DIMENSIONS 2024
Volume 59

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Co-Editors Paula Garrett-Rucks and Jason A. Kemp

Dimensions is the annual volume of peer-reviewed articles sponsored by the 2024 Joint Conference of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT), the Southeastern Association of Language Learning Technology (SEALLT), and the Foreign Language Association of Georgia (FLAG).

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ELEVATE
INNOVATE
CELEBRATE
SCOLT 2024

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Review and Acceptance Procedures SCOLT Dimensions

The procedures through which articles are reviewed and accepted for publication in Dimensions begin by the authors emailing manuscripts to the Editor-in-Chief at SCOLT at Dimension@SCOLT.org 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made: "accept as is," "request a second draft with minor revisions," "request a second draft with major revisions," or "do not publish."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-in-Chief of Dimensions 2024 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 conference proceeding under the name Dimension with the organization's inception in 1967, the journal has long been the official peer-reviewed journal of SCOLT that annually publishes national and international authors. Recognizing the plurality of dimensions of teaching and learning languages represented by authors in the journal, the Board voted to change the journal's name to Dimensions in 2023. Contributing authors' research findings and pedagogical implications are shared at the SCOLT conference opening ceremony with 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 for all publications from 2003 to present. SCOLT Dimensions 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 metric biannual reports indicate that Dimension(s) articles are being viewed or downloaded over 6,000 times a year. SCOLT Dimensions is dedicated to the advancement of the teaching and learning of world languages and cultures and warmly welcomes a wide readership.

2024 Editorial Board for SCOLT Dimensions

CALL FOR PAPERS

Dimensions 2025

Dimension is the official peer-refereed journal of SCOLT. The journal seeks to serve the professional interests of language instructors and researchers across a range of contexts and is dedicated to the advancement of the teaching and learning of world languages, particularly languages other than English.

The journal welcomes manuscripts that document the effectiveness of teaching strategies or address a wide variety of emerging issues of interest within the profession. Submissions that report empirical research and that have clear and significant implications for language teaching and learning will be prioritized, as will submissions received by July 1st, 2024.

Submissions guidelines can be found at:
http://www.scolt.org/index.php/publications/dimension

For additional information on manuscript submission or the publication process, please contact the Editor, Paula Garrett-Rucks at prucks@gsu.edu or Dimensions@SCOLT.org

Introduction

Bridging Language Education Fields

The Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) held its annual conference March 23-25, 2023 at the Mobile Convention Center and Renaissance Mobile Riverview Plaza Hotel in Mobile, Alabama in collaboration with the Southeastern Association of Language Learning Technology (SEALLT), the Alabama World Languages Association (AWLA). Starting as a conference proceeding publication with the organization's inception in 1967 under the title "the SCOLT *Dimension*," this journal has long been the organization's official double blinded, peer-reviewed journal. Recognizing the multiplicity of dimensions concerning the teaching and learning of languages represented by authors in the journal, the SCOLT Board voted to change the journal's name to SCOLT *Dimensions* in 2023. *Dimensions* remains dedicated to the advancement of the teaching and learning of world languages and cultures, specifically languages other than English.

Dimensions publishes national and international authors once a year, sharing their research findings and pedagogical implications with conference attendees and beyond. The journal 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 5,600 views and downloads of *Dimension(s)* publications during 2023. The innovative research from this year's volume by national and international authors is presented at the opening ceremony of the SCOLT 2024 conference, themed *Innovate, Elevate, Celebrate.* The articles in this special issue aimed at bridging language education fields and are sure to innovate, elevate, and celebrate languages teachers, students, and researchers attending the conference and beyond.

In this year's volume, there are seven articles that provide readers insight into bridging Language Education Fields. Specifically, the call for papers invited empirical research and innovations on bridging Bilingual, Dual Language, Heritage Language, and World Languages Education. These areas of language teaching and learning are often understood as separate disciplines with distinct pedagogies. The focus of this special issue is on the ways in which these language fields share knowledge, theories, and best teaching practices. Arguably, at the heart of each field there is a common goal to foster learners' ability to function across languages and cultures in spoken and written communications. Accordingly, this year's special issue received articles with insights and innovations from leaders in Language Education Fields starting with renowned researcher and advocate for Heritage Speakers, Dual Language Immersion, and World Languages Education, Dr. Kim Potowski, in the form of an interview that addresses her experiences and research findings across these fields. The next chapter comes from authors Michele Back and Manuela Wagner

who bring instructional insights from TESOL to World Languages Education. In the third chapter, authors Colleen Hamilton and Xiaoning Chen describe the ways in which a collaboration across university departments of TESOL and World Languages has brought innovation to teacher preparation of both fields to prepare for the increasingly real-world possibility of being called to teach across these traditionally separate disciplines in schools today. In the fourth chapter, authors Kelly F. Davidson and Karen Acosta provide insights on ways to create experiential learning with the use of film in language courses. Although this chapter focuses on asynchronous online World Language courses, the findings transcend language fields with transferable practices. The fifth chapter by Sara Fernández Cuenca targets differentiated instructional strategies and tasks needed for heritage Spanish speakers compared to second language (L2) Spanish learners, who are often combined in the same classroom despite their differing language learning needs. In the sixth chapter, authors Edris Brannen, Victoria Russell, and Krista Chambless examine the use of the target language reported by world language teachers from Georgia, which highlights a difference in pedagogical practices across disciplines—the emphasis on target language use in World Languages classrooms compared to translanguaging practices in TESOL. As editors, we hope readers consider this difference and the implications from the findings of this chapter for their own specific contexts of teaching languages, especially for Heritage Language Learners and Dual Language Immersion. In the concluding chapter, author Victoria Rodrigo presents findings from a study on the crucial elements to fostering successful reading with implications that transcend language fields and languages. Despite the intentional placement of manuscripts across this special issue, each chapter has its own merits and can be read individually, thus additional details are described below.

This year's volume begins with a chapter in which authors **Paula Garrett-Rucks** (Georgia State University) and **Jason A. Kemp** (WIDA, University of Wisconsin) interviewed renown researcher and advocate for Heritage Language Education (HLE), Dual Language Immersion (DLI), and World Languages Education (WLE), Kim Potowski (University of Illinois at Chicago) about her teaching experiences and research findings across these fields. With the ultimate goal of fostering multilingualism and a positive self-identity for all learners, Dr. Potowski provides a critical perspective on the ways in which languages are taught, assessed and valued. The authors present highlights from the interview concerning the scholarly bridges and disconnects across language fields and Dr. Potowski's suggestions on how to prepare future language educators to meet the linguistic and socioemotional needs of language learners.

In Chapter 2, authors **Michele Back** (University of Connecticut) and **Manuela Wagner** (University of Connecticut) offer insights into how pedagogical frameworks traditionally used in TESOL contexts can be harnessed by World Language (WL) educators to scaffold language learning and advocate for emergent multilingual language learners (EMLLs). In this position paper, the authors focus on three pedagogical frameworks–Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP), translanguaging, and multilingual ecology–and discuss how they have utilized these

frameworks with WL teachers and teacher candidates. The authors further offer suggestions for how these frameworks might be used effectively in WL classrooms to both scaffold language acquisition and foster a greater appreciation for and pride in multilingualism.

Next, in Chapter 3, authors **Colleen Hamilton** (National Louis University) and **Xiaoning Chen** (National Louis University) bridge the fields of English as a Second Language, Bilingual, and World Language teacher education through curricular innovation in methods coursework for future world language teachers with the example of the Chinese World Language teacher preparation at their university. They apply a language curricularization framework to analyze theoretical, ideological, political, and contextual factors underlying connections and distinctions across disciplinary borders and to guide collaboration within a language equity lens. Their work identifies the ways in which translanguaging approaches, a multilingual turn, and critical curricular analysis contribute to preparing critically conscious language educators.

In Chapter 4, **Kelly F. Davidson** (Valdosta State University) and **Karen Acosta** (Valdosta State University) report findings from their study on university student perceptions of an experiential learning sequence using films in Spanish and French at the intermediate level in an asynchronous online environment. Students in this study were required to watch a movie and complete activities related to language and culture learning goals, followed by an in-depth survey about the experience. Volunteer study participants expressed positive perceptions of the activities, finding them helpful in increasing interest and motivation, as well as in expanding their thinking and knowledge about course topics. These findings demonstrate the importance of experiential learning to build student-centered communities of language and culture learning in the asynchronous classroom, providing guidance and inspiration for online language teaching and learning.

In Chapter 5, author **Sara Fernández Cuenca** (Wake Forest University) reports findings from a study using a controlled instructional intervention to investigate if a subjunctive learning task is beneficial for heritage learners (HLs) in the same way it is for second language (L2) learners. Drawing from previous research that suggests explicit language instruction is more beneficial to L2 learners than their HL counterparts (Potowski et al., 2011; Torres, 2018), her study examines the type of task employed to measure learning gains in heritage and L2 learners after receiving language instruction.

In Chapter 6, authors **Edris Brannen** (Valdosta State University), **Victoria Russell** (Valdosta State University), and **Krista Chambless** (University of Alabama at Birmingham) report findings from a state-wide survey of Georgia World Language teachers regarding their delivery of instruction in the target language. Their study examined three factors that may play a part in World Language instructors' practices regarding target language use—teacher proficiency level, level of experience, and teacher foreign language anxiety. Their findings indicated that teachers' self-reported

levels of proficiency were not correlated with delivery of instruction in the target language; however, language anxiety and level of experience appeared to play a part in the participants' target language use in the classroom. The findings of this study have implications for pre- and in-service World Language teachers and administrators as well as for teacher education programs in Georgia and beyond.

In the final chapter, author **Victoria Rodrigo** (Georgia State University) examines the effect of comprehension and perceived text difficulty in promoting reading enjoyment and interest to read more among novice Spanish language learners practicing extensive and pleasure reading. Sixty-seven college students in their first semester of Spanish were asked to read a children-like story picture book in Spanish and were then given both a comprehension test and a brief perception questionnaire about how much they had enjoyed the story, how difficult they thought the reading had been, and whether they were interested in reading more. Descriptive and inferential statistical analyses show that (1) students' perception of the level of difficulty of a text align with their actual comprehension of the story, (2) the level of reading enjoyment is strongly related to how much the students understood and how difficult the text was perceived to be, and (3) reading enjoyment and interest to read more are highly correlated when novice learners find the text easy. The author discusses pedagogical implications that could be shared across language fields.

