next day. To ensure student comprehension, I distributed a handout that included key summary points corresponding to my oral remarks. This handout allowed students to follow the logical flow of my brief lecture as I spoke, while also giving students a reference sheet containing essential knowledge they needed to approach the authentic text the next day. Because students had not yet learned the *passé composé* [past tense], the lecture summary notes were written entirely in the present tense.

<p style="text-align: center;">I. Le Contexte</p> <p><u>Le fils du tapissier</u> est une <u>pièce de théâtre</u>.</p> <p><u>Le dramaturge</u> est Charles Moravia.</p> <p>Charles Moravia est né en 1875.</p> <p>Charles Moravia est haïtien. Il parle français.</p> <p>La pièce a deux personnages : un père et un fils.</p> <p>Le père s'appelle Jean-Baptiste Poquelin. Le fils s'appelle aussi Jean-Baptiste Poquelin.</p> <p>Le père travaille pour le roi français.</p> <p>Le fils aime le théâtre ; il veut travailler au théâtre.</p>
--

Figure 2. *Excerpt from Student Handout*

As part of this initial lecture, I also distributed a historical photo of the original Haitian cast of the play. The selection from the play, the comprehensible teacher-delivered background information, and the photo provided the necessary input for students to effectively engage the material.

On the second day of the two-day sequence, I distributed a small packet that featured a photo of the original Haitian cast of “Le fils du tapissier”. Using that image, students were asked to write responses to printed questions that made use of vocabulary that they had learned in preceding chapters. For example, the prepared worksheet asked students to identify what articles of clothing the actors were wearing (« *Regarde le vieil homme sur la photo; qu'est-ce qu'il met?* ») [Look at the old man in the photograph; what is he wearing?] I then called on individual students to share their answers, which led to comparing and contrasting different student responses out loud. This also gave students the opportunity to vocalize answers that they had first prepared in writing. For novice learners, such an approach allowed students to more confidently compare their recorded responses out loud rather than engaging in a spontaneous, unstructured exchange across the whole classroom. By exploring questions of costuming and clothing in this way, the activity not only engaged material from the current textbook chapter, but also served as a cumulative activity that allowed students critical opportunities to use previous learning from the semester in their engagement with the authentic text.

With these simple activities, I had hoped to allow students to reflect on the cultural complexities of a Haitian representation of a cultural figure (Molière) so valorized in the literary canon of Haiti's former colonial oppressors. Nevertheless, these

novice level students lacked the L2 skills necessary to express many of the necessarily complex ideas that such a reflection would inevitably require. In order to allow for some degree of reflection on this pivotal cultural question, I asked each student to reflect on the following question as a class: « À ton avis, c'est une pièce de théâtre *française*? Pourquoi ou pourquoi pas? » [In your opinion, is this a French play? Why or why not?] At a superficial level, the students were merely asked to defend a yes or no answer to a simple question: Is this a French play or not? However, as the students quickly surmised, the difficulty of answering the question derived from the challenge of identifying the extent to which the language of the play signaled the play's identity. Ultimately, several students shared comprehensible responses that largely expressed a similar conclusion: While the play was written in French and focused the plot on a French figure, it should not be considered a "French play" since the playwright, his cast, and the play's initial audiences were all Haitian. I then asked follow-up questions that led students to more complex considerations of the play's use of French. Even with their novice level skills, students were able to understand and discuss basic concerns related to the impact of colonialism on the creation and reception of this Haitian play written in French.

While this brief exchange was structured as a conversation around a single question supplied by the instructor, the nature of the question and subsequent answers arguably helped to introduce students to the most basic intercultural skills that would be required for eventual, more complex forms of interaction with L2 populations and the authentic texts issuing from L2 communities. The combination of a variety of authentic resources, comprehensible teacher talk, and intellectually stimulating follow-up questions aligns with current conceptions of how to emphasize critical thinking in introductory language courses (Barnes-Karol & Broner, n.d.; Scott, 2010).

The activity then invited students to immerse themselves in the play by taking on roles. Students formed pairs in which each student read aloud the text of the dramatic passage by playing the role of Molière or his father. This final activity allowed the students to practice reciting dramatic text in character without the pressure of performance in front of the entire class. Instead, the pairing model allowed students to enter into the imaginative world of the text in a communicative activity whose brevity and small-scale helped to lower the emotional stakes of the exercise. To conclude this highly structured mini-performance, I divided the class into a group of "fathers" and a group of "sons." The entire class then performed the scene out loud with all the "fathers" reading the lines of le père and all the "sons" performing the text of le fils. This extension of the performative component encouraged students to step beyond their comfort zones through group work, while still benefiting from the support of several classmates who were all playing the same role simultaneously.

Finally, the packet invited students to imagine what each character might say after the conclusion of the brief selected passage (fig. 3).

À l'écrit. Ajoutons au texte dramatique.

Imaginez que vous êtes des dramaturges. Vous avez un fragment d'une pièce de théâtre, mais vous n'avez pas tout le texte. Comment est-ce que vous allez continuer le dialogue du père et son fils ? Avec un partenaire, écrivez une nouvelle phrase pour chaque personnage:

LE PÈRE

Encore cette folie !
Donc, c'est vrai, vous voulez jouer la comédie ?

LE FILS

LE PÈRE

Figure 3. *Excerpt from Student Activity Worksheet*

Since the dialogue between the two characters was characterized by short bursts of intensely emotional questions, students were able to imagine a hypothetical extension of the scene by writing down an additional pair of questions and answers between the father and the son. Responses ranged dramatically: Some students affirmed Molière's ardent desire to become a playwright before dramatizing the father's ongoing reluctance. Other students decided that Molière would have a sudden change of heart, as if his father's conservatism had persuaded the young aspiring artist to abandon his pretensions to a life in theater.

This last portion of the lesson plan was motivated by a desire to allow students to participate in the text through contributing their own imaginative projections of the story's plot. As Scott (2010) has argued, meaningful communication activities should deemphasize a "focus on accuracy" while also encouraging "students to express their own meaning" (p. 125). These two principles presume a shared concern for allowing students the necessary freedom to generate spoken and written communication without the fear of penalties associated with imperfect language use.

The two-day activity concluded with the instructor calling on partners to share their imagined continuations of the scene. Students visibly enjoyed this portion of the activity. Whereas their performance opportunities had been limited to partner work and choral recitation of the prepared text, this final activity saw students taking pleasure in sharing their own original construals of Moravia's characters. Throughout the remainder of the textbook chapter, I often referred back to this concluding portion of the Moravia unit in order to ground the unit's vocabulary in the original content that students had produced in their interactions with "Le fils du tapissier."

Structures for Success

This approach presumed a few crucial structural features that were necessary for success. First, as a graduate student, the instructor was teaching in a department that encouraged graduate students to integrate innovative interventions into a standardized curriculum. Under the leadership of the department teaching coordinator, graduate student instructors were required to teach courses based on a common textbook and syllabus. However, instructors were always welcome to incorporate authentic text exercises that complimented the content of the textbook. This structure gave early career teachers the opportunity to rely on the structure of a standardized curriculum while also allowing them to develop their own voices as teachers through integrating texts and resources that had shaped their own experience of Francophone cultures. For an instructor who is also a scholar in the field, this flexibility in the curriculum provides essential opportunities for sharing one's passion for the discipline with students even in first-year courses.

This kind of flexibility is certainly crucial to replicating the sorts of activities described here. Graduate student teachers, early career instructors, and other professors teaching introductory courses do not always have the professional support that allows for curricular innovation, particularly when the focus is on a syllabus designed to cover large ground in grammar. Nevertheless, the experience described here shows how even a modest amount of curricular flexibility can be sufficient for a lower-level language teacher to incorporate authentic text exercises that prepare their students for more advanced forms of drama-based pedagogy, textual analysis, and engagement with diverse communities.

Second, we suggest that this kind of curricular intervention is most effective when the lesson content is integrated with the existing vocabulary and themes of the established curriculum unit. As described above, the introduction of Moravia's play built upon the textbook chapter that introduced related vocabulary and thematic content. Yet it is no less important that this curricular fit need not be comprehensive or perfect. In fact, we believe that instructors should not feel that they must wait to find a perfect fit between textbook and curriculum intervention for this approach to be effective. The goal is to situate the lesson such that the surrounding curriculum builds students' essential competencies in preparation for future language study.

Third, the integration of an instructor's research and professional passions can help students to meet the World-Readiness Connections standard, as well as enliven an instructor's practice in ways that impassion both the instructor and students. The benefit of this practice presumes a necessary connection between excellent teaching and the investment of the instructor in teaching the course material. Since it can be difficult to infuse that kind of vitality into teaching a prescribed curriculum from a pre-selected, pre-packaged text, anything an instructor can do to increase their investment in their teaching is intrinsically beneficial. Furthermore, the activity discussed here models an approach whereby complex literature can be integrated into the introductory language classroom. Many instructors will be most comfortable incorporating simple authentic texts, such as tweets or film trailers; however, our experience suggests the viability of incorporating culturally embedded literary sources into novice learning provided that the literary sources are properly scaffolded to reflect the competencies of the student group.

Conclusion

This activity does not offer a universal model for introducing authentic texts in an introductory language classroom, nor do we intend to suggest a single model for scaffolding the necessary stages to prepare students for more realized forms of DBP in advanced courses. Nevertheless, this classroom project demonstrates principles and practices that can serve introductory language teachers in their work.

The successful integration of dramatic literature in a novice learning environment combats the belief that literature is simply too challenging for introductory language students. As Savoia (2010) has argued:

There appears to be wide consensus at the present on the belief that doing away with the study of literature altogether severely hampers the acquisition of real cultural and critical literacy, and the exclusion of literature from the early stages of language learning is unnecessary, unwise, and in fact harmful to the effective articulation of language curricula (p. 116).

The approach described in this article offers a substantiating example in support of this growing consensus about the positive role of literature in the lower-level language classroom.

At the level of curriculum design, the example reported here also demonstrates the viability of expanding a given syllabus to offer French language students a more culturally diverse range of authentic texts. This goal can be achieved while consistently serving the needs of a proficiency-based classroom. As such, we argue that the overarching aim of linguistic proficiency can be attained while promoting crucial exposure to Francophone traditions outside France and preparing students for more robust forms of DBP. It is our hope that foreign language teachers will proliferate their own models of bridging the “great divide” while also propagating underrepresented voices in the languages that they teach.

References

- ACTFL. (n.d.). *Use of authentic texts in language learning*. Retrieved from <https://www.actfl.org/resources/guiding-principles-language-learning/use-authentic-texts-language-learning>
- Barnes-Karol, G., & Broner, M. (n.d.). Engaging Students in Critical Thinking in and through a Foreign Language: It Can Be Done! *Profession*. Retrieved from <https://profession.mla.org/engaging-students-in-critical-thinking-in-and-through-a-foreign-language-it-can-be-done/>
- Byram, M. (1997). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence*. Multilingual Matters.
- Conlon Perugini, D., Johnson, S.M., Randolph, L.J. (2019, November 23). *Authentic resources for proficiency, interculturality, and social justice* [Conference Presentation]. 2019 ACTFL Convention, Washington DC. Retrieved from <https://docs.google.com/presentation/d/1n6vuYRebxsGng1L8eP4ayrbAUd3f5JVHNyHUyOOgzlQ/edit?usp=sharing>

- Dize, N. H. (2017). Beyond the morality tale of humanitarianism: Epistolary narration and montage in Raoul Peck's *Assistance mortelle*. *Journal of Haitian Studies*, 23(1), 75–95.
- Garrett-Rucks, P. (2016). *Intercultural competence in instructed language learning: Bridging theory and practice*. Information Age Publishing.
- Granda, C. (2019). The camino diaries: Bookmapped storytelling in the Spanish classroom. *Hispania*, 102(4), 529–545.
- Lee, B. K., Patall, E. A., Cawthon, S., & Steingut, R. R. (2015). The effect of drama-based pedagogy on PreK–16 outcomes: A meta-analysis of research from 1985 to 2012. *Review of Educational Research*, 85(1), 3–49.
- Lord, G., & Lomicka, L. (2018). Ten years after the MLA report: What has changed in foreign language departments? *ADFL Bulletin*, 44(2), 116–20.
- Mangerson, P. T. (2019). From classroom to stage to community: The Francophone youth theater experience. *French Review*, 92(3), 46–59.
- Modern Language Association [MLA]. (2007). Foreign languages and higher education: New structures for a changed world. Retrieved from <http://tinyurl.com/MLA2007Report>.
- National Standards Collaborative Board. (2015). *World readiness standards for learning languages: 4th Ed.* National Collaborative Board.
- Savoia, F. (2010). Creating connections: The theater practicum and the integration of language and literature study. In N. Marini-Maio & C. Ryan Scheutz (Eds.), *Set the Stage! Teaching Italian through Theater* (pp. 114–43). Yale University Press.
- Scott, V. M. (2010). *Double talk: Deconstructing monolingualism in classroom second language learning*. Prentice Hall.
- Virtue, N. (2013). Performing *Le jeu d'Adam*: Teaching medieval French literature through project-based learning. *French Review*, 86(5), 880–96.
- Willis Allen, H. (2009). Beyond the language–literature divide: Advanced pedagogy for training graduate students. *ADFL Bulletin*, 41(2), 88–99.