As co-editors for this special issue, we worked collaboratively with the Editorial Review Board in a double blind, peer-review process and would like to extend our gratitude to them for having shared their knowledge, and expertise reviewing the articles for *Dimensions* 2024. These individuals are leaders in the field, and we greatly appreciate their time and energy. On behalf of the editorial team, we believe that readers will find the articles in this edition informative and inspiring. Please be sure to thank: (1) attending authors for contributing their work to *Dimensions*, (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 *Dimensions* possible.

Co-editors,

Paula Garrett-Rucks (Georgia State University) and
Jason A. Kemp (WIDA, University of Wisconsin)

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Bridging Language Education Fields: An Interview with Kim Potowski

Paula Garrett-Rucks
Georgia State University

Jason A. Kemp
WIDA University of Wisconsin

Background

Broadly speaking, Language Education fields might share interest in the teaching and learning of languages, yet the target languages, target students, teaching approaches and ontological perspectives toward the reasons for language study differ vastly across World/Foreign Languages (WL/FL), Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), Bilingual Education (BE), Dual Language Immersion (DLI), and Heritage Language (HL) Education. Language Education also involves research to inform best teaching practices published in diverse journals across disciplines, creating subject specific terms, worldviews, and silos of knowledge.

Foreign Language (FL) teaching generally refers to the teaching of a nonnative language outside of the environment where it is commonly spoken. Although we tend to map languages onto discrete national boundaries, "languages do not lend themselves to precise categorization…and language minorities exist in countries that we strongly associate with a national language" (Rey Agudo, 2021, para 5). Accordingly, a change to the term *World Languages* (WL) as a field has emerged in the United States from a social justice turn to honor the many minoritized speakers of languages other than English spoken in the United States. WL Education, the typical focus of *Dimensions*, refers to the teaching and learning of languages other than English from around the world. Important issues in WL Education concern communication skills, cultural understanding, global competence, and technology integration promoting the interconnectedness of the world and preparing individuals for an increasingly globalized society (ACTFL, n.d.). The primary goal of WL Education is to develop students' proficiency in communicating in languages other than their native language. Yet considerations within the field of HL Education put to question the singular view of the terms *native language* and *native speaker*. Simply being born into a family that speaks a different language at home than the language of instruction at school does not make one a native speaker. If the home language is not maintained at school, the input declines and with time the school language often becomes the dominant language. HL learners are a population of students with diverse needs. Important issues in HL Education concern translanguaging, language variation, acquisition of new registers, linguistic insecurities, and identity (Carreira

et al., 2020). Native speakers (NSs) do not experience heritage speakers' affective issues—being questioned as a legitimate speaker or incomplete speaker of their home language or "not having a language that you can claim as your own" (Carreira et al., 2020, p. 8).

Ideally, speakers of home languages different from the language of instruction at school would be supported with BE to maintain the home language while developing the school language. Yet due to political reasons, the majority of U.S. BE programs were closed in the 1990s during the period of *English Only*. A rebranded form of BE emerged in the 2000s as DLI in which children learn school content through a language other than English for at least part of the school day. Although several studies have revealed that DLI programs have been effective at fostering bilingualism, academic success, and English learners' home language maintenance (Howard et al., 2018), there is growing concern over issues of equity and access to DLI programs and neoliberal discourses that frame language proficiency as a commodity (Davin et al., 2024). Despite criticism, research in Spanish/English two-way immersion contexts point to "higher grade point averages and increased enrollment in post-secondary education for this student group, compared to Latino peers participating in other types of educational programs such as transitional bilingual education and various forms of English-medium education" (Fortune, n.d. para. 5). When not provided a DLI option, speakers of languages other than English are placed in ESOL programs that do not provide support for language maintenance like BE and DLI. In the United States, the majority of speakers of languages other than English who enter ESOL programs transition into the school language with the cost of losing legitimacy as a speaker of their home language, despite research supporting the benefits of bilingualism. Despite criticism of the neoliberal discourse around DLI, research continues to support that proficiency in multiple languages "affirms multilingual identities and boosts students' confidence, which can have lifelong impacts on academic achievement, ethnic identity, and familial relationships" (Davin et al., 2024, p. 18).

Each of these aforementioned language programs have multiple subsets of pedagogical approaches and expected learning outcomes. For example, ESOL has *push in* and *pull out* programs; WLs have content and language integrated learning (CLIL) approaches, communicative approaches, and Foreign Language Exploratory (FLEX) programs, to name a few. Although there are many types of language education programs, it is not our intention to describe each in detail or to differentiate greatly between them. Instead, we seek to provide a perspective through which we can understand and positively engage with the promotion of plurilingualism and a multicultural society. For this reason, we sought out insight and expertise from an individual who is widely revered across language fields, particularly DLI, WLE, and HL Education, Dr. Kim Potowski.

Dr. Kim Potowski is a prominent scholar in the field of Spanish Linguistics, HL Education and BE. She holds a Ph.D. in Hispanic Linguistics from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign and is currently a professor in the Department of Hispanic and Italian Studies at the University of Illinois at Chicago (UIC). Potowski's research primarily focuses on Spanish in the United States, particularly the linguistic, educational, and sociocultural aspects of Spanish-speaking communities

in the country. She is known for her work on Spanish heritage language speakers, bilingualism, language policy, and language attitudes. One of Potowski's significant contributions to the field is her advocacy for the recognition and support of Spanish heritage language speakers in the U.S. educational system. She emphasizes the importance of valuing and preserving Spanish as a heritage language among bilingual communities, and she has conducted extensive research on the linguistic development and educational needs of heritage speakers. In addition to her academic work, Dr. Potowski is also engaged in community outreach and advocacy efforts aimed at promoting linguistic diversity and supporting Spanish-speaking communities in the United States. Overall, Dr. Kim Potowski is recognized as a leading expert in the field of Spanish linguistics and BE, and her research has had a significant impact on both academic scholarship and educational policy and practice.

An Interview with Dr. Kim Potowski

At the beginning of the year (2024), interviewers Jason Kemp and Paula Garrett-Rucks had the pleasure of meeting with Kim Potowski over Zoom in a video-recorded, semi-structured interview to discuss Language Education. Transcripts from the recording were slightly edited and organized in the following question and response structure.

Question 1: Please tell us about your research and areas of interest across language teaching and learning.

I found my research passion in the last class of my doctorate coursework, Classroom Language Learning. I'll never forget this child's face we saw in a video about a Canadian immersion program. There was a little blonde girl sitting there. She's a five-year old in a French immersion classroom, and she doesn't understand anything that's happening. The lights came on, and the angels sang! I was in a doctoral program for language acquisition, so dual language was perfect for me. You could say that is where I started. I then moved to Chicago in 1999 because there were no dual language schools in Urbana-Champaign at the time. I moved to study the second oldest dual language school in the nation. It was a wonderful, wonderful time. My research was mostly qualitative, an ethnographic study. I became a huge fan of dual language immersion and its potential.

After completing my doctorate degree, I was hired by the University of Illinois-Chicago, and I realized the kids from my study were now in eighth grade. I went back to the school for a follow up study and wrote a book about this research. I found myself in various positions at the University. For a couple of years, I directed our French and Spanish teacher education program, and then I became the director of our Heritage Language program which had existed well before I got there. I think it was formed in the 80s by Lucía Elías-Olivares who was a pioneer in the field. She had a deep commitment to Latinos and social justice. I was teaching in the area of Spanish heritage language, and the textbooks were very prescriptivist. They didn't have authentic texts. I started writing my own stuff, and then after a while, I thought, "Oh. I guess this could be a book." I sort of wrote the textbook that I wanted to exist.

I ended up landing on what I thought made the most sense for the heritage speakers I have here in Chicago where the majority are the children of immigrants. They were English Learners (ELs) when they were kids, typically speaking Spanish first. English began to be acquired when they entered school at the age of 5, 6, or 7. But clearly, you know the drill—English gets stronger than Spanish. They haven't had academic preparation in Spanish, and they've been bullied their whole lives. I've landed on the phrase *triple bullying*, the triple bullying that they experience.

> *Question 1a: Could you explain what you mean by the "triple bullying"*
> *of heritage speakers of Spanish?*

My sense is that kids from Spanish-speaking families growing up in the United States experience bullying from at least three sources, so I've just called it triple bullying. One source of bullying is hegemonic U.S. society. You don't have to be in this country for more than a minute to realize it's approximately 80% monolingual. A lot of people like it that way. In fact, no they don't; they wish it were 100% monolingual, right? I maintain a website (Potowski, n.d.) which I don't enjoy maintaining at all. It has cases of linguistic bullying from our hegemonic society. These messages are tied to xenophobia and racism, and they indicate that Spanish is not wanted here in the U.S.

Bullying angle number two is the space where you'd think heritage speakers of Spanish would be welcomed: Spanish language classes. So, I'm talking about Spanish teachers. I'm talking about La Academia norteamericana de la lengua española (ANLE), which has published several nasty little volumes. Some may think they're clever and cute or funny, which is what they argue, but the introduction to the first volume is something like: "You don't want to sound like Tarzan when you speak Spanish, do you?" Really?!? So, you think shaming people is going to have a positive effect? A colleague, Andrew Lynch, and I published a piece about it (Lynch & Potowski, 2014), and then it unleashed this big series of events that makes my students' jaws drop every year. They're like: "I can't believe they called you racist." So, that's the second source of bullying.

The third source of bullying is incredibly painful, as it comes from students' own families. It's the *no sabo kids* trend. I saw a mom on TikTok describe her son as a *no sabo kid*. She placed the Mexican flag above herself. She placed the American flag above her son and then made fun of his Spanish. My reaction is that nobody has control over the language they develop as a child. Now, I'm not wagging my finger at this mother saying she should have taught her son Spanish. No, what I am saying is, you really should refrain from shaming your son for a linguistic outcome that he had no control over. So, that is the third source of bullying. Thus, heritage speakers of Spanish experience these triple sources of bullying.