Yo hablo el español de mi pueblo: A Conscious Curriculum for the Heritage Language Learner

Gabriela Moreno

New Mexico State University

Abstract

The search for a more comprehensive and conscious curriculum for Spanish heritage language learners and Spanish native speakers (SHL/SNS) is a task that many educators are making a priority due to the diversity in the classroom. This paper focuses on presenting the theoretical framework and approaches that have facilitated SHL/SNS instruction in our institution in the Southwest. The theoretical framework includes a Culturally and Linguistically Responsive (CLR) approach, the World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages, funds of knowledge, and Pueblo-based pedagogy, followed by activities that have been effective in establishing a conscious curriculum in SHL/SNS pedagogy.

Keywords: *Spanish heritage learners, culturally and linguistically responsive teaching, the World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages, funds of knowledge, manifestos, cuentos infantiles, community projects*

Background

My first introduction to Spanish heritage language (SHL) instruction was as an undergraduate student at New Mexico State University. I fondly remember my professor whose class seemed like a courtship with the Spanish language. The curriculum presented in the course introduced me to the romantic relationship with my own language and culture, which I continue to foster to this day. For the first time in my schooling, I was allowed to see myself through a different set of eyes that came from a place of love and acceptance; an experience that transformed me personally and academically. Reflecting on that experience, I now understand that the beauty of heritage language instruction relies on helping the student bridge multiple facets of their identity—primarily family, school, and community.

Now, as an educator of Spanish for heritage Spanish for heritage and native speakers (SHL/SNS), I am able to provide insight into what heritage language pedagogy means for both the student and the teacher. SHL pedagogy includes the theoretical framework and approaches that unify teachers, students, parents, and community, working toward the same goals. The goals include language maintenance, transfer of skills between languages, acquisition of academic skills in Spanish, promotion of positive attitudes towards a variety of dialects and cultures, and acquisition and development of cultural knowledge (Aparicio, 1997; Beaudrie et al., 2014).

The most important part in accomplishing these goals is to approach the students, parents, and community with a sense of respect and appreciation for all they bring to this union. This paper presents the theoretical framework and approaches that have facilitated SHL/SNS language learning and instruction at New Mexico State University in accomplishing the goals of SHL/SNS pedagogy.

Literature Review

Theoretical Framework behind the SHL/SNS Pedagogy

The World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages, by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), were originally designed to serve K-12 students and “to prepare learners to apply the skills and understandings measured by the Standards, to bring a global competence to their future careers and experiences” (National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015, p. 2). The Standards, along with their Goal Areas (Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, Communities), were created as guiding principles and later modified to serve different levels of language instruction. In searching to extend these standards to fit the needs of the SHL/SNS learning community, Trujillo (2009) has presented what is now known as the Five Cs + 1. The extra C is in reference to what Paulo Freire coined as *conscientização* in *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (1970). Trujillo opted to expand the 5Cs to include *consciousness* in a way to foster student recognition of their position in their own language and culture within a system of privilege and oppression. By understanding their position in a society, heritage language learners are able to reclaim their agency as a speaker of the language, which leads to the promotion of equity and social justice (Trujillo, 2009).

One way educators can help our students reclaim their agency as a legitimate speaker of the language is by being cognizant of what the student brings to the classroom and to implement a Culturally and Linguistically Responsive (CLR) instructional approach. CLR pedagogy uses students’ prior cultural knowledge and experiences to make their learning relevant and effective for their own needs (Gay, 2000). CLR pedagogy is effective because it validates and affirms students’ community and home language as well as the culture that students bring to the classroom. Some of the tools associated with a CLR instructional approach that have enhanced SHL instruction include providing culturally relevant literature, building a community based on learners’ cultural behaviors and learning styles, and expanding academic vocabulary through the use of the home language to create a learning environment that validates and affirms the student’s identity (Hollie, 2017).

The manner in which instructors can best integrate CLR instruction is by utilizing students’ funds of knowledge, “the historically accumulated and culturally developed bodies of knowledge and skills essential for household or individual functioning and well-being... pertaining to the social, economic and productive activities of people in a local region” (Moll et al., 1996, p. 133). Integrating learners’ funds of knowledge in the classroom can be easily accomplished by allowing teachers and students to become a cultural broker, “who thoroughly understands different cultural systems, is able to interpret cultural symbols from one frame of reference to another, can mediate cultural incompatibilities, and knows how to build bridges or

establish linkages across cultures that facilitate the instructional process” (Gay, 1993, p. 293). Previous knowledge, acquired by both educators and students, is the most important resource to supplement the course curriculum. Another way to integrate this knowledge into the classroom is by utilizing a Pueblo-based pedagogy, which provides an approach that will be more inclusive of the language and culture of the community since it focuses on real-life experiences and projects that are giving back to those same communities (Helmer, 2014). Activities which are representative of Pueblo-based pedagogy may include community projects like workshops and trainings that can be accessed by its members. Each of the activities described below are informed by these theoretical and pedagogical positions, thus taking into consideration the cultures and identities of our student population.

SHL/SNS Instruction at New Mexico State University

The Spanish for Heritage Language and Native Speakers Program at New Mexico State University (NMSU) in its origins provided instruction in Spanish by proposing corrective measures to promote the maintenance of academic Spanish (Rodriguez Pino & Villa, 1994). SHL/SNS pedagogy at our institution has come a long way since then. Our instructors are now more inclined to create innovative approaches that draw from our students’ cultural richness and diversity. The last complete report on our student population presents that 59% of NMSU students identify as Hispanic, and 71% come from the state of New Mexico (Office of Institutional Analysis, 2017). These numbers might suggest homogeneity in our SHL/SNS program; however, our program enrolls a divergent student population. This diversity is influenced by students’ regions of origin within the state, linguistic ideologies, cultural and political differences, and the funds of knowledge students bring to the classroom. Interesting exchanges in and out of the classroom occur when you bring together Spanish heritage speakers from across the state whose families have ties to the North, Central and South of Mexico, and Central and South American countries. Moreover, heritage learners from African American, Asian American, and Anglo backgrounds also contribute to the diversity and richness of our program.

The pedagogy and methodology for SHL/SNS learners is relatively young and in constant evolution. About two decades ago, SHL pedagogy was still addressing the heritage languages learners as native speakers of Spanish and not targeting their individual ethnic and cultural profiles (Carreira et al., 2020). Today, the field still lacks in addressing key issues, such as the inclusion of academic contributions viewed through students’ backgrounds, languages, and connections with the community. This is specifically affecting the SHL learners, who in New Mexico, have suffered through language repression and courses meant to correct their use of their Spanish language (MacGregor-Mendoza, 2000; Rodriguez Pino & Villa, 1994).

As the SHL/SNS program coordinator at NMSU, I continuously work on evaluating the program in order to meet the needs of all of our learners. Most importantly, I strive to foster connections in the community to enhance classroom curriculum. I seek a pedagogy that goes from a mainstream orientation toward integrating diversity and considering some of the most important issues, like the ethnic background, home language, and class of our students (Au, 1998).

A CLR Approach in the Diverse Classroom

A CLR approach is most effective when it involves the collaboration of teachers, students, parents, and the community. In order to meet the needs of our diverse student population, the CLR curriculum must be student-centered, without discouraging the presence of the community. Beyond building a network, the CLR approach is a “pedagogy that empowers students intellectually, socially, emotionally, and politically by using cultural and historic referents to convey knowledge to impart skills, and to change attitudes” (Ladson-Billings, 1994, p. 382). This approach works most effectively when the student is taught to make academic, cultural and linguistic connections between the classroom and their community; specifically, because “when academic knowledge and skills are situated within the lived experiences and frames of reference of students, they are more personally meaningful, have higher interests appeal, and are learned more easily and thoroughly” (Gay, 2002, p. 106). To achieve these goals, educators first need to present material that is relevant and comprehensible to students enrolled in their courses.

In order to understand students’ anxieties and prejudices about their language use, educators have to be self-reflective about their own ideologies, teaching methods, and style. A “conscious” teacher must meet the needs of the heritage language learner by validating and affirming the culture of the student and explore strategies that help in making students more conscious individuals (Hollie, 2017). For the teacher, this process entails doing some work in the community prior to beginning a course; the teacher needs to survey the community to find and provide sources that are aligned with students’ profiles and needs. Educators must be cognizant that the ways “people are expected to go about learning may differ across cultures, and in order to maximize learning opportunities, teachers must gain knowledge of the cultures represented in their classrooms, then translate this knowledge into instructional practice” (Villegas, 1991, p. 13). The instructional examples below demonstrate some ways to foster cultural awareness in students’ local and regional communities.

Once the role of the teacher, the goals, and the objectives of the course have been established, students should be invited to share their own culturally relevant information that is equally valuable to the content presented by instructor, thereby positioning the student role as agents and cultural brokers. Educators must highlight the importance of their students’ funds of knowledge by “using the cultural knowledge, prior experiences, frames of reference, and performance styles of ethnically diverse students to make learning encounters more relevant” (Gay, 2010, p. 31). One way to help students process new information in class is by scaffolding their comprehension of familiar authentic resources and materials, which allows information to be passed on in segments that are comprehensible and easily approachable to help the learner “move toward new skills, concepts; or levels of understanding” (Gibbons, 2002, p. 10). Everything presented should be contextualized and comprehensible to those participating in the exchange.

Teaching *Enamoramiento* through a Sociolinguistic Approach

Every course in the SHL/SNS Program has been designed to engage students in a process of *enamoramiento*, or falling in love with their own language, literature,

and culture with materials and resources relevant to students' lives. For example, the curriculum includes local authors to bring light to issues affecting the Spanish-speaking communities in the region. Class discussions include topics that impact students' lives. Additionally, experts in the community that serve as role models and advocates are invited to share their experiences and stories with students. Useful classroom strategies include adjusting written text and spoken languages to meet the needs of the student, providing instructions that are clear and explicit, motivating the use of students' home varieties of Spanish, as well as presenting opportunities to interact with other speakers, and making efforts to minimize the potential for anxiety (Lucas et al., 2008). In this way, our curriculum strives to be inclusive by identifying the historically marginalized voices in the classroom community and working to bring them into the language classroom discourse (Pennycook, 2001).

As students learn the ways in which languages are used and the impact they have on society, they are more likely to understand the ways in which their voices may have become marginalized in their own communities. When applied in the classroom, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) demonstrates "the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context" (Van Dijk, 2001, p. 352). Burns and Waugh (2018) believe that "...the classroom is a place in which the power of the dominant class is perpetuated through the kind of knowledge and discourse that are valued and those that are not, in areas such as curriculum development, instructional content, materials design, and language choice" (p. 4). The integration of reflective assignments and discussions about language ideologies can guide students back to their communities as observers and critics of their own cultures.

In my pedagogy courses, students often ask which variety of Spanish should be taught in the classroom. Herein, I emphasize the need to integrate critical sociolinguistic instruction to bring awareness of "the social, political, and ideological dimensions of language as well as the need for socially responsive pedagogies that incorporate students' experiences, promote equity both inside and outside the classroom, and foster student agency in making linguistic (and other) choices" (Lee-man & Serafini, 2016, p. 56). To meet these goals, educators should provide activities that help learners identify community languages along with language varieties that hold prestige in their region, as determined by students. For example, Burns and Waugh (2018) presented a model for Second Dialect Acquisition (SDA) in which both the standard and home varieties of students' languages are treated as overlapping but separate in an additive, rather than subtractive, process where "students use their home varieties as a starting point from which to acquire the standard through contrastive exercises and sociolinguistic information about ideology, power, and the development of standard language" (pp. 5-6). However, the risk in practicing a contrastive analysis in the classroom is that if not done correctly, it can oversimplify the richness and cultural diversity, essentializing and reducing a culture to simple stereotypes that create binaries between the self and the other. As noted by Guest (2002), creating categories that are static and stigmatized can promote cultural paralysis. Instructors must be aware of the dangers of linguistic discrimination, unconscious validation of a particular dialect, that can result in symbolic violence (Bourdieu, 1991) such as students' self-defeating resistance (Solórzano & Delgado Bernal,

2001) —seen in isolated performance strikes or mental and physical retraction that may confuse failure with not wanting to learn as a sign of protest (Helmer, 2014). Without taking into consideration the linguistic abilities, knowledge, metaculture, and community of the student, instructors can fail to present a curriculum that is not culturally sustainable or relevant to students.