> *Question 1b: In what ways can you empower these Spanish Heritage*
> *Students?*

Well, they taught me a lot, and I still consider myself their student. At the time, there was a Spanish writing book with some grammar. We were going to do narratives, and then arguments, and I realized that these students had trouble writing a good thesis statement. That's what college is for and that's what it means to participate in a democracy. So, I decided that's what we're going to do—argument, argument, argument. I chose eight topics, such as, labor, gender, ethnolinguistic identity, and technology. Over the years, I've gotten the sense that students have enjoyed interacting with the materials. The best compliment I ever get is when they come back and say, "I was writing a paper in English for sociology or criminal justice," or whatever class, and they say, "I just write better now with the thesis and the arguments, and my conclusion." This contributes to social justice, because we know that even though a lot of Latino students might get into college, they graduate in lower numbers than hegemonic white students. So, yes, I want them to improve their Spanish obviously. However, if I have to choose between (1) being able to read like a writer and write like a reader and to dissect a text and see what makes it work and then produce their own text and to be able to influence policy and contribute to the betterment of their community, or (2) this is how you use the subjunctive more in a particular context, the choice is obvious; I prefer the former. But I also would like for students to bolster their confidence in an expressive range in Spanish. That's a current debate in the field and I have feelings about how the pendulum has swung.

But anyway, that's where I've landed professionally. I've done some work on Spanish in the United States, looking at the use of the subjunctive, code switching, the use of *so* versus *entonces* here in Chicago. Sometimes I hesitate to consider myself a sociolinguist, because I feel like people associate that with variation studies, and I don't really do that. I don't do statistics. I hire other people to do my statistics. I consider my strong suit to be that interpersonal, that ethnographic kind of research which I was sort of raised on academically and intellectually.

I've landed on another point in my career in which I take great interest in the preparation of future teachers of language, particularly Spanish. I used to teach a Heritage Language Teaching course, and I wrote a book in English with Sara Beaudrie and Cindy Ducar (Beaudrie et al., 2014) that I'm very proud of and I find it a tragedy that the publisher has just sort of let it languish. Now, I'm doing a brand-new book in Spanish about Spanish. I currently teach an online course for teachers who are going to work with heritage speakers, which is a completely different ball game with different goals and different rules. Unfortunately, far too many teacher prep programs do not address the needs of heritage speakers. In fact, I can tell you that in the state of Illinois there are 33 universities, last time I counted, that license high school Spanish teachers and my university is the only one to offer a full 16-week course on teaching heritage speakers. It is required for our undergraduate Spanish Majors as well as our teachers.

We attempted to create a teaching endorsement in heritage language teaching with the state Board of Education, but despite initial interest, it did not come to fruition. I think they saw it as a barrier due to the current acute teacher shortage, and I get that.

Although we don't want any more barriers during this huge shortage of teachers, I think there's value to be gained for high school principals who may have an 85% Latino population to discern which candidate might be best prepared. So, I haven't given up on the endorsement idea and hope to see it happen before I retire.

So yes, my research interest started with dual language education, which I still do. Yet social justice issues have always been at the center of my work, and I see a need to work with and for heritage speakers.

Question 2: Could you please talk about the scholarly disconnect that exists in language education fields in academia?

I understand why the silos in academia happen. Some of my colleagues in World Languages are not very familiar with what's happening in Dual Language Education. We don't go downstairs or across the street often enough to work with and learn from colleagues working in slightly different, yet adjacent areas. For example, if you're teaching and researching Spanish in the United States, that is a de facto Latinx issue, right? I have two courtesy appointments: one in Curriculum & Instruction and one in Latin American/Latino Studies, so I try my best to work across fields. I think more robust joint appointments would be wonderful.

Sometimes I go to dual language conferences like La Cosecha, and it seems to me people are starving for knowledge about U.S. Spanish, code switching, and features of U.S. Spanish. Whereas a lot of us in Heritage Language circles have come to understand particular uses of the subjunctive, prepositions, or the gerund, dual language people sometimes seem surprised with the acceptance of varieties of Spanish. For example, in my own work, there was a DLI teacher from Mexico telling this Puerto Rican kid that *china* was not the correct word for *naranja*.

So, there's a big disconnect. I don't want to speak too strongly about this because I wouldn't center myself in Dual Language Education as my field, but this is my sense from people I've spoken with during conferences. There aren't very many dual language teacher education programs in Chicago. I believe there is only one at Roosevelt University–this is the only local program that prepares dual language teachers. These DL teachers are like magicians! Imagine you're a third-grade teacher teaching a science lesson on volcanoes. Half the kids are learning English, and half the kids are learning Spanish, and they all have to take a test at the end of the unit. Let's not knock the teachers! A lot of them are so marvelous, but they could really use some support. So, that's just one area in which I feel like I have something to offer.

And do U.S. world language teachers have the right ideas about language varieties? Do they understand what U.S. Spanish looks like, and ways to react to it if your goal is to empower students? All students educated in the United States learn, for example, that you can't write ain't in your schoolwork, not because it's wrong, although they're probably told that it's wrong and incorrect. They learn about register in English, but they don't learn about register in Spanish. Then the teachers tell them their Spanish

is wrong or incorrect. I'll never forget a time when I was teaching in Urbana-Champaign and corrected a student writing about what he did on the weekend. He wrote *nomás* in his essay which I crossed out and wrote *solamente*. If I saw him today, I would apologize! So, what is a dialect? What is a register? Dual language teachers often tell me they would really benefit from a deeper understanding of U.S. varieties of Spanish. So, there's one disconnect.

Question 3: In what ways do you envision bridging language fields?

It's curious to me that kids are called English learners up until they're a certain age, and then when we get them, we call them heritage learners. There's nothing wrong with the different labels, as we're coming from different perspectives, but it would be great if we could communicate with each other a little better so that we could think about K-16 learners. If we did, we could then ask, "How are we working together to develop strong bilingual language skills, a strong sense of identity, and a good sense of linguistic justice?" What's the K through 16 trajectory for these students? I think that approach would be better.

A great example is the work of Mike Peto (Peto, 2018) who argues very strongly against the whole class novel, like all students reading *The House on Mango Street*, at the same time. Some kids are behind. Some kids are ahead. So, he's all about free voluntary reading. He's able to take students who would hold a book upside down during silent reading time and turn them into actual readers. Mike describes how to display books–don't have just the spines out. You've got to show the covers of the books. He tells you where to go and what to look for to put on the shelves. He teaches students how to browse books. So, his goal, which I consider akin to mine, like I said earlier, is that I want my college students to become critical thinkers and writers. His goal is to get his high school students to become lifelong readers. And when you read his work, you're going to get goosebumps. He's able to convert the most recalcitrant learners into readers. He has a wonderful collection. It's now in its second or third edition. It's a big, fat book written by and for language teachers.

Also, Adrienne Brandenburg (Brandenburg, 2018) has a wonderful chapter about how she realized she's a language arts teacher. This is another example of connecting fields. Adrienne argues in her chapter quite convincingly that Spanish high school teachers who are working with heritage speakers might seek out permission and funding from their departments to attend the same conferences as English Language Arts teachers. Ideally, you can get your high school heritage kids to be doing English language arts and Spanish language arts. That's the main argument now in the Heritage Language field, or at least it's mine, and I subscribe to it. Spanish classes for heritage speakers of a particular level proficiency and higher should look more like the English high school classes. But it can't look a hundred percent like you went down to Peru and grabbed their textbooks to use in the United States. You have to do some sort of L2ish support in there, and the amount of support you're going to provide will depend on the proficiencies of your students. These kinds of things are just not being taught in our teacher prep programs, which is why

Adrienne is advocating for more collaboration with English teacher colleagues and their professional organizations. I suggest you find out what your heritage speaking students are working on in their English language arts class. If possible, you could then cover the same material in your Spanish class. This could be particularly helpful for students who are new arrivals who might be struggling with English.

There's no reason why we should be 14-15 years old when we're first starting to learn a new language. Greater access to dual language immersion programs could correct this late start to language learning. Yet our heritage language colleagues aren't talking about dual language immersion. During a presentation at the National Heritage Language Resource Center's conference in 2014, I said: "Y'all need to be advocating for dual language programs in your 'copious' spare time. Your research is valid, and you should keep doing it. I'm not saying you all need to jump ship and come over to dual language, but please be aware of the benefits of dual language immersion. Please take any opportunity to support it because if we had dual language programs for every single child, we'd be out of a job." I said this last part as a joke to get people thinking. If students came into high school and college language classes with a higher level and greater linguistic self-esteem, then we really could take them further.

Question 4: What obstacles do you see to bridging language fields?

Well, this is just my perspective, however, at a conference I once said something in public to Guadalupe Valdés that might not be well received. I said that I think opponents of dual language are throwing out the baby with the bathwater, and that's how I would sum up the whole thing. Yes, there has been a gentrification in DLI programs. I saw it at the school where I collected data for my dissertation. The school was founded for the empowerment of Latino kids. They couldn't get white people to put their kids in that school when it opened in 1975. And then, when it became a very successful school, wealthier Anglophone families and even Latino families who had lost their Spanish began to use their social capital to get their kids in the building. In fact, my kids attended this school for two years. We then moved to Mexico for a year, and my kids didn't get back into the school via the lottery. They enrolled in the neighborhood school where 85% of the student population was Latino, and this was the best thing that could have happened to us. The discourse at the other school was *bougie*, while the parents at our neighborhood school focused on their children's safety and wellbeing. Also, the Spanish environment was richer—everyone was speaking Spanish. I think that might help us understand a bit about the debate, the current state of the field. Too many schools are ending up like the above example.

Question 4a: How can we work to prevent gentrification of DLI schools?

Yes, let's fight against that, but again, you are throwing out the baby with the bathwater if the only thing you publish are critiques of dual language. During an open mic session at La Cosecha, I went up to a guy who was critiquing dual language and told him that I get it. This is important. I'm glad you're doing this work and calling out what needs to be called out and stopped. But if that's the loudest thing we're

hearing yelled from the rooftops, then I'm not sure we're doing all of the children in the United States a service. I really don't. We need to present a more united front. In the case of dual language immersion, we need people on the ground working to get *all* children enrolled in high-quality dual language programs and improving teacher prep programs so that teachers' language skills are more robust, and they feel more confident teaching in both languages. I used to rail against the railers, but I've realized that it is more important that we focus on goals and outcomes. However, I do worry that if the upper echelons in education only hear critiques of dual language immersion, then they will think that our field is divided, and then funding will end.

The title of my little TED Talk was "No Child Left Monolingual" (Potowski, 2014). No child left monolingual really means, no child should graduate from high school monolingual, right? That's not just a pitch to Anglophones, it is also true for children and grandchildren of immigrants. They should keep their languages, and the other students should learn a language. We live in an imperfect capitalist society, and education programs like dual language immersion are not exempt from the problems associated with capitalism. However, dual language is a wonderful model that is better than anything else out there. We need constructive criticism of dual language–not calls for the elimination of all dual language programs. No system works exactly the way it was designed to work. Maybe if we had more dual language programs, flawed as they are, might that not contribute to dismantling some of our problems? When somebody comes through a Spanish-English dual immersion program, they've learned alongside Latinos their whole life. So, for example, if they grow up and become a police officer, they may be more sensitive to certain things and less likely to target people from other cultures. So, even in an unfair society, it's still the best program type we have.

> *Question 4b: What other obstacles do you see to bridging language fields? (Language varieties)*

I would like to mention something I feel is contentious in the field. It is the way we talk about and therefore work within the classroom—students' language varieties. Okay? So, here's the pendulum. Back in the day it was: "Nope, there is one correct way to speak Spanish, and you don't speak it. Therefore, I've got to kill all that stuff and replace it with the 'good' stuff." I'm glad the pendulum has swung, but I think it has swung too far. What I'm getting from critical pedagogy scholars is everything that falls out of a face is a community variety of Spanish. Now, some language features represent community varieties, and they form part of U.S. Spanish. I feel confident saying that because I was a reader for Advanced Placement (AP) Language exams. I have read and heard bazillions of responses from high school Latinos–67% of kids who take the Spanish AP language and culture exam are heritage speakers. Plus, I've been working with heritage speakers for 24 years at the University of Illinois-Chicago. I kind of have my ear to the ground. I know how Spanish sounds in several parts of the United States–not all parts. For example, I know the gerund in subject position is U.S. Spanish. Okay, *Caminando todos los días es bueno para la salud* that use of a gerund is U.S. Spanish–period. I tried for a while to get students to change

to using the infinitive, and then I stopped. First, it's not that stigmatized. Second, I understand what a student is communicating when they use this structure or feature. No sociolinguist worth their salt would argue against this use of the gerund as a community variety.

> *Question 4c: What other obstacles do you see to bridging language fields? (Proficiency)*

I feel people are afraid to use the word proficiency. I don't want the outcome of the application of the concept of proficiency to result in dividing students in a classroom in groups of high or low proficiency. I don't agree with that set up, but I will say the following: I think that this pendulum swing has resulted in people being afraid or loathe to talk about proficiency. Yet, proficiency is a real thing. I have zero proficiency in Japanese. I think we can all agree that a woman my age, raised in Tokyo will have proficiency in Japanese. Okay, that's not controversial. Furthermore, I think it's not controversial to say that there are points in between me and her–that's kind of obvious, right? So, why are we afraid to say that this heritage speaker has a more robust Spanish system than this heritage speaker? It's a real thing. Now, I know you can't operationalize it, but that doesn't mean that you get to say that everything is a community variety and that all students have the same level of proficiency in Spanish.

I talked about this at the Hispanic Linguistics Symposium in Provo in October. I used some examples of U.S. Spanish from different sources. And I said: "What do we lose and gain by determining what is and isn't a community variety? What evidence do you have that it is a community variety? And even if we can't agree on what constitutes evidence that it is or it is not, what do we lose and what do we gain by that?"

Question 5: What can you tell us about the current state of U.S. Spanish?

Great question! I'll answer that question by providing some background on language varieties. I'd like to point out that a prestigious variety exists in every community. There's prestigious Spanish in Chile. There's prestigious Spanish in Mexico. The more prestigious the variety–the more they have in common. So, if I attend a public lecture at a university in Ireland, I will probably understand 90% of it. However, if I go to the pub afterwards, I'm going to feel like I do when I watch *Derry Girls*. I have to turn on the closed captions, but that is still English.

But I want to make it clear that the fact that other people can't understand you is not, in my opinion, reason enough for you to change the way you speak. I call the area in the back of a car a trunk, and somebody in England would probably call it a boot. I don't have to say boot. Nobody in my whole life ever said, "Kim, you really ought to say boot, so they'll understand you in England." I'm not in England. If I go there, maybe I'll start to change the way I speak, but I don't have to while I'm here. Heritage speakers can say whatever they want because they're here. But I've heard teachers contradict this perspective by arguing for the importance of comprehension. As we

all know, comprehension is a two-way street. Somebody has to be willing to take on the communicative burden. I don't write to the creators of *Derry Girls* and say: "I need you to change the way you speak because I don't understand." We have another issue with U.S. Spanish, but let me give the example of African-American English (AAE). I can understand speakers of AAE. It is rule-governed, and we know some features or aspects of AAE are more sophisticated than what Rosina Lippi-Green calls mainstream English. Nonetheless, AAE is still considered to be bad or wrong in many schools. This type of awareness takes an entire semester to change my undergraduates' minds!

Yet a big difference between AAE and U.S. Spanish is that U.S. Spanish is being lost. AAE and Irish English, among others, are all stable varieties. If it's a stable variety, that's when I say let people talk how they talk. I don't care if you understand or not. Heritage Spanish is being lost. It still deserves respect, but we have to acknowledge that it isn't a stable variety. I don't have the answer, but I question researchers and educators who ignore the decrease in proficiency. Yes, I call it a decrease in proficiency, as more and more speakers struggle to communicate their ideas in Spanish. It feels like we're just looking the other way when instead, we should be ringing alarm bells and finding ways to bolster U.S. Spanish. I don't think we're doing students any service by calling everything a community variety and then not discussing any further. I'm not going to describe students' community varieties as errors. I'm not going to make students do drills. I'm not going to make them feel bad about their Spanish.

What I want to do is bolster students' Spanish to a point that they've increased their proficiency. Strong bilinguals have 64 crayons in their box while some students have eight crayons. The eight crayons they have are lovely and wonderful, but they can't do a lot with them, and every year they lose another one. The children of current college students might have no crayons in their Spanish box. This is what concerns me. I want current and future speakers of U.S. Spanish to be able to draw the whole rainbow.

Question 6: What heritage language resources or advice do you recommend including in teacher education programs?

One of the best resources is the online workshop created by the National Heritage Language Resource Center (NHLRC, n.d.). The workshop can be incorporated into an undergraduate or graduate course, or educators across all levels of instruction can participate in the workshop. The NHLRC workshop is divided into eight self-paced modules. The workshop is relevant for all heritage languages, not just Spanish. The modules are a wonderful resource. The videos in the lessons feature María Carreira, and they are interactive. The modules address both the linguistic and affective needs of heritage learners. Some of the module topics are differentiated instruction, project-based learning, and teaching mixed HL-L2 classes. The workshop is affordable, and there is an option that will give you feedback from NHLRC instructors.

Also, it is important to privilege and center Latinx experiences. I have a number of

textbooks, and I donate all the proceeds from those textbooks. Authors get 10% of the sale price. I take my little 10% and put it in a fund. I use it for different things such as supporting heritage speaker students' participation in our Oaxaca Study Abroad program. I fund three scholarships on my campus—one is for an essay written in the Heritage Speaker program; one is for an essay written by a heritage speaker in an advanced course; and one little scholarship is for any Latino undergrad who applies to our graduate program in Hispanic linguistics. We need more Latinos in linguistics, right?

I have a blog post called *Owning up: When you make your living off a language that was denied to its speakers* (Potowski, n.d.). Many heritage speakers experience the triple bullying we talked about, and then become adults who don't think they can do what I do. We need to think carefully about our positionality and power and do our best to empower students and their families. I want to use my position to help more parents understand that their kids' English language development won't be slowed down or delayed if you enroll them in a dual immersion program. It's unfortunate that our language assessment practices scare parents. Yes, test scores in English might be lower in the short term, but we have to be thinking about long term language acquisition and maintenance goals.

The current approach to testing was designed for monolingual development. What if our approach to language testing was "How bilingual are you?" A lot of families would suddenly be in favor of dual language programs. I don't aim to pressure anyone or make them feel bad about themselves. I want us to prioritize the development of a healthy sense of identity and strong bilingual skills. If our testing policies didn't make people so scared, maybe we'd have more dual language immersion programs in schools.

Lastly, as L2 learners, we have to be good listeners. We have to work together, as we all have a role to play. That said, we have to be very careful to make sure marginalized and minoritized voices are included and amplified in these conversations and discussions of just and equitable language education practices.

Concluding Remarks

Our initial intention to interview Dr. Kim Potowski was to seek a better understanding of the bridges between the fields of World/Foreign Languages, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages, Bilingual Education, Dual Language Immersion, and Heritage Language Education concerning intersections of epistemological perspectives and best teaching practices. Ultimately, Potowski underscored the common goal across language fields; our commitment to teach students how to communicate and develop relationships with other people, both within and across cultures and to actively support and advocate for marginalized individuals or communities.

Dr. Kim Potowski ended her interview reminding us to work together and to advocate for and amplify the marginalized and minoritized voices in conversations of just and equitable practices. Allies recognize their privilege and use it to challenge injustice while working towards creating a more equitable and inclusive society, particularly those who face systemic discrimination or oppression based on factors such as race, gender, sexual orientation, religion, disability, socioeconomic status, and preferred use of language. Several prominent figures from various fields have put forth calls for allies and spoken about the importance of allyship in advancing social justice and equity. Angela Davis, the activist, scholar, and author has emphasized the need for solidarity and intersectional allyship in challenging systems of oppression including racism, sexism, and capitalism. Malala Yousafza, the Pakistani activist for female education and the youngest Nobel Prize laureate has called for allies to support girls' education and equality worldwide. John Lewis, the late civil rights leader and U.S. Congressman often spoke about the importance of allies in the struggle for racial justice and encouraged people of all backgrounds to join together in the fight for equality. Dr. Bettina Love, education scholar and advocate for equitable education purports that education should not merely transmit knowledge but empower students to critically engage with the world, challenge injustice, and advocate for systemic change.