Lastly, it is important that students be allowed to express their voice through their agency. They must be provided a safe place for self-expression, without fear of retaliation or judgement, a sort of refuge or sanctuary. This process is the hardest to accomplish for both student and teacher because it means that everyone must make themselves vulnerable to their insecurities, biases, and ideologies about their own culture and language use. Educators must keep in mind that this process of reflection and self-discovery is happening in tandem with a cultural focus which heightens students' sensitivity due to themes or topics that are sometimes considered too taboo for discussions with family members. Working on lowering students' affective filter is part of the process that eases students' introduction to a more expressive and collaborative space. This space can be created by implementing a *critical learning community* in which "ideas are probed that create discomfort and are worked through by critical dialogue... that disrupts and acknowledges tensions" (Lopez, 2011, p. 81). Teachers should not avoid a topic because of fear of confronting these tensions. Ignoring an important issue for students can cause them to alienate themselves from the rest of the class.

Topics addressed in the SHL/SNS courses at NMSU include family, gender roles, feminism, *machismo*, racism, sexism, labor force, language ideologies, and identity, none of which should be avoided. For this type of program to be successful, adjustments to meet the cultural and linguistic needs of the students must be made. When educators do not understand the community of learners we serve, fostering the aforementioned environment becomes difficult. Hence, the connection between teacher and student has to be established at the start of the semester. Educators also need to foster a sense of community and camaraderie in the classroom. Furthermore, understanding the community inside and outside of the classroom creates "validation and affirmation of the home (indigenous) culture and home language for the purposes of building and bridging the student to success in the culture of academia and mainstream society" (Hollie, 2012, p. 23). Above all, students need to develop a sense of ownership for their own culture where it becomes a strength and not a deficit.

CLR Approach into Practice

The SHL/SNS curriculum at NMSU highlights formal skills such as analyzing literature, formal writing, and developing vocabulary, orthography and grammar. Nevertheless, these elements are not the main focus for these courses. As mentioned in the previous section, the primary goal of the program is to help students fall in love with their language and culture. The manner in which all of the formal skills are developed or reinforced involves integrating literature and grammar into cultural topics and discussions. The following examples are some innovative ways to develop a more conscious curriculum, starting with making connections between the academic environment and the community.

Manifestos

In the advanced composition course for Spanish heritage speakers, students create *manifestos*, which are graphic representations that express reflections, opinions and visions about the life of the student author. The topics of the *manifestos* are chosen by the students, and they range from identity issues, culture, gender roles, citizenship, nationality, border, etc. The 5C+1 model, which proposes the integration of *conscientização* or consciousness (Trujillo, 2009), is used to help students reflect on issues affecting their communities. Integrating the notion of consciousness allows students to consider possible problems encountered in their community, expose these problems, prompt self-reflection and acquire a social, political and ideological understanding of their world, and take action to change any oppressive system that may be holding them or their communities from accomplishing their goals (Freire, 1970). Once students have chosen a topic to discuss, they create image and text manifestations. One of the most memorable *manifestos* was a black and white image of women's faces with bruises around their eyes. The project was a critique of domestic violence in a student's community. These *manifestos* provide students with an opportunity for self-expression in the language classroom. Additionally, the *manifestos* encourage students to develop a plan of action by presenting a problem along with solutions to the problems (Moreno & MacGregor-Mendoza, 2019). The project goal is to help students situate their own experiences in relationship and connection to other members of their community.

Cuentos Infantiles

The *cuentos infantiles* are original short stories written by SHL students in advanced composition courses. These short stories are centered on a topic that impacts the local/regional Hispanic community. Some of the most predominant topics addressed in the stories include immigrant rights, domestic abuse, bullying, cultural assimilation, and many others. Students collaborate in groups of three to write their *cuento*. All members of the group write, edit, and illustrate the project. This process is done throughout the semester and under the supervision of the professor. Once the *cuento* has been drafted, and subjected to several rounds of revisions, it is then approved to get illustrated. As part of their service learning, students must present their *cuento* at a local public school for children in the community to enjoy (Moreno & MacGregor-Mendoza, 2019). This particular project calls on the funds of knowledge as well as the 5C+1 because it allows the students to write and reflect about those stories and problems in their community.

Ode to Home

Students in both the beginner and advanced courses write a poem about the place they feel most at home. This very personal assignment is inspired by the poem "De Donde Yo Soy" by New Mexican author, Levi Romero. The works by Romero were chosen because he inspires and serves as role model for our students. His writing is a reflection of our students' identity. Romero is able to write both in English and Spanish, while using different dialects and registers. He addresses topics that our students can easily identify with or they might feel as their own. The images presented in Romero's poetry are exemplary of the romance students have with their

New Mexican identity. Reading his poetry is like falling in love with themselves over and over again. Students read Romero's work in class, and based on his poem "De Donde Yo Soy," they write a very personal and intimate representation of their own identity. Students' poems are beautiful odes to their parents, hometowns, culture, food, and music. The poems tap into the students' funds of knowledge because they allow students to integrate their identity and their knowledge about their community into a literary masterpiece.

Community Heroes

Making connections with the community allows students to self-reflect and acquire a social, political and ideological understanding of their own world. For this reason, students have to write about the life and impact of a non-family member community hero of their choosing. The only caveat is that they do not write about someone who is famous, featured or recognized publicly for their contributions in the community. Although students are discouraged from writing about their own family members, they are allowed to propose a family member to one of their classmates as an option. Students are motivated to find someone in their hometowns; hopefully someone who they have encountered sometime in their lives. The purpose of this project is to highlight the lives of community members who receive very little credit for their great contributions. I want the younger generations to find heroes in all of the people they encounter and, one day, become heroes themselves. For this project, students have to write an essay about the person of their choosing. They also have to create a one-page editorial piece of their *hero*, which includes a life narrative that highlights their accomplishments along with a picture. Students are encouraged to gift their *heroes* a framed copy of the editorial piece. All editorial pieces are exhibited on the walls of our department.

Community Projects

Developing community projects is a class-wide effort. First, students have to brainstorm three problems affecting their community within their groups. Once students have discussed the importance of the three issues, they have to choose one of the problems for which they will propose a community project that includes three important steps: getting started, planning action, and taking action. The purpose of this project is not only to present a problem affecting the community, but to offer real solutions that could solve the problem. A tool that has helped in thinking about this project is the Purpose, Outcomes, and Process (POP) Model created by Leslie Sholl Jaffe and Randy Alford (Gass, 2013). The POP Model is helpful in focusing the planning and decision-making process by asking students to think about the projects' purpose, outcomes and process (POP). Thinking about the purpose allows students to reflect on why this project is important. The outcomes step allows students to think about what they need to accomplish, and the process phase permits a discussion on how they will accomplish the outcomes. Students are not allowed to propose a project that already exists; however, they can propose a similar, yet improved version of what is available in their community. This project motivates students to take their solutions back home and find ways to implement them in solving issues. If students are unable to implement their solutions, at least they have engaged in conversations about issues that impact their communities. With this particular

project, students see the value of language and literacy in our communities. They are able to analyze power relations, as well as deconstruct texts, along with learning how to write and implement projects that can be used in the fight for equity and social justice (Morrell, 2005).

Service-learning

The effectiveness of a service-learning component in our SHL program, has facilitated integrating a Pueblo-based education in the curriculum for SHL instruction. A Pueblo-based education relies on projects in the community, is founded in the real world, reclaims and revalues community languages and cultures, while improving students' success and motivating students' control over their own education (Helmer, 2014; May, 1999). In 2012, our SHL program presented service-learning opportunities in which students engaged with the local community in a variety of ways. They participated as translators and interpreters for medical centers and public schools (MacGregor-Mendoza & Moreno, 2016). The service-learning project included a series of reflective exercises that encouraged students to address their experiences as well as make connections between the classroom and the community (MacGregor-Mendoza & Moreno, 2016). Some of the projects have included translation work for academic, legal, and medical purposes, outreach to the immigrant community, literacy programs, and aid to the homeless.

Formal Language Development.

As previously mentioned, a primary goal of the SHL/SNS program at NMSU is to help students fall in love with Spanish and their own cultures. We do, however, focus on the development of formal/academic language through literary analysis, writing assignments, vocabulary expansion, and the exploration of norms present in academic orthography and grammar. Using students' prior cultural knowledge and experiences to make their learning relevant and effective for their own needs (Gay, 2000) validates and affirms students' communities and home languages as well as the culture that students bring to the classroom. The manner in which all of the formal skills are developed or reinforced involves meshing the examination of literature and grammar with cultural topics. One example involves analyzing cultural readings, where students are asked to identify grammatical concepts present within the reading. Drawing first from learners' funds of knowledge of their own home languages and cultures, SNS/SHL learners discuss and write about relevant topics and analyze language structures across diverse Spanish speaking communities, investigating the role of the language use and local power structures.

Developing a critical sociopolitical consciousness allows learners to criticize the linguistic norms, values and institutions that produce and maintain social inequity (Ladson-Billings, 1994). As Freire (1970; 2005) proposes, by claiming agency, you acquire a social, political, and ideological understanding of the world; in turn, this allows you to take action to combat any oppressive element and empower yourself to live in a multicultural society. By understanding their position in a society, heritage language learners are able to reclaim their agency as a speaker of the language, which leads to the promotion of equity and social justice.

Conversational skills are different from academic skills and students must be given the opportunity to have comprehensible input as well as opportunities to prac-

tice conversations that are meaningful and have a purpose in their own lives (Lucas et al., 2008). In class, students learn to speak in public and the courses provide them with life strategies that help students build confidence in their abilities. The obligation for a teacher is to minimize judgements of students' language use, maximize compliments in order to motivate an appreciation and value of their contribution, provide opportunities for practice, advocate for language maintenance in the classroom and outside in the community, respect language varieties, create agents of their own language and be cultural brokers (Draper & Hicks, 2000).

Conclusions

The inspiration for implementing a CLR, conscious curriculum stems from the desire to expand the diversity of materials and activities presented in class while combatting subtractive schooling that renders students' identities invisible and leaves them bored, unmotivated, ignored, lacking agency and not having their needs met. The SHL/SNS pedagogy and activities presented here are situated in theoretical frameworks and approaches that unify educators, students, parents, and community. The activities work toward goals that include language maintenance, promotion of positive attitudes towards a variety of dialects and cultures, acquisition of academic skills in Spanish, and acquisition and development of cultural knowledge (Aparicio, 1997; Beaudrie et al., 2014).

By utilizing a Pueblo-based pedagogy that focuses on real-life experiences and projects that are giving back to those same communities (Helmer, 2014), family and community are taking a front seat on this journey to self-discovery in the NMSU SHL/SNS curriculum. The activities presented here include *manifiestos*, *cuentos infantiles* (short stories), writing about community heroes, developing a community project, and working on service-learning projects. Each of the activities has been carefully designed and selected to meet at least 3 of the World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages. In addition, all activities have been designed to integrate the notion of *consciousness*, as part of the reflective nature of the curriculum (5C + 1) to foster student recognition of their position within their own language and culture within a system of privilege and oppression (Trujillo, 2009). Through this process, students are able to become cultural brokers and agents for themselves and their community, while taking responsibility for their own learning. These are easy and fun ways in which an educator can implement a CLR approach to teaching SHL.

All of us are responsible for creating a culturally and linguistically responsive approach to teaching because we care to see our students succeed both in and out of the classroom. This project presents a brief approach to a holistic and conscious methodology to teaching SHL through a CLR teaching lens. I present methodology that aligns with needs of SHL students which include funds of knowledge, Pueblo-based learning, and the 5C+1 in SHL instruction. Being conscientious about the needs and interests of the students is the first step to presenting a holistic approach to teaching students with diverse backgrounds. This type of approach allows any teacher to create a safe space where diverse students can claim their agency/brokers and become responsible for their own education. By presenting a diverse culturally and linguistically sensitive curriculum, teachers can renovate strategies, repre-

sent students, value their contributions, and help them make connections with their communities (Hollie, 2012). Providing a sanctuary for our students assures that they acquire the necessary knowledge to grow academically and personally and reap the benefits for generations to come.

References

- Aparicio, F. (1997). La enseñanza del español para hispanohablantes y la pedagogía multicultural. In M. C. Colombi & F. X. Alarcón (Eds.), *La enseñanza a hispanohablantes: Praxis y teoría* (pp. 222-232). Houghton Mifflin.
- Au, W. (2009). Rethinking multicultural education. In W. Au (Ed.), *Rethinking multicultural education: Teaching for racial and cultural justice* (pp. 1-5). Rethinking Schools.
- Beaudrie, S., Ducar, C., & Potowski, K. (2014). *Heritage Language Teaching. Research and Practice*. McGraw-Hill Second Language Professional Series.
- Bourdieu, P. (1991). *Language and Symbolic Power*. (G. Raymond & M. Adamson, Trans.). Harvard.
- Burns, K. E., & Waugh, L. R. (2018). Mixed messages in the Spanish heritage language classroom: Insights from CDA of textbooks and instructor focus group discussions. *Heritage Language Journal*, 15(1), 1-24.
- Carreira, M., Garrett-Rucks, P., Kemp, J. A., Randolph, L.J., (2020). Introduction to Heritage Language Learning: An Interview with Maria Carreira. *Dimension 2020 Special Issue: Focus on Heritage Language Learning*, 55, 6-18.
- Draper, J. B., & Hicks, J. H. (2000). Where we've been; What we've learned. In J. B. Webb & B. L. Miller (Eds.), *Teaching heritage language learners: Voices from the classroom* (pp. 15-35). American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages.
- Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. Continuum.
- Freire, P. (2005). *Education for Critical Consciousness*. Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Gass, R. (2013). *Tools for transformation: The fabulous POP model handout* [PDF]. Social Transformation Project. Retrieved from <http://stproject.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/11/the-fabulous-pop-model.pdf>
- Gay, G. (1993). Building cultural bridges: A bold proposal for teacher education. *Education and Urban Society*, 25(3), 285-299.
- Gay, G. (2000). *Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research, and practice*. Teachers College Press.
- Gay, G. (2002). Preparing for culturally responsive teaching. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 53(2), 106-116.
- Gay, G. (2010). *Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research, and practice* (2nd ed.). Teachers College Press.
- Gibbons, P. (2002). *Scaffolding language, scaffolding learning: Teaching second language learners in the mainstream classroom*. Heinemann.
- Guest, M. (2002). A critical 'checkbook' for culture teaching and learning. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 56(2), 154-161.

- Helmer, K. A. (2014). It's not real, It's just a story to just learn Spanish: Understanding heritage language learner resistance in a Southwest charter high school. *Heritage Language Journal*, 11(3), 186-206.
- Hollie, S. (2012). *Culturally and linguistically responsive teaching and learning: Classroom practices for student success*. Shell Education.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (1994). *The dreamkeepers: Successful teachers of African American children*. Jossey-Bass.
- Leeman, J., & Serafini, E. J. (2016) Sociolinguistics for heritage language educators and students. A model for critical translanguing competence. In M. Fairclough & S. M. Beaudrie (Eds.), *Innovative Strategies for Heritage Language Teaching. A Practical Guide for the Classroom*. Georgetown, 56-79.
- Lopez, E. (2011). Culturally relevant pedagogy and critical literacy in diverse English classrooms: A case study of a secondary English teacher's activism and agency. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, 10(4), 75-93.
- Lucas, T., Villegas, A. M., & Freedson-Gonzalez, M. (2008). Linguistically responsive teacher education: Preparing classroom teachers to teach English language learners. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 59(4), 361-373.
- MacGregor-Mendoza, P., & Moreno, G. (2016) Connecting Spanish heritage language students with the community through service-learning. *Heritage Language Journal*, 13(3).
- May, S. (1999). Indigenous community-based education. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 11(3).
- Moll, L. C., Amanti, C., Neff, D., & Gonzalez, N. (1996). Funds of knowledge for teaching: A qualitative approach to developing strategic connections between homes and classroom. *Theory into Practice*, 31(2), 132-141.
- Moreno, G., & MacGregor-Mendoza, P. (2019) Language, culture, and service: Innovative strategies for bridging SHL classrooms and communities through service-learning. In G. Thompson & S. Alvord (Eds.), *Contact, Community, and Connections: Current Approaches to Spanish in Multilingual Populations* (pp. 277-304). Vernon Press.
- Morrell, E. (2005). Towards a critical English education: Reflections on and projections for discipline. *English Education*, 37(4), 312-322.
- National Standards Collaborative Board. (2015). *World readiness standards for learning languages*, 4th ed. Retrieved from <https://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/publications/standards/World-ReadinessStandardsforLearningLanguages.pdf>
- New Mexico State University Office of Institutional Analysis. (n.d.). 2017 Factbook. Las Cruces, NM: Author. Retrieved from <https://oia.nmsu.edu/factbooks-enrollment/>
- Pennycook, A. (2001). *Critical applied linguistics: A critical introduction*. L. Erlbaum.
- Rodriguez Pino, C., & Villa, D. (1994). A student-centered Spanish for native speaker's program: Theory, curriculum and outcome assessment. In C. Klee (Ed.), *Faces in a crowd: Individual learners in multisection programs* (pp. 355-373). Heinle & Heinle.
- Romero, L. (2014) De donde yo soy. In G. Moreno & S. Herrera, *Tertulia: La escritura como acto público, social y cultural* (pp 8-11). Kendall Hunt.

- Solórzano, D., & Delgado-Bernal, D. (2001). Examining transformational resistance through a critical race theory and LatCrit theory framework: Chicana and Chicano students in an urban context. *Urban Education*, 36 (3), 308-342.
- Trujillo, J. A. (2009). Con todos: Using learning communities to promote intellectual and social engagement in the Spanish curriculum. In M. Lacorte & J. Leeman (Eds.), *Español en Estados Unidos y otros contextos de contacto: Sociolingüística, ideología y pedagogía* (pp. 369-395). Iberoamericana.
- Van Dijk, T. A. (2001). Critical discourse analysis. In D. Schiffrin, & H. E. Hamilton (Eds.), *The handbook of discourse analysis* (pp. 352-371). Blackwell.
- Villegas, A. M. (1991). *Culturally responsive teaching for the 1990's and beyond*. American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

Identifying and Placing Spanish Heritage Speakers: One Program's Placement Test Approach

Oscar Moreno

Georgia State University

Paula Garrett-Rucks

Georgia State University

Abstract

Despite the increasing number of U.S. born Latinos, placing heritage and native speakers in the Spanish curriculum is still a challenge (MacGregor-Mendoza & Moreno, 2020). The present article (a) addresses the unique needs of heritage speakers in the Spanish curriculum; (b) problematizes traditional grammar-based placement exams; and (c) describes a multiple-choice placement exam (free upon request) designed and used at Georgia State University (GSU), a major urban university in the Southeastern U.S.

Taking a sociolinguistic approach to the dialectical nature of Spanish, the GSU Spanish Language Program Coordinator developed a placement test based on what students—heritage, native, and non-native—do when asked to perform language tasks. The placement test design is outlined using distinctions of linguistic norms, both local/regional and general. Reference is made to the ways in which diverse types of Spanish speakers align linguistically with general Spanish. This essay responds to the call for language standardization studies that recognize diglossia within a single named language by examining the role of heteroglossia to challenge monolingual language standardization ideologies (McLelland, 2021). Pedagogical implications for identifying and placing K-16 learners in a meaningful Spanish for Heritage Speakers classroom are discussed.

Keywords: *placement exam, Spanish heritage speaker, language ideologies, Latinx students*

Introduction

US born Latinos—termed Latinx with gender-inclusivity—form the largest growing group driving the increase in diversity in both K-12 schools and higher education (Gramlich, 2017). There is tremendous variability of linguistic mastery among Latinx students who bring with them a gamut of experiences, skills and knowledge of their heritage language into the Spanish language classroom. Despite scholarly recognition of the linguistic and cultural abilities of the Spanish heritage speaker (HS), traditional Spanish instructional practices tend to deny these HS assets. The teaching of Spanish in schools in the U.S. has been founded largely on an ap-

proach for monolingual, second language (L2) learners who arrive with no previous knowledge of the language (Carreira et al., 2020). The appropriate placement of HSs into a Spanish language curriculum is complicated by traditional, grammar-based placement exams that center on formally learned, rule-based skills and idealized native speaker norms (Fairclough, 2012), underestimating the abilities of Spanish HSs whose foundation of linguistic knowledge does not reside in declarative, rule-based categories. As a result, Spanish HSs are often misplaced in lower-level courses (Belpoliti, 2015) or, as our experience shows, in courses that are too advanced for them to succeed academically. Either way, these students miss an opportunity to build on their existing language skills in a space where HSs can negotiate a positive multilingual identity.

Review of the Literature

There has been growing momentum in the field of World Language Education in how to meet the sociolinguistic needs of the increasing numbers of Latinx students. Historically called native speakers, heritage language learners' needs differ. A Spanish *native speaker* (NS) is a person who was born, raised, and educated in a Spanish-speaking country who speaks Spanish (Carreira et al., 2020). A NS's linguistic performance in Spanish is comparable to that of any speaker of Spanish who lives in a Spanish-speaking country. By comparison, the *heritage speaker* is defined as an individual "who is raised in a home where a non-English language is spoken, who speaks or at least understands the language, and who is to some degree bilingual in that language and in English" (Valdez, 2001, p. 38). The term HS and its importance in research, policy, and practice only began to gain traction in the 1990s in the U.S. (García, 2005; Hornberger & Wang, 2008). As noted by MacGregor-Mendoza (2020), great strides have been made since then "to guide the teaching profession in the direction of greater consideration and adaptation of the curriculum to better include and meet the needs of Heritage Language (HL) learners" (p. 21).

Despite the field's increased understanding in meaningful pedagogical practices to meet the needs of Spanish HSs, the task of developing Spanish placement exams with a diverse student population in mind is still recognized as challenging (Fairclough, 2012; MacGregor-Mendoza & Moreno, 2020). One complication in the development of a meaningful placement exam is that the NS/HS definitions are not static linguistic profiles. Some speakers who would have been classified as NSs immediately after their arrival in the U.S. may, depending on the duration of their stay in the country, perform linguistically closer to HSs. Latinx Spanish HSs are a diverse population of students with diverse needs, making it urgent to find ways to identify and place them into appropriate Spanish courses.

Further complicating the placement of HSs in the Spanish curriculum is the potential disconnect of shared language learning experiences from their instructors. Spanish instructors who are NSs or advanced second language (L2) speakers of Spanish may not understand the unique situation of HSs of Spanish. Carreira et al. (2020) specified that NS and L2 Spanish teachers have not lived the Spanish HS's affective parts of language use in interactions with parents and the community that challenge the HS's identity formation—being questioned as a legitimate speaker or incomplete speaker of Spanish or another language, or not having a language that

you can claim as your own. MacGregor-Mendoza (2020) noted a common misconception among NS or L2 Spanish teachers that the language HSs bring to the class is, in some ways, flawed, impure, and undeveloped. Specifically, MacGregor-Mendoza (2020) described:

Many Spanish language teachers waiver between uncertainty, skepticism, and frustration regarding the abilities of SHL [Spanish heritage language] learners. They witness the SHL learners' understanding of sometimes complex structures and their knowledge of pragmatic tasks but are distressed by their apparent lack of mastery of seemingly simple grammatical principles or inability to recite the explicit rules explained in class that govern verb conjugations and spelling. (p. 20)

Reiterating Macedo's (2019) call to rupture the yoke of colonialism, MacGregor-Mendoza (2020) described the need for a change from a curricular mindset that positions the Spanish classroom around teaching L2 learners a *foreign* language to one of "acknowledging, accepting and legitimizing the linguistic and cultural skills brought to the classroom by Spanish as a Heritage Language (SHL) learners from their communities here in the U.S." (p. 19).

The Spanish for Heritage Speakers Course

Leeman et al. (2011) documented that "the best educational programs recognize and value students' home identities, building on their existing linguistic and cultural knowledge" (p. 484). Similarly, Beaudrie et al. (2009) found that the inclusion of student voices was of great importance in Spanish for Heritage Speakers courses when they investigated students' understandings of the impact of instruction on their cultural identity as bilingual speakers of Spanish. Norton (2013) viewed identity as an individual's understanding of his or her "relationship to the world, how this relationship is constructed in time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future" (p. 4). One has multiple identity positions across social contexts (Kramsch, 2009). HSs' language identity is highly influenced by language ideologies present in the society (Gee, 2004). Misplacing HSs into a traditional L2 Spanish classroom that devalues their home language, culture, and identity by promoting an idealized language standard can be damaging (MacGregor-Mendoza, 2020). Fostering a positive sense of transnational, bilingual identity is crucial for HSs, as many lack confidence in their linguistic abilities (Schwartz, 2003).

Critical language awareness (CLA) is an approach used in the Spanish for Heritage Speakers classroom to inform the learner on questions of linguistic prestige and subordination; CLA promotes the validity of all language varieties and the fact that the choice of which variety to use belongs with the individual (Leeman, 2005). Findings from Potowski's (2002) study on HSs' experiences in a university's traditional four-semester Spanish language program underscored the need for a CLA in the heritage language classroom. Potowski (2002) found three common themes in the participant narratives: (1) a negative self-evaluation of their Spanish, as most of them had received little to no formal schooling in Spanish; (2) a comparison to their L2 classmates in which the participants recognized advantages and disadvantages associated with being a heritage speaker; and (3) a label of teaching assistants as language

authorities who taught *proper* Spanish and provided corrective feedback on the bilingual students' work that was deemed problematic. Recognizing identity as "multiple, fluid, and a site of struggle" (Darvin and Norton, 2017, p. 3), critical pedagogues view the Spanish HS as an individual who is bi-cultural, needing to function between a Hispanic and an American identity and looking for ways to fit into both (Clayton et al., 2019; Hornberger & Wang, 2008). CLA approaches in the Spanish classroom for Heritage Speakers teaches learners to negotiate power relations in order to construct their identity as legitimate speakers of the language in both formal and informal contexts.