With Dr. Kim Potowski, these are just a few examples of individuals who have championed allyship in various contexts. Their calls for solidarity and collective action highlight the importance of working together across differences to create a more just and equitable world. They remind us of some key aspects of being an ally; (1) Listening and Learning: Allies listen to the experiences and perspectives of marginalized individuals without invalidating or dismissing them. They educate themselves about systemic inequalities and the historical context of oppression; (2) Amplifying Marginalized Voices: Allies use their platform and privilege to amplify the voices and concerns of marginalized groups, rather than speaking over them or taking credit for their work; (3) Taking Action: Allies take concrete actions to support marginalized communities, whether it's attending protests, signing petitions, donating to relevant causes, or advocating for policy changes; (4) Challenging Discrimination: Allies speak out against discrimination, prejudice, and microaggressions when they witness them, whether in personal interactions or institutional settings. They actively work to create inclusive spaces where everyone feels welcome and respected; (5) Self-Reflection and Growth: Allies engage in ongoing self-reflection and growth, acknowledging that they may make mistakes or inadvertently perpetuate harm despite their best intentions. They are open to feedback and commit to continuously learning and improving their allyship.

Ultimately, being an ally is about recognizing the humanity and dignity of all individuals, regardless of their background or identity, and actively working towards dismantling systems of oppression and promoting justice and equality for all. Although it was not our initial intention when putting forth a special issue on bridging language education fields, our interview with Dr. Kim Potowski has helped us identify a shared goal across language education fields: allyship. Finally, for an

analysis of allyship and the ways in which it can shift into a more robust system of support called co-conspiracy, please see Love (2019) and Love et al. (2019) for an engaging discussion of these concepts.

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2

Bridging the Artificial Gap: TESOL Frameworks for World Language Education and Advocacy

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Abstract

In this position paper we present research and data demonstrating how pedagogical frameworks traditionally used in TESOL contexts can be harnessed by world language (WL) educators to scaffold language learning and advocate for emergent multilingual language learners (EMLLs). Focusing on three pedagogical frameworks–Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP), translanguaging, and multilingual ecology– we discuss how we have utilized these frameworks with WL teachers and teacher candidates and offer suggestions for how they might be used effectively in WL classrooms to both scaffold language acquisition and foster a greater appreciation for and pride in multilingualism.

Keywords: Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP), emergent multilingual language learners (EMLL), high-leverage teaching practices (HLTPs), world language teachers

Introduction

We begin this paper with a vignette from previous research on translanguaging pedagogies in a rural school district (Back, 2020) to emphasize the potential power of world language learning for EMLLs.

> *Sara is a fourth-grade emergent multilingual learner (EMLL) from Syria whose home language is Arabic. Normally active and chatty, Sara often becomes distracted and unfocused during whole-class instruction, possibly because she does not yet have the proficiency in English to follow the teacher's detailed directions. However, Sara's level of engagement increases daily at 2:30, when her Spanish teacher enters the classroom, rolling in an enormous bulletin board filled with colorful images and words. Perhaps Sara notices that her monolingual English-speaking classmates become language learners like her, or maybe she has noticed the similarities between Arabic and Spanish in many vocabulary words. Whatever the reason, during Spanish class her attention is laser-focused on the teacher and her hand is always in the air, showing a marked difference in behavior from her classwork in English.*

Sara's reactions to her Spanish class illustrates how world language (WL) educators, by virtue of their subject matter, can help ensure the academic success of all emergent multilingual learners (EMLLs, also known as ELLs). As our schools and communities become more linguistically and culturally diverse (Kubanyiova & Crookes, 2016), WL educators have the potential to become important leaders, often in unexpected ways. Our knowledge of second language acquisition theory and practice make us well-positioned to act as advocates for all language learners, especially given that most teachers of other content areas do not receive this training (García, 2015; Salazar, 2013). Moreover, many WL educators speak the home language of EMLLs in their communities. Given these qualities, "world language teachers inhabit a unique role in which they are tasked with amplifying multilingualism, including their students' existing linguistic repertoires, in a space where English monolingualism holds power," such as classrooms in the U.S. and elsewhere (Davis & Howlett, 2022, p. 1). Similarly, Oxford (2010) argued, "Teachers of second languages should be unified in their role as language advocates" (p. 302).

However, a number of factors can limit the positive impact WL educators can have in schools. For example, unchallenged and unreflected language ideologies can create situations in which WL education promotes stereotypes rather than deconstructing them (for a review of language ideologies, see Curdt-Christiansen & Weninger, 2015). For example, in many U.S. contexts, WLs are taught as something that exists outside of the country, when in fact many languages are represented in the United States (Osborn, 2006). Textbooks play another role in promoting ideologies and stereotypes that can be harmful. For example, Padilla and Vana (2019) found the ideology of *global Spanish* indicated a lack of emphasis on sociolinguistic varieties of the language in the Spanish textbooks they analyzed. In interviews, instructors also agreed that the notes for instructors, while sometimes helpful for teaching, were also often problematic, as they "overgeneralized and marginalized instances of speakers, cultures and customs of different Spanish-speaking locales" (Padilla & Vana, 2019, p. 19).

Another challenge is that few WL educators are trained in ESL-specific protocols, such as sheltered instruction, and most have not had extensive experiences with EMLLs (Dobbs et al., 2022). Additionally, WL education and the education of EMLLs are often considered differently, in our opinion, wrongfully so. This difference is not only assumed by school administrators, but also by language educators and students, as evidenced by the frequent separation of departments teaching a *foreign language* and those teaching English to EMLLs (Davis, 1999). The separation is further reinforced in academic research, with scholars such as Davies (2008) arguing that TESOL is distinct from "other second-language teaching operations" due to its global spread (p. 298). Similarly, Silberstein (2008) stated that "English is not simply another world language," and required an additional critical approach due to its prestige (p. 301).

These arguments, by ignoring the existence of critical approaches in WL education (e.g., Kubota & Austin, 2007; Leeman, 2005; Osborn, 2002, 2006; Serafini, 2021) are further testament to the artificial separation of our two disciplines. It is important to note that we do not minimize the specific qualifications required to teach languages in differing contexts. What we are opposed to is the misguided and

harmful hierarchy that the separation often implies. Moreover, despite this perceived separation, in practice WL educators are frequently asked to serve as informal ESL coordinators, especially in smaller districts where a designated coordinator position might not exist (Davis & Howlett, 2022). Thrust into these roles, WL educators may find it a challenge to navigate the duties of their regular WL classes against the district demands to assess and assist EMLLs, especially if they have not considered how their education and experiences can position them as advocates for these learners. When WL educators do not speak the home language of the school's EMLLs, these challenges can seem even more daunting.

In this position paper we share insights from previous research in support of the view that educators in WLs and other disciplines ought to work together to empower all language learners. With the right preparation and mindset, WL educators can make important contributions to supporting and advocating for EMLLs, while also modeling the value of linguistic diversity to our more *traditional* populations of English home language students. Given the increasing numbers of EMLLs in our schools, the leadership of WL educators can help not only language learners, but the school community as a whole. We use examples from our own educational practices to highlight three frameworks that have traditionally been discussed in TESOL contexts: the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) (Echevarria et al., 2004), translanguaging (García & Li Wei, 2014), and multilingual ecology (García & Menken, 2015). We outline how WL educators can harness these research-supported strategies to support, advocate for, and empower all learners in their schools.

Literature review: World language educators and EMLLs

Perhaps due to the artificial separation of WL and TESOL education described previously, limited research exists on how WL educators have bridged this gap. A recent article by Davis and Howlett (2022) examined how WL educators in a U.S. secondary school used their agency to advocate for EMLLs by promoting their school's Seal of Biliteracy program. Recognizing the line between WL educators and educators of EMLLs as "socially constructed," (p. 3), the authors noted that "the [WL] teachers' voluntary engagement in joining and expanding the [Seal of Biliteracy] program was a clear indicator of their efforts toward multilingual advocacy" (p. 2). While this study focused on advocating for the Seal of Biliteracy for EMLLs, rather than pedagogies such as SIOP or translanguaging, it is important to note that these educators "fulfilled their advocacy through building bridges with students, families, and themselves, pushing their students to get involved, becoming rooted in and leveraging their school administrations, and working collectively with colleagues and community members," all of which are essential components of any sort of advocacy for EMLLs (p. 7).

Dobbs et al. (2022) examined potential solutions to what King and Bigelow (2017) have termed the "language opportunity gap" for EMLLs through a self-study of teacher educators of WL teacher candidates. In their attempts to prepare these candidates to teach EMLLs, their desire was to have their teacher candidates "envision WL classrooms as linguistically diverse spaces" (p. 239). These desires were hampered by the teacher educators' own lack of training in this area, as well as limited recognition from WL teacher candidates that EMLLs would even be present in their

future classrooms. Moreover, the teacher educators themselves were conflicted about the efficacy of Sheltered English Instruction (SEI) pedagogies (one of which we discuss later), while WL teacher candidates felt that "the target language (whether English or another language) pedagogy is going to be highly effective for all students" (p. 241). This disconnect is an example of how some TESOL pedagogies can be taken up without question by some WL teacher candidates but may be problematic for other teachers or teacher educators who advocate for a more multilingual approach to language education.

While these two articles are the only recent empirical studies that we were able to find about bridging the gap between TESOL and WL education, several position papers (García & Davis-Wiley, 2015; Kubanyiova & Crookes, 2016; Kubota & Austin, 2007) also recognize the increasing multilingualism of today's WL classrooms and recommend substantial changes to the monolingual ideologies and pedagogies that currently comprise WL education. As seen in the articles outlined previously, bridging this gap takes a concerted effort and, in some cases such as the incorporation of SEI pedagogies, requires a critical approach and extensive reflection on how to continue promoting multilingualism. In the following sections we discuss how we have used TESOL pedagogies to help our WL teachers and teacher candidates better advocate for EMLLs both in and outside the WL classroom.

Strategy 1: Using SIOP for Lesson Planning and Delivery

WL educators have a wealth of knowledge and experience that they can use to support EMLLs. However, we know from experience that it is important to reflect critically on what we already know and where we might need to learn more to best support all language learners. An example of a set of principles that are helpful to support EMLLs is the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) (Echevarria et al., 2004). Many of the instructional components of sheltered instruction are already used in WL classrooms, while others can easily be adapted by educators who have language teaching and learning knowledge.

The first component of SIOP, "lesson preparation," contains six features, many of which WL educators already apply to their teaching. For example, "clearly defined content objectives" (f.1) and "language objectives" (f. 2) are helpful for students in all classrooms. WL educators also use "appropriate content concepts" for the age and educational background levels of their students (f. 3) and certainly are champions in using "supplementary materials" to make lessons clear and meaningful (f. 4), as illustrated by the Spanish teacher's colorful bulletin board in our introductory vignette. WL educators know how to "adapt content" to various levels of student proficiency (f. 5) and plan and implement "meaningful activities that integrate lesson concepts with language practice opportunities" (f. 6). Similarly, WL educators also know how to "build background" (Component 2) by "linking concepts explicitly to students' background experiences" (f. 7), "linking past and new concepts" (f. 8), and, especially, by "emphasizing key vocabulary" (f. 9). As seen in the table below, these and other SIOP protocols overlap productively with the standards and practices already well known to most language educators, mainly ACTFL/CAEP and high-leverage teaching practices (HLTPs).

Table 1

Crosswalk for SIOP Protocols, ACTFL/CAEP Standards, and WL HLTPs

SIOP Protocol	ACTFL/CAEP Standard	HLTP
Clearly define content objectives Clearly define language objectives	Candidates can effectively plan classroom-based instruction	Design lessons and tasks that have functional goals, to include specifying clearly the language and activities needed to support and meet the communicative objective.
Provide frequent opportunities for interaction and discussion Integrate all language skills into each lesson	Integration of standards in planning, classroom practice, and use of instructional resources	Design and carry out interpersonal communication tasks for pair, small groups, and whole class instruction.
Provide meaningful and authentic activities that integrate lesson concepts with language practice opportunities Integrate all language skills into each lesson	Integration of standards in planning, classroom practice, and use of instructional resources	Design and carry out interactive reading and listening comprehension tasks using authentic cultural texts of various kinds with appropriate scaffolding and follow-up tasks that promote interpretation.
Regularly give feedback to students on their output Conduct assessment of student comprehension and learning	Assessment of languages and cultures – impact on student learning	Provide appropriate feedback in speech and writing on various learning tasks.

While we have only looked briefly at two of the eight components and nine of the 30 SIOP features, we assure WL educators that the remaining SIOP components (comprehensible input strategies; scaffolding techniques; interaction; practical application; lesson delivery; and review/assessment) are equally relevant and important to WL education. Both of us have used SIOP with pre-service WL educators, who have found it very helpful in their lesson planning, implementation, and assessment. It is important to note that language educators at first often feel

that SIOP does not pertain to WL education. We want to emphasize that SIOP is not only useful for language educators, but it also provides an excellent opportunity for WL educators to be mentors for their colleagues in promoting research-based practices that support language development. Moreover, given that, as Dobbs et al. (2022) have noted, "the opportunity to further develop language skills through the school curriculum is typically limited to learning English" (p. 237), WL instructors can model how these skills can be developed in other languages.

Strategy 2: Using Translanguaging for Linguistic and Cultural Comparisons

The notion of translanguaging has gained much ground recently in both TESOL and bilingual education. As an asset-based practice enabling multilingual learners to draw from their full linguistic repertoire to make meaning, translanguaging has been conceived of simultaneously as a normal practice for multilinguals, a pedagogy, and a theory (Cinaglia & De Costa, 2022; García & Li Wei, 2014). Translanguaging allows EMLLs to use their home language in the classroom to help their acquisition of English. By using their home language, students can reflect more carefully on the differences and similarities between their language and English and master complex academic content more easily.

Although translanguaging has been positioned as a viable practice for emergent multilinguals learning English, it is often viewed as less viable in U.S. WL classrooms, where concerns about maximizing target language use may conflict with encouraging the use of a student's entire linguistic repertoire in the WL classroom. We would argue that, rather than reducing their exposure to the target language, translanguaging, if used intentionally and thoughtfully, enhances students' curiosity of and preparation for the content in the target language. Moreover, translanguaging has close ties with ACTFL's Comparisons Standard, which encourages students to reflect on the similarities and differences between the students' home languages and the target language. Strategic use of translanguaging might even benefit students whose first language is English; one participant in Seltzer (2022), describing how her Spanish teacher did not allow students to ask questions or discuss problems in English, stated, "I can hardly remember anything that I learned in those last two years of Spanish because I was never able to solidify that information in my native language" (p. 120). Observations such as these suggest a potential role for translanguaging as an important scaffold for acquiring additional languages.

Most importantly, translanguaging has a significant equity component for both EMLLs and language teachers. Lee and Canagarajah (2019) discussed how practices such as translanguaging promote "an orientation towards language diversity and difference from a nondeficit perspective," which can help language teachers move beyond the beliefs surrounding native and nonnative teachers that have permeated much of the field (p. 352). Seltzer (2022), in her study of preservice and in-service teachers, demonstrated that, as educators engaged in conversations about translanguaging, "they explicitly problematized monolingual ideology within their own teaching practice as well as within the broader educational system" (p. 129). Thus, by encouraging the use of translanguaging, WL teachers demonstrate to students that their home languages are valued and that they are supported in developing these aspects of their identities, while also contributing to creating a

culture of appreciating all languages and cultures, rather than supporting the notion of language hierarchies.

In terms of strategies for promoting translanguaging, many WL educators have collections of books, magazines, and other resources in the languages they teach that can be shared with EMLLs. Streamlining textual resources to fit with other content areas also benefits WL classrooms by reinforcing ACTFLs Connections Standard; that is, content in both languages allows students to make connections more easily between WLs and other disciplines. WL educators can also access a wealth of online resources, including authentic videos, dictionaries, and websites from target language cultures, which can be used to further scaffold EMLLs' acquisition of content knowledge. In WL education, teachers can provide opportunities to students to further investigate topics of interest to students in any language they want to use. This could partially be done outside the regular classroom time. When students return with information about the topic, the teacher can assist them in sharing this information in the target language.

In addition to resources, WL educators, using their knowledge of the target language and culture(s), can facilitate comparisons between the EMLLs' home languages, English, and the target language. Celic and Seltzer (2013) provided an extensive series of translanguaging strategies that can be used in the WL classroom, including allowing students to read and discuss in their home language before writing or sharing out in the target language; drafting or developing writing projects in the home language and writing the final draft in the target language; or using bilingual dictionaries or home language internet resources to master content. If WL educators know the home languages of these students, they can more easily track these learning processes in that language. Even if WL or other educators do not know the home language, translanguaging is still an excellent strategy to help build vocabulary and content knowledge, as it allows EMLLs to capitalize on what they already know in order to acquire both content and language.

Strategy 3: Fostering Cultural and Linguistic Diversity through Multilingual Ecology

Like translanguaging, multilingual ecology empowers student languages in the school setting (García & Menken, 2015). It promotes pride in multilingualism through oral and written language practices throughout the school building in a variety of ways. For example, school-wide texts such as signage, artwork and bulletin boards are displayed in the languages of educators and students. Greetings and parts of the morning announcements are given in a different language or languages each day. Administrators and other school personnel speak to students and each other in their home languages and in English. These actions encourage multilingual flexibility and help emergent bilinguals feel comfortable in their school environments. They also help EMLLs sustain their diverse identities rather than having to adapt to an artificially monolingual society.

There are several ways in which WL educators can help lead the way in cultivating a multilingual ecology at their school. The examples below come from data collected for Back (2020). After the author held a professional development seminar on multilingual ecology, one elementary school educator (Sally) worked on specific strategies for her school. During a parents' night dinner, Sally set up a table

where parents and students could write down greetings and other short phrases in their home languages. The response was overwhelming. Sally was inundated with suggestions and discovered many home languages that she was unaware of, including among families whose students were not designated as emergent bilinguals. These greetings and short phrases, in languages such as Chinese, Russian, and Arabic, were posted on the school's hallway walls. Sally also used Google Translate and parent volunteers to translate signage for the bathrooms, office, school nurse, and cafeteria. Finally, Sally put up a bulletin board near her classroom with images of children experiencing different emotions, and had these emotions translated into several different languages. She expressed how she thought it would help children articulate how they felt, even if they didn't know English, because they could point to the picture. Sally also mentioned how students' eyes light up and how excited they become when they see their languages on the school walls.

Parents' nights and open houses are great opportunities for WL educators to not only talk about the languages they teach, but also to promote respect and enthusiasm for multilingualism in general. Parental input on items as simple as greetings in their home language provides WL educators a glimpse into the languages spoken and understood by their students at home. Even in school districts that are predominantly monolingual in English, having different languages posted throughout the school–not just around the WL educators' classrooms–can help develop intercultural citizenship for all students as they become aware of the many languages spoken around the world.

Another example more directly involves students. Most WL educators are familiar with establishing and running language-specific clubs, yet clubs that celebrate speakers of all languages are also valuable in promoting intercultural understanding and fostering relationships between emergent bilinguals and monolinguals. Martin-Beltrán et al. (2019) reported on a "language ambassadors" program in Maryland, where high school students recruited from both ESL and Spanish courses got together for regular conversation practice. The authors found that these conversations expanded learning opportunities and positioned emergent bilinguals as experts, allowing them to take pride in their home language and cultures.

A similar program took place in a Northeastern U.S. elementary school (Back & Wagner, 2020), where two preservice educators organized a weekly language ambassadors club for third and fourth graders. Activities included training students to teach their homeroom classes greetings in different languages and learning from their EMLL peers about the different languages spoken in the school. Similar to Martin-Beltrán et al.'s (2019) findings, students took pride in sharing their expertise in their home languages. This was especially important for EMLLs, who are usually positioned as needing help, rather than as helpers or educators. Moreover, all participants learned about many languages spoken in the school by their peers, even by those who were not designated as ELLs. The multilingual students took on their ambassador role with enthusiasm and shared what they had learned with their classmates who did not participate in the program.

Implications and Conclusions

We are aware that teaching languages with critical approaches, including teaching languages for social justice, intercultural dialogue, human rights, peace, and sustainability, can be overwhelming because each approach is important and complex. What we promote here is not the only way to address inequities. Rather, we encourage fellow educators to use their own criticality to examine misconceptions about languages and cultures and delve further into the research and practice of language education and EMLLs. In order to do so, we first need to understand that we as language educators can and do perpetuate harm if we are not willing to take a critical look at what we do. However, we also can make a difference by drawing from research and practice in a variety of fields related to language education to develop inclusive practices that help support our students and our own critical awareness of issues involved. We shared some strategies that we hope will empower WL educators to capitalize on their knowledge of language education to advocate for all language learners.