HSs are a unique group of learners with skills that differ from L2 learners' in the Spanish curriculum. Leeman (2005) found that L2 Spanish students often learn receptive and productive skills simultaneously, whereas "heritage speakers with excellent comprehension abilities may not be able to speak fluently" (p. 36). Other Spanish HSs with successful oral communication skills may have never learned to write the language. Carreira and Kagan's (2011) research found Spanish HSs to rate writing as their lowest skill among listening, speaking, and reading. When placed in the traditional L2 classroom, HSs were sometimes viewed as experts in the Spanish language, and hence, they become "instructors" in their classes while their literacy needs were ignored (Felix, 2009). HS literacy scholars (Burgo, 2020; Mrak, 2020) have underlined the need for a process approach to writing in the Spanish curriculum. Colombi (2009) presented a classroom project consisting of an interview of an older family member, a transcription of the interview, and an academic composition with multiple drafts based on the interview so that students can develop an awareness of the difference in registers. Kagan and Dillon (2001) suggested that Spanish HSs should be focused on familiar content first and then gradually move to working on spelling, grammar, and stylistics.

Colombi (2009) found that HSs often apply their knowledge of both spoken languages to their writing. Martínez (2007) examined two types of writing assignments—graded and non-graded—and found a greater influence from English in the more formal work. Likewise, García (2005) described how the bilingual teacher participants in her study transferred the mechanics, structure and discourse style of English onto their formal Spanish papers. Accordingly, Colombi (2009) suggested that language should be seen as a continuum ranging from informal to formal settings and signaled a need to guide students from informal to formal registers. Leeman (2005) cautioned that the local variety of the language must be validated in the Spanish for HSs classroom, and academic Spanish should be presented as an addition to HSs' existing linguistic repertoires. With pervasive issues in Spanish HS language learning, such as identity formation and literacy development, it becomes clear that a one-size-fits-all placement approach for L2/ HS/ NS learners can result in the common misplacement of HSs in classes where they are unable to meet their fullest potential (Hornberger & Link, 2012).

A Cautionary Approach to Establishing Linguistic Norms

With the intention of identifying Spanish HSs to appropriately place them in courses that honor and build on their existing use of Spanish language varieties, there is the need for a robust placement test. The placement of HSs in the Spanish curriculum frequently comes down to a single, yet complex question: what is *general*

Spanish. To clarify, the term *general Spanish* is being used here instead of *standard Spanish*. Standard Spanish is usually associated with a particular variant of Spanish, frequently defined geographically—many times also historically—and said, or believed, to be prestigious by certain speakers of the language, commonly a self-proclaimed elite of some kind (e.g., language experts, intellectuals, educators, etc.).

On a social scale, Bakhtin (c. 1935/1981) criticized theorists who described language as a closed system. He saw such views as complicit in the creation of a unified language as a vehicle of centralized power. Vogl (2012) emphasized the risk of a standard language ideology in shaping and neglecting the actual practices of speakers, especially minorities and migrants, by making assumptions about language correctness. Most often, the ‘standard’ language is taken from the speech of the elite. Such an elevation of a particular hegemonic language suppresses the heteroglossia of multiple everyday speech-types. Everyday speech is commanded to conform to an official style so as to be recognized as part of a privileged, closed-off speech-community. Standard Spanish refers to beliefs and myths ascribed to the term rather than by what ‘standard’ actually means: a set of linguistic norms that are identified within a particular speech community; traditionally Peninsular Spanish and, if restricted to Latin America, oftentimes Colombian Spanish or Mexican Spanish, which somehow turned into pan-Hispanic variants of the language.

The notion of *standard Spanish* reminds us not only of a politically incorrect position but also of cultural and sociolinguistic awareness by virtue of which no linguistic norm of a particular speech community should be imposed onto any other, a view that lies at the heart of Carreira’s (2000) article on validating and promoting Spanish in the U.S. This is not to say, however, that we should accept that a particular speech community, such as speakers of a *US Spanish*, is, or should be, autonomous from all the other Spanish-speaking communities. The linguistic norms of a particular speech community can be determined and, it is here contended, so is the case for general Spanish. The former can be characterized with reference to the latter.

For example, we might all agree, albeit intuitively for instance, one of the linguistic norms of US Spanish, such as *aplicar para una posición* [apply for a position], may be perceived in our region as a linguistic norm. As a general linguistic norm of US Spanish, it is understood anywhere in the U.S. But, is *vacunar la carpeta* [intended to mean: to vacuum the carpet] a general linguistic norm of US Spanish? Not according to many of the Spanish HSs in our Southeastern region (Georgia). The correct regional form is *vacunear la carpeta*, as HS students corrected Moreno, the first author, when he was teaching them about what *they* do, hear, and say everyday outside of the classroom. What is clear is that intuition may fail or turn out to be imprecise and linguistic norms, whether local/regional or general, must be identified systematically.

Defining General Spanish

General Spanish results from a natural effort by speakers to abide by mutually intelligible, shared linguistic norms as they interact with other speakers of the language. The effort is certainly linguistically unconscious and for the purpose of communicating. As speakers engage in this sort of negotiation for communication by necessity, they avoid local or regional norms and focus on norms that they seem to acknowledge as shared. In order to quantify general Spanish for the purpose of as-

essment, we define general Spanish as a natural result of what is linguistically common to all speakers of the language, as attested in a particular situation or on a particular task (for instance, a language test). What is clear is that we need a 'standard,' in the statistical sense (as in 'standard deviation'), in order to assess the linguistic performance of our students, heritage and native speakers included, in the language.

The key to understanding the *dialectal reality* of a language, especially if it is spoken in multiple regions and countries, is that there is a lot that differs, yet there is also a lot in common when comparing the linguistic norms of particular communities. In fact, there is linguistic heterogeneity as well as linguistic homogeneity in Spanish. Again, the definitions here are not carved into stone. In this case, the homogeneity-heterogeneity correlate is crisscrossed by another dimension—formal (or public) Spanish and informal (non-public) Spanish, as also noted by several aforementioned scholars (e.g., Colombi, 2009; García, 2005; Martínez, 2007).

For example, if Moreno, the first author, delivered a paper in his native Spanish at a conference in Spain, seemingly nobody's attention would be particularly drawn to the features of his native Chilean Spanish during the talk. Furthermore, it is assumed that Peninsular readers of his paper would not be able to determine whether he was an American speaker of the language unless he declared so. However, they could certainly expect some linguistically (or dialectally) driven anecdote to occur as soon as they stepped outside the conference room with an invitation to the attendees to go for a coffee with the expression, '*Vamos por un café*.' Someone might even feel compelled to correct the conference panelist by stating, "Isn't it '*Vamos a por un café*?'” Here we see the difference of language use in the formal context of a conference presentation and the informal context of going for coffee after the talk.

As the level of formality decreases, linguistic differences occur more frequently. It is also commonly observed that the occurrence of local or regional linguistic norms are narrowed down and reduced to a minimum, and sometimes, almost completely eliminated, as the situation calls for formal speech. Figure 1 illustrates this observation:

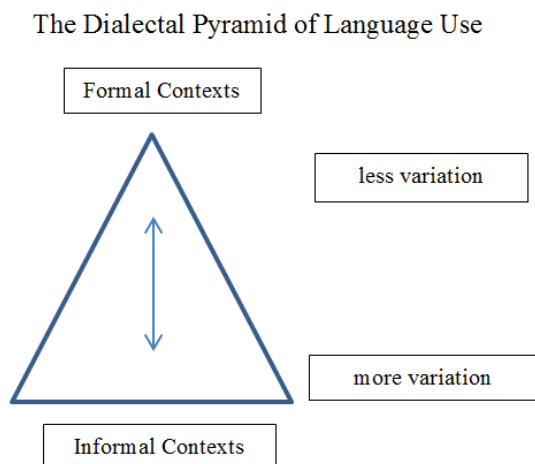


Figure 1. *The context-dependent, dialectal pyramid of language variation*

Figure 1 shows the dialectal reality of Spanish, and perhaps of any language, is like a pyramid—as informal Spanish introduces multiple and diverse linguistic options toward the pyramid base, formal Spanish reduces those options toward the pyramid tip. Then, going up and down this dialectal pyramid is assumed to be a task any NS from any Spanish-speaking speech community can perform naturally. It is precisely in this combination of pragmatic factors where a most fundamental feature of US Spanish is encountered.

Characterizing US Spanish

Studies in social bilingualism have contributed significantly to our understanding of the linguistic reality needed to assess US Spanish HSs who are largely in a situation of sociolinguistic diglossia (Ferguson, 1959; Fishman, 1971). Some of the features of US Spanish are quickly accounted for on these grounds alone—absence of the *Tú/Usted* distinction, for instance (*Doctor Pérez, me gustaría hablar contigo sobre mis notas*) and related phenomena, as the one seen in '*Me gustaría hablar con Doctor Pérez*' instead of '*...con el doctor Pérez*.' Research findings report an increase on the transfer of English syntax, lexical choice, and discourse style on HSs' Spanish writing as tasks increase in formality (Colombi, 2009; García, 2005; Martínez, 2007). Moreno, first author here, corroborates this finding identified in HS writing studies also to be true in HS spoken language; based on his interactions with the instructors of approximately 1,500 NS/HS/L2 Spanish language learners per semester he has overseen for nearly 20 years as the Georgia State University (GSU) Spanish Language Program Coordinator, and also in his personal, lived experiences. As a trained linguist and Chilean NS of Spanish—married to a Spanish NS from Spain, with whom they share two Spanish HS adult children—Moreno has observed an increased influence of the English language in formal settings among US bilingual speakers' language use (Figure 2).

The Dialectal Pyramid of Bilingual US Spanish

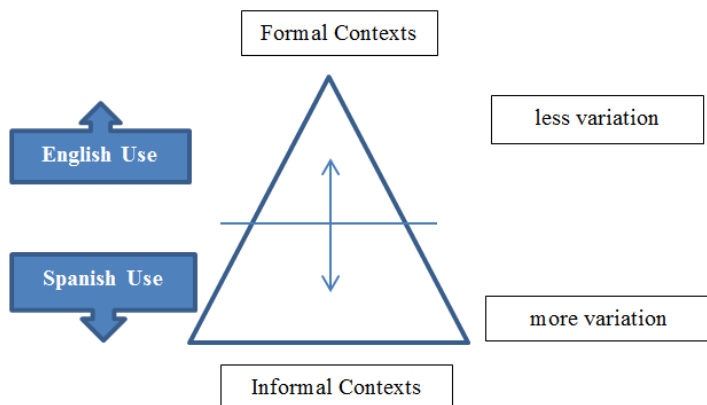


Figure 2. Dialectal pyramid of the US bilingual speakers of Spanish

Figure 2 illustrates a context-dependent, dialectal pyramid of US speakers of Spanish who commonly switch to English in formal contexts—going up the pyra-

mid—and to all of the pragmatic properties of being (socio)linguistically formal in English. Valdés (1997) has long noted the diglossic, context-dependent nature of the Spanish of HSs and suggested the need to expand the bilingual range to acquire general Spanish. The ability to navigate the context-dependent relationship between English and Spanish use in Figure 2 is fundamental to the creation of the Intermediate-Advanced Spanish Exam used for placement in the GSU Spanish curriculum.

The Creation of the Placement Test: Intermediate-Advanced Spanish Exam

The GSU Spanish Language Program Coordinator, Dr. Moreno, has been administering the Intermediate-Advanced Spanish Exam (IASE) in various iterations for over twenty years. Moreno first started teaching a Spanish for NSs course in 2001. The common practice at that time for placing learners who might qualify to skip some of the introductory language sequence (four semesters of language study) or the fifth semester “bridging class” (intensive writing and grammar) was a 100-word written essay and oral interview with no systematic evaluation system to place students. The “native speakers”—the term heritage speaker was still emerging in the field at this time (Carreira et al., 2020)—were frequently placed into a fourth semester course of language study that had little differentiated instruction for the diverse NS/HS students during the first year of its inception. The need for differentiation became apparent, as nearly half the learners in the course were engaged while the other half was disinterested, Moreno recalls. He reports this memory was reinforced with the divided teaching evaluations he received for this course, half glowing and half discontent reviews.

Based on classroom observations during the first year of instruction within this context, in addition to common language innovations identified on the written tests that corresponded to the sociolinguistic history or *sociolinguistic generation* (Escobar & Potowski, 2015) of test-takers, Moreno was able to create a test that included two parts: 60 fill-in-the blank sentences and a 100-word written test. The fill-in-the-blank part of the test also responded to the practical purpose of collecting language innovations by the test-takers in contexts that had been previously noticed in the prior writing task assessment.

The following summer, Moreno was faced with assessing 75 students for placement into the GSU Spanish language program with the newly designed test. As a trained linguist, he performed a quantitative analysis of the responses in each blank and identified frequent occurrences of commonly used language structure differences in the writing section. The resulting figures identified three salient groups of language users, eventually learner profiles, across degrees of language proficiency: intermediate, advanced, and nativelike. These three groups fully corresponded with the sociolinguistic history of the test-takers as reported on the test. Thus, the intermediate group consisted of (1) intermediate HSs (iHS—placed in fourth semester “Spanish for Native Speakers”); (2) advanced HSs (aHS—placed in a new fifth-semester bridging course “Intensive Grammar and Writing for Native Speakers”); and (3) NSs (students allowed to register for courses on literature, linguistics, and culture). Both fourth- and fifth-semester courses for “Native Speakers” were structured to meet the students’ unique sociolinguistic needs, mainly exploring bilingual iden-

tities (intermediate HSs) and building on formal register abilities (advanced HSs). With this new fifth-semester “Intensive Grammar and Writing for Native Speakers” course added to the curriculum, “instruction time was more meaningful and instructor evaluations greatly improved,” recalls Moreno.

Based on the salient linguistic features of language use from the three groups of student profiles assessed across the original 75 tests, the first iteration of the IASE was created in a multiple-choice format, primarily to allow for more efficient assessment with the growing number of Latinx students. The options in each question were established on the basis of the responses that test takers had previously provided on the fill-in-the-blank version of the test. Between August of 2002 until May 2007, 380 students were assessed using various iterations of the IASE, and the essays were discontinued as they became redundant. Over these years, some test questions and primarily the scoring system were adjusted when a student was placed at a level that did not appear to be appropriate. The last iteration to be revised occurred in 2007. The IASE has had only small updates since that time and exists now as a 92-item, multiple-choice test that students can take online in 30-50 minutes. The IASE, answer key, and score interpretation sheet is freely available upon request from Dr. Moreno (omoreno@gsu.edu).

Assessing IASE Student Responses: Scoring Regionalisms vs General Spanish

A key question in designing the placement test and evaluating student responses was the issue of *regional Spanish* versus a *general Spanish*. The working definition we use to identify a linguistic regionalism—or localism—is a structure, at any level of linguistic analysis that is marked by a Spanish NS as not being associated with his or her own speech community, region, or country. In contrast, we refer to *general Spanish*, as the elements of a shared language that are mutually intelligible, and therefore, assumed to be of effective communication among all speakers of Spanish. Referring to the aforementioned example, if during the coffee break at the conference in Spain, Moreno says ‘*Vamos por un café*’ and his Peninsular colleagues say ‘*Vamos a por un café*’, obviously they are abiding by different linguistic norms. If a test-taker uses one form—including *a*—and another test-taker uses the other—without *a*—which of the two expressions should be assigned more value in the assessment? Among a majority of Peninsular speakers of Spanish, clearly the prepositional cluster *a por* would be the linguistic norm that should receive full credit, and the use of a single preposition—*por*—to the eyes of his Peninsular colleagues, in Spain, would be considered a *regionalism*. Yet, if this procedure were used to assess the linguistic profile of speakers of multiple origins—such as on this side of *el charco* [the pond—in the informal way Spaniards call the Atlantic], and especially among Latinx Spanish speakers, the cluster of prepositions, *a por*, becomes a marked trait that they do not hear frequently around them. It is on this side of the Atlantic, a *regionalism*. As such, both uses are considered regionalisms.

Every question on the early versions of the IASE, either a blank to fill in or a translation to recognize in a multiple-choice item, was worth one point. Based on our observations of native speakers and heritage speakers’ attempts at communicating with each other, and considering some HSs’ own accounts of their experiences

with NSs, we assumed that regionalisms might reduce the probability of mutual intelligibility when communicating across different speech communities. Regionalisms, identified as forms of US Spanish, were either assigned 50% credit or no credit as they moved away from the group's norm and increased unintelligibility in general Spanish speaker communication. For example, in *general Spanish*, one might say, *A mis padres les gusta hablar español* compared to *US Spanish*, where one might say, *Ø Mis padres les gusta hablar español*. In this instance, dropping the case marker might have an adverse effect on communication between heritage and native speakers. The linguistic profiles, or grammars, of native speakers/advanced heritage speakers (aHS) and intermediate heritage speakers (iHS) are further illustrated below in sample IASE questions, followed by an explanation of the scoring.

The following are samples of the IASE questions with the responses for (1) full credit—*general Spanish* response by NSs or advanced heritage speakers (aHS) and (2) half credit—*regional Spanish* responses by intermediate heritage speakers (iHS). Test-takers are instructed to select “n/a” when the most correct answer is not available.

- Ex. 1. _____ compré un regalo a mi novia para su cumpleaños.
 a. Ayer [iHS= 0.5 pt]
 b. Yo
 c. Lo
 d. La
 e. n/a [NS= 1.0 pt]

In Example 1, the iHS has not noticed the absence of a double reference to the expressed indirect object—mandatory among most native speakers—and would thus receive half credit as an apparent US Spanish regionalism. The NS, noting the general Spanish rule, would have looked for the correct response “Le”—referring to the indirect object, *mi novia*—[girlfriend/fiancée]—co-occurring in the sentence. Due to the absence of the correct response, the NS would select option “e. n/a” for a full point.

- Ex. 2. Mis padres no _____ el inglés porque _____ de México.
 a. son a. ellos están
 b. les gusta [iHS= 0.5 pt] b. ellos son [iHS= 0.5 pt]
 c. n/a [NS= 1.0 pt] c. son [NS= 1.0 pt]
 d. están d. n/a
 e. hablas e. vienes

For the first part of Example 2, the iHS may have selected “b. les gusta” with the US Spanish variant resulting from a common drop in the dative case marker *a* with *Gustar*-type verbs, receiving only half credit. Native speakers would instead select “c. n/a” recognizing the general Spanish norm that in this context the verb should have been conjugated as “hablan,” and that this is not available as an option. For the second part of Example 2, the iHSs often select “b. ellos son” with a recurring use of expressed subjects when not needed, due to the verb conjugation giving away the subject in general Spanish.

Ex. 3. Perdón, ¿dónde _____ el laboratorio de idiomas?

- a. es
- b. está [NS= 1.0 pt]
- c. encuentra
- d. esta [iHS= 0.5 pt]
- e. n/a

Example 3 reveals a common, informal US Spanish HS trait of not seeing the need for an accent mark, and thus receives half credit for the response.

Ex 4. ¿Dónde _____ la clase de español?

- a. está [iHS= 0.5 pt]
- b. n/a
- c. encuentra
- d. esta [iHS= 0.5 pt]
- e. es [NS= 1.0 pt]

Example 4 illustrates a fairly complex status of *clase* among Spanish dialects. In general Spanish, *clase* [class as a teaching/learning session] is an event, not a location, thus requiring the verb *ser*, meaning option “e. es” would be full credit. Both Spaniards and Latin American speakers of Spanish use *clase* this way. It is then a norm of general Spanish. However, in Peninsular Spanish, *clase* is also a synonym of *aula* [a classroom] and *estar* is then frequently heard in this context. Option “a. está,” though a native choice, is common only to Spaniards. It is then a regionalism and would therefore receive half a point. Lastly, option “d. esta” is a common choice among US HSs, who follow the norm of *estar* for location without regard to the exception for events. It is a US Spanish regionalism, and it therefore receives half a point.

Ex 5. Mi hermano está sentado y no hace nada. No _____ hacer sus tareas de la escuela.

- a. está
- b. n/a [NS= 1.0 pt]
- c. va [iHS= 0.5 pt]
- d. es
- e. quieres

In Example 5, in US Spanish, it is common for HSs to speak with a natural loss of the prepositional phrase marker *a* of the periphrastic future auxiliary *ir a*. However, the advanced student could notice the full version of this structure, “va a,” is absent and would select option “b. n/a”

Ex 6. El médico _____ examinó _____ espalda y me dijo que sólo _____ un dolor muscular.

- | | | |
|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| a. no | a. mi [iHS= 0.5 pt] | a. era [NS= 1.0 pt] |
| b. me [NS= 1.0 pt] | b. mí | b. fue |
| c. mi | c. me | c. tenga |
| d. mí | d. la [NS= 1.0 pt] | d. tuviera |
| e. n/a [iHS= 0.5 pt] | e. n/a | e. n/a |

For the first part of Example 6, option “e. n/a” is another example of an absence of pronouns introducing double reference to the expressed indirect object in US Spanish speech, whereas it is required in general Spanish. For the second part, option “a. mi” is following the Anglicism of “my shoulder” whereas in general Spanish, the possessive pronoun is not needed since ownership was already expressed in the indirect option use “me.” For the third blank, there is only one solid answer, “a.” None of the other options have been attested significantly among the first test-takers, thus no half points are given.

- Ex 7. Dr. Moreno, ¿_____ un minuto? Quisiera conversar
_____ sobre mi nota.
- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|
| a. tienes [iHS= 0.5 pt] | a. contigo [iHS= 0.5 pt] |
| b. tiene [NS= 1.0 pt] | b. consigo |
| c. tenga | c. con usted [NS= 1.0 pt] |
| d. tendrías | d. conmigo |
| e. n/a | e. n/a |

For both parts of Example 7, options “a” are an example of US Spanish unmarking formal/honorary (*Tú* vs *Usted*) morphology in cases other than vocatives. Due to the nature of a student – professor relationship, more formality, as acknowledged by most native speakers, is needed.

- Ex 8. En EE.UU. _____ inglés y en América Latina el español
_____ por millones de personas.
- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| a. habla | a. hablan |
| b. es hablado | b. es hablado [NS= 1.0 pt] |
| c. se habla [NS= 1.0 pt] | c. se habla [iHS= 0.5 pt] |
| d. está hablado | d. está hablado |
| e. n/a | e. n/a |

For the first part of Example 8, no credit is given for another choice beyond option “c. se habla.” There is no consistent/systematic response among regionalisms or heritage speakers that differs from this standard response. For the second part, option “b. es hablado” is most common among speakers of general Spanish whereas option “c. se habla” might be selected by an aHS or a NS of Spanish in the Caribbean, receiving half a point as a regionalism.

These question samples reveal some structures that speakers of US (bilingual) Spanish, as compared to general (monolingual) Spanish, have innovated at several levels of linguistic analysis: (1) absence of double reference to expressed indirect object; (2) loss of dative case marker *a* with *Gustar*-type verbs; (3) recurring use of expressed subjects; (4) absence of accent marks; (5) loss of prepositional phrase marker *a* of the periphrastic future auxiliary *ir a*; (6) expression of possession (to refer to body parts) by means of possessive articles; (7) unmarking of formal/honorary (*Tú* vs *Usted*) morphology in contexts other than vocatives; and (8) unstable treatment of passive voice formats. Additionally, the lexical differences between monolingual Spanish and US Spanish are widespread. For instance, Example 4 shows a case in which Spanish *clase* has been reinterpreted semantically to resemble English *class*. US Spanish speakers often mark the option—including *estar*—that turns this lexical item into one that no longer refers to an event and therefore rules out *ser*.

Translation samples are additionally used as part of the IASE to determine if, and to what extent, test-takers' Spanish is independent of English. Arguably, this type of question requires more conscious command of the two languages, and subsequently, helps distinguish borderline profiles. Advanced heritage speakers (aHS) are commonly identified in this translation section. Students are given the instructions in Spanish, ¿Cuál es la mejor traducción? *La opción 'n/a' significa que ninguna de las traducciones dadas es buena o adecuada* [Which is the best translation? Option 'n/a' means that none of the given translations are good or acceptable].

Ex. 9. She's married with children.

- a. Ella está casada con hijos. [iHS= 0.5 pt]
- b. Está casada y tiene niños. [aHS= 0.5 pt]
- c. Está casada y tiene hijos. [NS= 1.0 pt]
- d. n/a
- e. Ella está casada con sus hijos.

In Example 9, "c" is the option native speakers most commonly select as accurate, and therefore, it is assigned full credit—1 point. Option "a" is typically chosen by iHSs and option "b" is selected by aHSs, both for half credit. It is clear here that US Spanish use is closer to English usage (by replacing the *y* conjunction and a lexical item). The translation marked by the iHS is a literal, word-for-word, version of its English counterpart. The aHS, more aware of monolingual Spanish structure, has only adopted a calque—*niños* (young-age children)—to refer to *hijos* (children to parents). Both options, "a" and "b," as systematically repeated occurrences across two groups of language speakers, receive half a point. Thus, they are regionalisms.