As shown in our introductory vignette, WL classrooms can be places where all students, regardless of their first language, and perhaps especially those with a first language other than the majority language, can have the same learning opportunity and might even be provided a space where they are able to shine. Our opportunity, and we would argue our obligation, to advocate for all language learners, however, does not stop in our own classrooms. If we learn to apply what we know from WL education to the education of all language learners, continue to learn from and about the various contexts in which language learning occurs, and are willing to share what we know with the larger community in and beyond our schools, we not only become advocates for all language learners, but also better leaders. A slight shift in mindset and end goals may be required, but we firmly believe that by going beyond our classroom walls and departments, our impact on promoting intercultural citizenship, multilingualism, and multiculturalism will only increase.

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3

Border-Crossing in Language Teacher Education

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Abstract

In this paper, we bridge fields of English as a Second Language, Bilingual, and World Language teacher education through curricular innovation in methods coursework for future Chinese language teachers. We apply a language curricularization framework to analyze theoretical, ideological, political, and contextual factors underlying connections and distinctions across disciplinary borders and to guide collaboration within a language equity lens. Our work indicates the affordances of translanguaging approaches, a multilingual turn, and critical curricular analysis in preparing critically conscious language educators.

Keywords: language teacher education, curriculum, English as a Second Language, Bilingual Education, World Language Education

Background

While language education fields including English as a Second Language, World Languages, and Bilingual Education may be characterized as parallel pathways toward a shared goal of language learning, we argue that a multifaceted, historical perspective is essential for understanding both the distinctions and connections, as well as the potential for bridging fields in language teacher education. To this end, we apply an analytic framework to examine the influence of theories, ideologies, policies, contexts, and core program elements on language teacher education across English as a Second Language (ESL), World Languages (WL), and Bilingual Education (BE). We consider a situated case of curricular bridging–what we term *border-crossing*– in language teacher education from our own work crafting ESL and BE methods courses for future WL and BE Chinese language teachers. Specifically, we explore a heteroglossic (García, 2009) vision for cross-disciplinary teacher training that prepares critically conscious language educators (Alfaro & Bartolomé, 2017; Caldas, 2021; Valenzuela, 2016) to facilitate inclusive instruction in light of learners' diverse linguistic profiles.

In this paper, we first provide a brief historical overview that illuminates sociopolitical trends influencing the development of the ESL, BE, and WL strands of language education. With this history in mind, we outline the framework of language *curricularization* proposed by Valdés (Kibler & Valdés, 2016; Valdés, 2018; Valdés & Parra, 2018) that can guide collaboration across disciplinary borders in language education. By detailing our own setting and curricular innovation in language teacher education, we advocate for a transition toward translanguaging approaches to ESL, a multilingual turn in WL, and critical curricular analysis in BE in order to train future teachers in these areas within a cross-disciplinary language equity lens. We close by reflecting on the factors enhancing and inhibiting our curricular innovation and by encouraging further border-crossings across language teacher education programs.

Historical Literature Review

Historically, English as a Second Language, World Languages, and Bilingual Education developed as separate domains for specific populations of learners in distinct U.S. cultural-historical contexts, giving rise to unique priorities and pedagogies. In their extensive work on the history of BE in what is now the United States, Crawford (1991) and García (2009) begin by noting the tapestry of hundreds of Native American languages, numerous African languages, and waves of European languages, often reduced to a single English monolingual thread in the modern era: Native American tribes were forcibly relocated and assimilated, with children sent to English-only boarding schools; enslaved Africans were linguistically isolated and denied schooling; following an early period of tolerance, European immigrant languages other than English were outlawed in several states, including in schools.

It is essential to note this history of settler colonialism, symbolic violence, and xenophobia when considering the resurgence of language education in the latter part of the 20th century and its current categorization into ESL, WL, BE, and other strands. Prior to this, English-only education had become the norm under a campaign of "Americanization" in Native American boarding schools, the U.S. Southwest, new immigrant communities, and the newly occupied territories of Hawaii and Puerto Rico (García, 2009; Grinberg & Saavedra, 2000; Macedo, 2000). State-level restrictions on German, for example, were so extreme during and after World War I that a U.S. Supreme Court decision warned against coercion in English language education (*Meyer v. Nebraska,* 1923). At the same time, the American Association of Teachers of Spanish capitalized on anti-German sentiment precisely to bolster Spanish language study (García, 2009). Yet rather than supporting existing Spanish-English bilingual programs in the U.S. Southwest that were being targeted as "non-American," Spanish language education focused on reading and metalinguistic skills during a short program of study at the secondary level (García, 2009; Grinberg & Saavedra, 2000). In a subsequent shift toward classroom language immersion with the communicative approach to WL teaching, the monolingual paradigm dominated (Leung & Valdés, 2019). These models of foreign language teaching distinguished BE from WL and continue to influence professional identity and practice.

During the Cold War period, the U.S. federal government began to promote the study of foreign languages in the country's national interests (National Defense

Education Program, 1958). These initiatives continue today for languages deemed "critical" to national security (García, 2009). At the same time, several school districts (re-)initiated bilingual education programs to serve Spanish-speaking students in Florida, Texas, New Mexico, California, and Arizona (García, 2009). The Bilingual Education Act (1968) supported the development of these programs and others to teach English to so-called language minority students. Subsequent court decisions and legislation reinforced the importance of bilingual schooling for these learners as a bridge to English, which remained the primary focus. Later, with the re-emergence of polemical English-only discourse, the opportunity for meaningful bilingual education for emergent bilingual learners seemed to recede (Krashen, 1996). It is noteworthy that one model of bilingual education called *two-way dual language immersion* became newly ascendant among calls to dismantle bilingual education. However, two-way dual language immersion is critiqued for disowning the label of bilingual education and underserving minoritized emergent bilingual learners, instead prioritizing ready-made language environments for English-speaking students to learn an additional language (Cervantes-Soon, 2014; Delavan et al., 2021; Valdés, 1997). Paradoxically, Spanish-speaking minoritized students are at times portrayed as deficient language models in the classroom (Flores & Rosa, 2015).

In sum, we view the historical development of language education in the United States not as a question of *which* language, but language *for whom*. Minoritized emergent bilingual learners nationwide are provided few alternatives to coerced English-only schooling that subtracts native languages and cultural wealth (Valenzuela, 1999; Yosso, 2005). Meanwhile, English-speaking students enjoy educational enrichment through the study of *foreign* (or recently termed *world*) languages. When brought together in two-way dual language immersion programs, these two groups compete for speaking time, teacher attention, and validation in ways that mirror the symbolic dominance of English speakers in U.S. society (Palmer, 2009). In an effort to confront this historical context and English hegemony, we ask teacher educators to cross borders in language education. In doing so ourselves, we recognize that while parallels may be drawn across these fields, such as a common aim to develop language proficiency, these implied similarities are in fact historically embedded and often obscured points of contention in these fields' theories, conceptualizations, and ideologies (Valdés, 2018).

Yet, the intersection of these language education fields can be seen in the everyday work of learners and educators. For example, a bilingual education student may speak a third language–such as an indigenous language–in addition to the languages of instruction. A student previously labeled an English Learner may be moved from ESL to a new two-way dual language immersion program alongside students formerly studying Spanish as a WL. A former English as a Foreign Language teacher abroad returns to teach ESL and/or a WL in the United States. A WL teacher becomes a BE teacher when the school program model changes. ESL, BE, and WL teachers are brought together as a "Multilingual Department" by school leadership. These sample trajectories motivate language teacher educators to collaboratively design training and practice across disciplinary boundaries. Just as importantly, language teacher educators should leverage Valdés' (1997, 2018) cautionary notes to cross these borders with a historically aware language equity lens.

Conceptual Framework

Valdés (2018) has proposed the framework of *curricularizing* language to enable a discussion of the goals and outcomes of language education programs. Focusing on bilingual education and specifically two-way immersion, Valdés highlights the theories and ideologies of language and language learning that can differ across similarly named programs, leading to divergent goals and outcomes despite a stated shared commitment to fostering language learning. In our analysis and discussion, we consider the implications of the same framework for teacher education across ESL, BE, and WL.

Curricularization indicates the design and implementation of a subject of teaching; that is, the decision-making process regarding what is to be taught, in what order, and how (Kibler & Valdés, 2016). Translating a dynamic, multimodal, symbolic communicative experience such as language into an ordered, static, and seemingly neutral divisible product is necessarily imbued with conceptualizations of what language is, who can and should learn it, how best to do so, and why. Thus, language curricularization conveys language ideologies and dominant theories of language, which are mediated by factors that shape what is popularly and politically possible and desired, and then again transformed during implementation according to local discourses, resources, and constraints (Valdés, 2018).

ESL, BE, and WL education since the Cold War era have been informed by theories of second language acquisition that traditionally adhered to a cognitive view of language as an individual linguistic system, the elements of which can be dissected, studied, and learned by the mind (Ortega, 2009). This view is manifested in language education through linear proficiency levels and language learning standards that aim to measure and guide the development of this individual linguistic system (e.g., ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines and WIDA English Language Development Standards). The strong emphasis on cognitive approaches that formed the basis of second language acquisition has been tempered by the inclusion of other social perspectives, each with their own disciplinary research base (e.g., Douglas Fir Group, 2016; Firth & Wagner, 1997). This theoretical expansion, however, has not settled debates about best practices in language teaching, nor diminished the role of the idealized monolingual native speaker model as the target of additional language learning. The ideological assumption that a language learner should, and should want to, resemble two monolingual native speakers in one person continues to shape important aspects of ESL, WL, and BE, including whose bilingualism "counts" (Flores et al., 2020). Ideologies of bilingualism thus intersect with raciolinguistic ideologies about the identity and language use of bilinguals (Flores & Rosa, 2015).