Ex. 10. I'm definitely applying for the position, but I was told the salary was not that good.

- a. Definitivamente, voy a aplicar para la posición, pero fui dicho que el sueldo no era muy bueno. [iHS= 0.5 pt]
- b. n/a
- c. Seguro que voy a solicitar el puesto, pero me dijeron que el sueldo no era tan bueno. [NS= 1.0 pt]
- d. Definitivamente, voy a solicitar la posición, pero se me dijo que el sueldo no era muy bueno. [aHS= 0.5 pt]
- e. De seguro que postulo a la plaza, pero fui dicho que el sueldo no era bueno.

Lexical variation is essential to consider for mutual intelligibility. It is one of the foundations for our quantitative grading of the IASE. It can be observed in Example 10 that the result—unintended messages—may turn out to make no sense to the NS; hence, the high potential for a problematic linguistic exchange between heritage and native speakers. Option "a" shows a word-for-word Spanish version of English *apply for a position*, which a NS would find marked and awkward. This sequence of words is foreign sounding to general (monolingual) Spanish. Then, the English sentence introduces a passive form whereby an indirect object appears as grammatical subject, against a natural tendency in general Spanish to avoid passive voice in the more Anglicized looking and sounding *ser + participle* pattern. Option "d" abides by Spanish

structure but includes an English calque—*posición* for *plaza* or *puesto*. Both options “a” and “d” are typical responses by heritage speakers, albeit in two different groups, and are therefore half a point each as regionalisms of US Spanish. The general Spanish option is “c,” which receives full credit.

Interpreting IASE Scores

Table 1 below shows GSU program placement based on IASE scores, including a descriptive language profile designation of terms NS, aHS, and iHS that are used only for placement consideration. As noted by Goulette (2020), “[s]tudents should be allowed to self-select labels” (p. 78), especially concerning issues of linguistic and cultural identities.

Table 1
Language profile descriptors and placement in the Spanish curriculum based on IASE Score

IASE Score and Language Profile Designation	Language Profile Description	Placement in the Spanish Curriculum
80% or above Native Speaker [NS]	Spanish is considered monolingual in terms of mastery of a <i>general Spanish</i> . This speaker may speak both Spanish and English, but his/her Spanish is comparable to that of speakers living in a Spanish-speaking country.	Credit is given for the fifth-semester intensive grammar and writing bridging class. The student is allowed to register for courses on literature, linguistics, and culture.
65% to 79.9% Advanced Heritage Speaker [aHS]	Spanish is considered bilingual. His/her mastery of the language is significant, despite occasional calques and lexical borrowings from English. Mutual intelligibility across varieties of Spanish is not a concern.	Student is placed in the fifth-semester intensive grammar and writing bridging course for Spanish Heritage Speakers.
50% to 64.9% Intermediate Heritage Speaker [iHS]	Spanish is of a bilingual quality, yet further structural command will help the learner achieve consistent mutual intelligibility with speakers of <i>general Spanish</i> across formal and informal contexts.	Student is placed in the fourth-semester of language study course, Intermediate Spanish for Heritage Speakers.
49.9% and below	Emerging Spanish. This student will benefit from language training for more functional command of Spanish.	Courses in Basic Spanish (first-, second-, or third-semester of Spanish)—as determined by a regular CLEP® placement exam.

The linguistic profile of any test-taker that obtains a score of 80% or above is largely comparable to that of a NS living in a Spanish-speaking country. Although the term “native speaker” is applied to the language profile designation category, test-takers may include highly advanced L2 speakers. It should be noted that a number of college-educated NSs—born, raised, and educated in Spanish-speaking countries—were asked to complete a first version of IASE on a multiple-choice format. All of them obtained scores between 82% and 95%, figures that have been confirmed repeatedly over the years among college students, both undergraduate and graduate,

who were also NSs of the language and of recent arrival in the US. Some highly educated non-native, non-heritage speakers have also scored above 80% thus showing language performance in Spanish that is fully comparable to that of NSs. For placement purposes, then, “NS Spanish” is revealed to have dialectal variation that is not more than 20% on the IASE linguistic tasks. Students with scores of 80% and above are allowed to register for advanced courses on literature, linguistics, and culture.

The linguistic profile of students who obtains a score of below 80% to 65% is considered an advanced heritage speaker [aHS] who has mastered informal Spanish and some of the formal language, but they are unaware of sociolinguistic conventions such as those calling for formal (*Ud*) treatment. In our experience, this type of student is often a second-generation Spanish HS, commonly with NS parents who are first-generation immigrants in the U.S. This speaker may also be a first-generation immigrant that arrived in the U.S. at an early age and has been influenced by US Spanish. This type of student is placed in the fifth-semester intensive grammar and writing bridging course for Spanish HSs.

Students scoring between 65% to 50% are considered to be at an intermediate level of *general Spanish*, and an intermediate Heritage Speaker (iHS). Their Spanish is of a bilingual quality, yet further structural command of formal Spanish will help the learner achieve mutual intelligibility with speakers of general Spanish, particularly in formal contexts. This type of learner is often the child of immigrants; however, the iHS might use English as a primary language of communication. They regularly use lexical, sometimes even syntactic, calques and borrowings from English.

Students scoring 49% and below, we term as an emerging speaker of general Spanish. In our experience, this student is frequently a third or older generation immigrant or a second-generation immigrant with a parent who is an English-monolingual speaker and commonly has little functional command of Spanish production. These kinds of students would generally be referred to Spanish WebCAPE online, a commercially available placement test that has steadily placed students properly into classes/levels in Lower-Division Spanish.

Generally speaking, the Spanish Program at GSU uses three placement/level tests. The first one is the Spanish WebCAPE. If students obtain a high score (at GSU, 500 points and above), they are referred to the College Board’s College-Level Examination Program (CLEP® placement exam) for credit by examination. Many students meet the so called our university’s “Foreign Language Graduation Requirement” through this process. If a student intends to continue to study Spanish, usually as a major or as a minor, he or she is asked to take the IASE for determining skill level and placement into advanced Higher-Division courses. Most heritage speakers are tested at this point. There have been very few misplacement concerns over the past fifteen years with use of the WebCAPE, the CLEP® for Lower-Division Spanish credit, and the IASE for placement in Higher-Division courses.

Discussion

The proper placement and support of HSs in the Spanish curriculum is of growing importance given the increasing number of Latinx students in US education. It is crucial for Spanish educators to know the issues concerning language use and identity for a Spanish HS compared to a L2 learner. The outcome of promoting standardiza-

tion of an idealized language or imagined community can be damaging to multilingual speakers when a particular part of their home language, culture, and identity have been positioned as a problem or disapproved in the classroom (MacGregor-Mendoza, 2020). The beginning of this article outlined the unique needs of HSs in the Spanish curriculum, but as recently noted by Goulette (2020), “[d]espite scholarly recognition of the linguistic, cultural and academic differences between HLLs and L2 learners, current policy and instructional practices tend to deny them” (p. 65).

The language ideologies that students experience in their different positions in school and at home play a part in their ongoing multilingual identity development and negotiation. These issues complicate placement practices to identify Spanish HSs for the purpose of building on their existing skills in a Spanish language curriculum. The notion of comparing Spanish NS/HS language use to a *general Spanish* in this article was solely for the purpose of identifying multilingual speakers’ linguistic needs and to provide them with a safe space within the Spanish language curriculum where they could be their whole selves.

In responding to the issue of native and heritage speakers’ placement in the Spanish curriculum in college, the GSU Program Coordinator first sought a response to the question of what is *general Spanish*. A quantitative standard was established on the basis of group majorities of test-takers when asked to provide original responses on a comprehensive Spanish test. Linguistic profiles were established for native and heritage speakers by recording the most frequent and recurring responses across test-takers. Responses that were common to a majority of test-takers were assumed to reveal common linguistic norms. The responses provided by such majorities were given full credit—a full point—under the assumption that those responses would not become a barrier to mutual intelligibility in actual communicative interactions among Spanish speakers of different origins. The responses given by only some speakers were considered as showing particular, or regional, norms. As such, these would not ensure mutual intelligibility across regions. For grading purposes—response weight on the test—these responses were assigned a value of 50%—half a point. Many of the structures as commonly used by Latinx US Spanish speakers were assigned full credit, as their usage replicated the ones encountered among speakers of monolingual Spanish. Frequently, too, US Spanish, typically used in the informal contexts of family life and around close friends, were assigned half credit, while many other responses were not assigned any value as they appeared generated by English influences.

In more theoretical terms, US Spanish is claimed to be another variant of Spanish, which differs from all others in that US Spanish is intrinsically *bilingual*. In this sense, a defining feature of US Spanish is not that it naturally tends to code-switching, calques, and borrowings from English as much as the fact that HSs of the language switch to English in formal situations. Many innovations in US Spanish may be said to be a result of a pragmatic condition in our region whereby frequent exposure to formal Spanish is less common compared to the exposure of formal English in public situations.

It should be noted that, even though formal and/or public Spanish is largely common to all Spanish-speaking monolingual communities—those in Latin America and Spain—the language varies considerably when monolingual variants of the

language are compared in their informal, non-public domains—many times to the point of hindering mutual intelligibility among native speakers. Linguistically, it is proper to state then that US Spanish appears as different before Latin Americans and Spaniards because of the same sociolinguistic and pragmatic factors that lead Latin Americans and Spaniards to speak in a very particular way in their private surroundings. Social, pragmatic, and communication demands and constraints affect US Spanish the same way they affect monolingual dialects of the language. A noticeable difference is US Spanish switches to English in more formal, public contexts. In this way, the Spanish for Heritage Speakers classroom affords the opportunity to explore a rich tradition of language and culture differences and hybridity within the context of identity formation that positions multilingualism as an asset. From there, the Heritage Speakers classroom should become, as several scholars have pointed out, a gateway for access to the formal and public registers of the language.

Yet, despite recognized demographic shifts, Spanish NSs/HSSs, whose knowledge about the language has been built on a variety of lived experiences in the U.S. and/or abroad, continue to be placed in courses that are designed with L2 learners in mind. It is important for Spanish language educators to be aware of culturally responsive pedagogy (Ladson-Billings, 1995) whereby all students can “maintain their cultural integrity while succeeding academically” (p. 476). It is essential when in interactions with Spanish HSs in the traditional Spanish classroom that “[i]nstead of casting students off as ‘lazy’ or ‘incapable,’ educators must consider to what degree students may be resisting the enacted curriculum for the simple fact that they believe the curriculum does not reflect their reality” (Goulette, 2020, p. 79). When Spanish HSs are made to feel that they speak a broken Spanish language, linguistic stigmatization may prompt them to believe they should drop the language course (Correa, 2016).

The need for a more accurate placement test is crucial because the majority of US Spanish speakers could benefit from some type of Spanish instruction, especially with writing skills (Montrul, 2010; Parra, 2017). Colombi (2009) found that HSs apply the informal conversational resources they had developed in their heritage language to write in academic contexts. Several HS literacy specialists have proposed a critical, process approach to develop writing skills in the Spanish curriculum (Burgo, 2020; Mrak, 2020). This process involves first writing about their familiar, lived experiences, and then analyzing language choices while revising. Burgo (2020) noted an obstacle to meaningful HS writing instruction is the lack of training in the certification process of world language instructors. She further noted, “if educators intend to empower students to become good writers, they need to know how to do so, especially when grading with regard to assessment” (Burgo, 2020, p. 98). Drawing from Leeman’s (2005) critical writing assessment practices for HSs, Burgo (2020) emphasized the importance to “leave behind a traditional approach to error correction based on prescriptive grammar; above all since HLLs’ local variety must be validated in the HL classroom, academic Spanish should be presented as an addition to their linguistic repertoires” (pp 98-99).

In conclusion, the primary aims of this article were to (1) bring attention to the unique needs of Latinx HSs in the Spanish language curriculum; (2) share a free placement test that acknowledges regional uses of Spanish to identify HSs in order

to provide them a meaningful language learning experience; and (3) to provide information about our program in the U.S. Southeast, in response to Potowski's (2016) call for current research on Spanish heritage language programs in certain areas of the U.S. We also are responding to the recent call Kemp (2020) put out, stating the urgent need for educators and researchers to "listen to and document the voices of students enrolled in HL courses as their prior experiences with the language might inform HL curriculum and pedagogy in innovative ways" (p. 35).

Most importantly, the intent of this article is to provide the reader a way to identify Spanish HSs and place them in the Spanish curriculum in a class that supports their voice and dignity. We conclude with a quote by Love (2019), who writes about the need to respect community connections within the schooling of linguistically and culturally diverse Black and Brown children. Love (2019) described her own experience in rejecting the school narrative that did not embrace her identity and the importance of feeling like her voice was listened to:

My dignity was never to be compromised, which meant never compromising my voice and my connection to how I mattered in this world. When you compromise your voice, you compromise your dignity. No dignity, no power. (p. 44)

The general tone we hoped to convey throughout this manuscript is that students' perspectives should guide a bottom-up approach to the Spanish HS curriculum design and placement tests.

References

- Bakhtin, M.M. (c. 1935/1981). *The dialogic imagination: Four essays*. (C. Emerson & M. Holquist, Trans.). Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Beaudrie, S. M., Ducar, C., & Relañó-Pastor, A. M. (2009). Curricular perspectives in the heritage language context: Assessing culture and identity. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 22(2), 157-174.
- Belpoliti, F. (2015). Moving forward: Revisiting the Spanish for high beginners course. *EuroAmerican Journal of Applied Linguistics and Languages*, 2(1), 1-19.
- Burgo, C. (2020). Writing strategies to develop literacy skills for advanced Spanish heritage language learners. *Dimension*, 55, 97-107.
- Carreira, M. (2000). Validating and promoting Spanish in the United States: Lessons from linguistic science. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 24(4), 423-442.
- Carreira, M., Garrett-Rucks, P., Kemp, J. A., & Randolph, L.J., Jr. (2020). Introduction to heritage language learning: An interview with María Carreira. *Dimension*, 55, 6-18.
- Carreira, M., & Kagan, O. (2011). Results of the National Heritage Language Survey: Implications for teaching, curriculum design, and professional development. *Foreign Language Annals*, 44(1), 40-64.
- Clayton, A., Medina, M., & Wiseman, A. (2019). Culture and community: Perspectives from first-year, first-generation-in-college Latino students. *Journal of Latinos & Education*, 18(2), 134-150.
- Colombi, M. C. (2009). A systemic functional approach to teaching Spanish for heritage speakers in the United States. *Linguistics and Education*, 20, 39-49.

- Correa, M. (2016). Critical approaches to heritage language learning: From linguistic survival to resistance and action. In P. Trifonas & T. Aravossitas (Eds.), *Handbook of research and practice in heritage language education* (pp. 1-14). Springer International.
- Darvin, R., & Norton, B. (2017). Identity, language learning, and critical pedagogies in digital times. In J. Cenoz, D. Gorter, and S. May (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education: Vol 6, Language awareness and multilingualism* (pp. 43-54). Springer.
- Escobar, A.M., & Potowski, K. (2015). *El Español de los Estados Unidos*. Cambridge University Press.
- Fairclough, M. (2012). A working model for assessing Spanish heritage language learners' language proficiency through a placement exam. *Heritage Language Journal* 9(1), 121-138.
- Felix, A. (2009). The adult heritage Spanish speaker in the foreign language classroom: A phenomenography. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 22(2), 145-162.
- Ferguson, C. (1959). Diglossia. *Word*, 15, 325-340.
- Fishman, J. (1971). *Sociolinguistics: A brief Introduction*. Newbury House.
- García, O. (2005). Positioning heritage languages in the United States. *The Modern Language Journal*, 89, 601-605.
- García, O. (2009). Education, multilingualism and translanguaging in the 21st century. In T. Skutnabb-Kangas, R. Phillipson, A. K. Mohanty, & M. Panda (Eds.), *Social justice through multilingual education* (pp. 140-158). Multilingual Matters.
- Gee, J. (2004). *Situated language and learning: A critique of traditional schooling*. Routledge.
- Goulette, E. (2020). Heritage language learners in a mixed class: Educational affordances and constraints. *Dimension*, 55, 64-81.
- Gramlich, J. (2017, September 29). *Hispanic dropout rate hits new low, college enrollment at new high*. Washington, D.C.: Pew Research Center. <https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2017/09/29/hispanic-dropout-rate-hits-new-low-college-enrollment-at-new-high>
- Hornberger, N., & Link, H. (2012). Translanguaging in today's classrooms: A biliteracy lens. *Theory into Practice*, 51, 239-247.
- Hornberger, N., & Wang, S. (2008). Who are our heritage language learners? Identity and biliteracy in heritage language education in the United States. In D. M. Brinton, O. Kagan & S. Backus (Eds.), *Heritage language education: A new field emerging* (pp. 3-35). Routledge.
- Kagan, O., & Dillon, K. (2008). Issues in heritage language learning in the United States. In N. Van Deusen-Scholl and N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education, 2nd Edition, Volume 4: Second and foreign language education*, (pp. 143-156). Springer.
- Kemp, J. (2020). University students' experiences in Spanish heritage language programs in the Midwest. *Dimension*, 55, 35-63.
- Kramsch, C. (2009). *The multilingual subject*. Oxford University Press.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (1995). Toward a theory of culturally relevant pedagogy. *American Educational Research Journal*, 32(3), 465-491.

- Leeman, J. (2005). Engaging critical pedagogy: Spanish for native speakers. *Foreign Language Annals*, 38(1), 35-45.
- Leeman, J., Rabin, L., & Román-Mendoza, E. (2011). Identity and activism in heritage language education. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95, 481-495.
- Love, B. (2019). *We want to do more than survive: Abolitionist teaching and the pursuit of educational freedom*. Beacon Press.
- Macedo, D. (2019). Rupturing the yoke of colonialism in foreign language education: An introduction. In D. Macedo (Ed.), *Decolonizing foreign language education: The misteaching of English and other colonial languages* (pp. 1-49). Routledge.
- MacGregor-Mendoza, P. (2020). Language, culture, and Spanish heritage language learners: Reframing old paradigms. *Dimension*, 55, 19-34.
- MacGregor-Mendoza, P. & Moreno, G. (2020). Streamlining the placement of Spanish heritage language learners. *Dimension*, 55, 108-131.
- Martínez, G. (2007). Writing back and forth: The interplay of form and situation in heritage language composition. *Language Teaching Research*, 11(1), 31-41.
- McLelland, N. (2021) Language standards, standardisation and standard ideologies in multilingual contexts. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 42(2), 109-124,
- Montrul, S. (2010). Current issues in heritage language acquisition. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 30, 3-23.
- Mrak, A. (2020). Developing writing in Spanish heritage language learners: An integrated process approach. *Dimension*, 55, 82-96.
- Norton, B. (2013). *Identity and language learning: Extending the conversation* (2nd ed.). Multilingual Matters.
- Parra, M. (2017). Resources for teaching Spanish as a heritage language. *Informes del Observatorio*, 32(6), 1-27
- Potowski, K. (2002). Experiences of Spanish heritage speakers in university foreign language courses and implications for teacher training. *ADFL Bulletin*, 33(3), 35-42.
- Potowski, K. (2016). Current issues in Spanish heritage language education. In D. Pascual y Cabo (Ed.), *Advances in Spanish as a heritage language* (pp. 127-142). John Benjamins.
- Schwartz, A. (2003). No me suena! [It does not sound right to me!] Heritage Spanish speakers' writing strategies. In A. Roca and M. C. Colombi (Eds.), *Mi Lengua: Spanish as a heritage language in the United States* (pp. 235-256). Georgetown University Press.
- Valdés, G. (1997). The teaching of Spanish to bilingual Spanish-speaking students: Outstanding issues and unanswered questions. In M. Colombi and F. Alarcón (Eds.), *La enseñanza del español a hispanohablantes. Praxis y teoría* (pp. 8-44). Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Valdés, G. (2001). Heritage language students: Profiles and possibilities. In J. Kreeft Peyton, D. Ranard and S. McGinnis (Eds.), *Heritage languages in America: Preserving a national resource* (pp. 37-77). Systems, Inc.
- Vogl, U. (2012). Multilingualism in a standard language culture. In M. Hüning, U. Vogl, and O. Moliner (Eds.) *Standard languages and multilingualism in European history* (pp. 1-42). John Benjamins.



**Southern Conference on Language Teaching
Board of Directors
2020-2021**

Dr. Bobby Hobgood [2021]
President
University of North Carolina
at Charlotte, NC

Carmen Scoggins [2021]
Immediate Past President,
2021 Awards Co-Director
Watauga HS, NC

Dr. Krista Chambless [2025]
President-Elect, Recording Secretary,
2021 Awards Co-Director
University of Alabama
at Birmingham, AL

Pam Benton [2021]
Registrar and SCOLTalk Co-Editor
Pinellas County Schools, FL

Delandris Jones [2021]
Program Co-Director
Rock Hill School District 3, SC

Dr. Mark Linsky [2022]
Program Co-Director
Savannah-Chatham County
Public Schools, GA

Dr. Victoria Russell [2022]
Exhibits and Advertising Co-Director,
SCOLTalk Co-Editor
Valdosta State University, GA

Lisa Podbilski [2021]
SCOLT Representative to ACTFL
Louisville Collegiate School, KY

Heidi Trude [2023]
Program Co-Director
and Social Media
Loudoun Valley High School, VA

Albert Fernandez [2024]
Scholarships Director
St. Mary Magdalen Catholic School, FL

Lisa Worthington-Groce [2024]
Co-registrar and SCOLTalk Co-Editor
Northwest Guilford High School, NC

Dr. Paula Garrett-Rucks
Editor, *Dimension*
Georgia State University, GA

Dr. Leslie Baldwin
Executive Director

2021 Individual Sponsors

Trevor Anderson	SC	Louise Dobbins	KY
Theresa Anderson	GA	Perla Fernandez	SC
Greg Barfield	GA	Catherine Fortin	NC
Teresa Bell	UT	Mary Ellen Foye	VA
Pamela Benton	FL	Sandra Garcia Sanborn	CA
Katherine Bevins	VA	Paula Garrett-Rucks	GA
Ashley Brown	MS	Heather Giles	SC
Janet Bunch	MS	Ann Marie Gunter	NC
Lee Burson	GA	Amanda Hajji	SC
Erin Carlson	SC	Erin Hammer	SC
Tracie Carollo	FL	Elizabeth Harrison	MS
June Carter	SC	Marcy Hite	SC
Krista Chambless	AL	Sandrine Hope	AL
Michaela Claus-Nix	GA	Yohanna Jimenez	AL
Mara Cobe	NC	Ismari Johnson	SC
Victoria Connelly	SC	Norah Jones	VA
Carol Anne Costabile-Heming	TX	Caroline Kelly	NC
Kelly Davidson	GA	Claudette King	SC
Roderick Daye	NC	Horst Kurz	GA
Bertha Delgadillo	GA	Elizabeth Lawrence-Baez	SC

2021 Individual Sponsors

Whitney Martinez	GA	Kelly Scheetz	TN
Alexia Martinez-Behrend	FL	Carmen Scoggins	NC
Abril Martinez-Behrend	NC	Thomas Soth	NC
Susana Mayrides	SC	Kathleen Stein-Smith	NJ
Patricia McCoy	GA	Erika Stevens	TN
Michelle Olah	FL	Ken Stewart	NC
Jennifer Ouanzin	GA	Lou Tolosa-Casadont	GA
Dani Peterson	FL	Heidi Trude	VA
Lori Pierce	MS	Jon Valentine	GA
Lisa Podbilski	KY	Virin Vedder	GA
Cathy Potens-Alemu	SC	Linda Villadoniga	FL
Stacey Powell	AL	Bonnie Wang	NC
Delynda Ramirez-Carter	NC	Kim Watson	MS
Martha Rapio	SC	Heather West	AL
Amelia Richter	SC	Greg Williams	NC
Robbie Richwine	NC	John Wilson	GA
Sue Robertson	VA	Lisa Worthington-Groce	NC
Andrew Rosene	NC	Carolyn Wright	NC
Jhoanna Ruiz	SC	Maria Zimmerman	SC
Victoria Russell	FL		

2021 Patrons Representing Institutions and Organizations

SCFLTA, SC Jason Bagley	FLAVA, VA Dick Kuettner
SCOLT, NC Leslie Baldwin	Savannah Chatham County Public Schools, GA Mark Linsky
ACTFL, VA Howie Berman	Retired, VA Lynne McClendon
Retired, MD Herman Bostick	Stevens Learning Systems, OK Ralph Pohlmeier
AWLA, AL Jennifer Charles	Avant Assessment, OR Dawn Samples
Global Seal of Biliteracy, IL Linda Egnatz	ACTFL, VA Paul Sandrock
Ola High School, GA Randi Grammer	EF, GA Mike Shafer
Louisville Collegiate School, KY Jennifer Hoban	AATSP, AL Sheri Spaine Long
UNC Charlotte, NC Bobby Hobgood	Lexington Sch.District 1, SC Liza Speece
SCOLT, GA David Jahner	DeKalb County School District, GA Rhonda Wells
Heathwood Hall Episcopal School, SC Nadege Keller	