Language ideologies and dominant theories of language and language learning shape every aspect of language education. They imbue policies, discourses, and approaches in local contexts, as well as core program elements such as instructional materials, student labels, assessments, and teacher qualifications (Valdés, 2018). The current risk, Valdés (2018) argues, is that top-down policies and authoritative publications influencing language education do not necessarily reflect recent significant shifts in understandings of language learning and use. Specifically in BE, new program models grouped under the term *dual language education* are guided

by principles and field manuals that have failed to keep pace with the theoretical evolution of second language acquisition toward a multilingual approach (e.g., May, 2014; Ortega, 2013). Popular guides also do not adequately reckon with the impact of ideologies on educational language policies and classroom pedagogical decisions, although there is evidence that both are influenced by neoliberal thinking that commodifies language (Cervantes-Soon, 2014). These deficit ideologies orient core program elements, for example, away from the pedagogical role of translanguaging and toward learning materials from abroad, under the assumption that the U.S. Spanish varieties spoken by emergent bilingual learners are not adequate for "academic" learning (Flores, 2020). Whether implicit or expressed, these ideologies followed to their logical conclusion through policy and programmatic decisions can harm learners, educators, and communities. For this reason, Valdés states, "In [two-way immersion], how we manage the addition of new resources to these students' repertoires–without doing violence to their existing communicative practices and their unique identities–will be our biggest challenge and our most important accomplishment" (2018, p. 407). In the context of our own border-crossing work in language teacher education, we utilize Valdés' (2018) framework of language curricularization to understand how training teachers to expand learners' linguistic repertoires can be undertaken with this charge in mind.

Setting and Curricular Innovation

Our urban institutional setting in Chicago, Illinois places us in the center of growing emergent bilingual learner populations. More than 75% of students labeled English Learner (EL) in Illinois public schools speak Spanish, numbering over 205,000; this population grew by 23,000 or 13% in a single academic year (2021-22, most recent data available; Illinois State Board of Education, 2023). Other prominent languages spoken by Illinois students are Arabic, Polish, and Urdu; Cantonese and Mandarin Chinese also rank among the top 15 languages spoken by ELs in the state (Illinois State Board of Education, 2023). The approximately 2,900 Chinese-speaking ELs in Illinois are served by 60 credentialed bilingual Chinese teachers, resulting in a statewide student-teacher ratio of 48 to one. By contrast, the statewide ratio for Spanish-speaking ELs is 22 students for every credentialed bilingual Spanish teacher (Illinois State Board of Education, 2023). The relative need for Chinese language teachers who are certified and endorsed in Chinese is thus substantial in Illinois. While the state issued nearly 16,300 ESL/BE endorsements between 2016-2021, we do not know what portion of these were credentialed to teach and support Chinese (Illinois State Board of Education, 2023). By order of magnitude, however, we can conclude that Illinois would need to more than double the number of Chinese teachers to attain similar ratios to its most widely spoken non-English language.

Moreover, according to data on WL enrollment, an additional 6,500 Illinois K-16 students were studying Chinese as a WL in 2014-15 (most recent data available, American Councils for International Education, 2017). In the same year, 223,500 Illinois students were studying Spanish as a WL (American Councils for International Education, 2017). In the five-year period 2016-2021, the state of Illinois licensed 1,300 new WL educators, although the language breakdown is not published (Illinois State Board of Education, 2021).

Given the enrollments in the K-12 student population, as well as a significant bilingual student population at our Hispanic-Serving Institution and faculty expertise and involvement in Spanish-English transitional, developmental, and dual language BE, Spanish-English bilingualism is the primary focus of our BE methods courses. In addition, we are fortunate within our faculty to have extensive pedagogical expertise in another top-enrolling language in Illinois: Chinese. Through curricular innovation, we have been developing our course offerings to prepare future Chinese language teachers to serve in Illinois where the need for bilingually certified teachers is on the rise.

At our institution, ESL/BE and WL programs are located within the College of Education, but administered by separate units. This division reflects the categorization of ESL/BE as endorsement types added to any Professional Educator License, while the WL endorsement is offered as a concentration in the Secondary Master of Teaching degree program. The ESL/BE endorsement coursework is designed to enroll any candidate (pre-service or in-service teacher, at any level, in any content area) from any program in any order; it covers foundations, assessment, methods and materials, and cross-cultural studies relevant to emergent bilingual learners. The WL program provides training in teaching and clinical experiences and requires coursework in both ESL methods and WL methods. Due to this requirement that WL candidates enroll in ESL methods, we experience crossover in which WL candidates learn about ESL methods and materials alongside candidates aiming to be ESL certified.

This enrollment crossover has manifested the need for differentiated instruction in our ESL teacher education coursework that is inclusive of WL settings. The content of the ESL methods course presents an opportunity for WL teacher candidates to not only draw parallels to their own methods of teaching a WL, but also to better address the needs of identified emergent bilingual learners who enroll in WL classes. In essence, when learners cross disciplinary borders between language education fields, educators and teacher educators must adapt and follow their lead. Moreover, when teachers attend to the English language and WL learning needs of the students before them, their classrooms are effectively bilingual learning environments and can benefit from BE insights. Below, we outline these dynamics and describe our curricular innovations in light of the disciplinary border-crossing of learners, teachers, and teacher educators in language education.

Phase 1: Crossing from English as a Second Language to Translanguaging

At our institution, the ESL methods course enrolls not only ESL, WL, and BE candidates, but also pre- and in-service content area teachers, administrators, early childhood educators, special educators, and paraprofessionals who have diverse experiences with bi/multilingualism. Given this broad enrollment, the growing population and diversity of emergent bilingual learners in Illinois, and longstanding scholarship on the importance of culturally and linguistically responsive pedagogy (e.g., Ladson-Billings, 1995; Lucas et al., 2008; Paris & Alim, 2017), we first determined that the ESL methods course presented an opportunity to affirm that all teachers are language teachers and contribute to the success of language learners (TESOL Writing Team, 2018). Furthermore, as the only required ESL course in

many of the above programs, we found it essential to emphasize equity-oriented pedagogical frameworks as the course cornerstone. Prior versions of the course had followed a widely-used instructional model for teaching emergent bilingual learners (Echevarría et al., 2017); however, further reading called into question the model's narrow behaviorist, monolingual focus (Crawford & Reyes, 2015). In redesigning the course, we selected recent scholarship on translanguaging in order to flexibly serve the needs of diverse educators, who teach in a range of settings, with learners of diverse backgrounds. This opportunity was the key motivation for beginning the first phase of our work in crossing language education fields and other disciplinary boundaries.

In a *translanguaging classroom,* learners' diverse linguistic repertoires are acknowledged, valued, and leveraged for learning (García, 2009; García et al., 2017). This work specifically foregrounds the bilingualism of minoritized students in contexts of dual language bilingual education, sheltered content instruction, and ESL push-in support. The new text for the ESL methods course demonstrates translanguaging pedagogical applications in a variety of language education settings with diversely trained educators. Throughout, teachers play a central role in facilitating learning–including language learning–even when they do not speak all the languages of the classroom community. The shift in perspective from ESL to translanguaging allowed us to design a more inclusive curriculum to better serve all candidates enrolled in our ESL methods course.

In our curricular shift to translanguaging, we also revised course learning outcomes to better serve WL candidates as fellow language educators. Prior to the redesign, our program had received internal feedback that candidates perceived ESL methods as outside of the scope of their WL training, unrelated to their future classrooms (where they did not anticipate teaching students labeled EL), and inflexible with few clear options for adapting assignments to better fit the WL classroom. In response, we articulated course learning outcomes emphasizing shared professional knowledge and practices across language education fields, including common theories of language learning and culturally and linguistically responsive pedagogy, approaches to integrating language and content learning across communicative modes, aligning instruction with standards and assessments, materials curation, differentiation strategies, and critical reflection on pedagogical practices.

We then crafted learning activities that could serve language educators across program models. For example, teacher candidates develop strategies for documenting learners' language and cultural backgrounds and discuss how this knowledge can shape instruction. Candidates design classroom routines, norms, and visuals to support learners' socioemotional learning and motivation. They study multiliteracies and plan learning activities to enhance visual literacy, biliteracy, and content area literacy. Additionally, candidates connect with professional organizations and learning communities in their field experiences.

Lastly, we redesigned the culminating assessment to leverage all learner languages and all languages of instruction in an aligned unit of instruction based on translanguaging approaches and supports. For example, candidates articulate unit learning objectives drawn from both English Language Development Standards (WIDA, 2020) and other language standards such as the World-Readiness Standards

for Learning Languages (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015). Candidates further identify student background knowledge in multiple languages that relates to the unit topic, differentiate for learner linguistic profiles, and assess learning in multiple languages to demonstrate achievement of language learning objectives.

The emphasis on language professional skills and multiple languages in these learning outcomes, activities, and assessment facilitates WL candidates' flexibility in adapting the ESL methods coursework to their classroom contexts. These revisions shift the course's monolingual focus on English learning toward the flexible and strategic use of multiple languages–translanguaging. The updated course complements candidates' training in WL pedagogy in their degree program by providing training in translanguaging pedagogy that is inclusive of identified emergent bilingual learners. It is thus an avenue for moving the monolingual mindset in WL (Leung & Valdés, 2019) toward a more inclusive pedagogy cognizant of learners' diverse linguistic profiles.

Phase 2: Crossing from Translanguaging to World Languages

In a second phase of curricular design, we continued to re-envision the place of WL in ESL/BE coursework as a way of bridging language education fields. While in Phase 1, we succeeded in differentiating ESL methods coursework to be inclusive of WL, in Phase 2 we sought ways to further support WL candidates' instruction of specific languages. To do so, we developed an iteration of the ESL methods course entitled "Methods of Teaching English as a Second Language and World Languages." In its first offering, the new course focused on ESL and Chinese language teaching. We selected Chinese because of its importance as one of the fifteen languages most widely spoken by emergent bilingual learners in Illinois and our programmatic capacity to serve future Chinese language teachers.

The new methods course sits at the nexus of ESL and WL education, and involves collaboration across the ESL/BE and WL programs at our institution. It caters to future Chinese language teachers who may work across language program models with learners who are English speakers, Chinese-speaking English Learners, Chinese-English bilinguals, and Chinese heritage speakers. It connects the candidates to language educators in the field who teach in bilingual and WL settings and provide mentorship. Course instruction, materials, and learning activities are provided bilingually in Chinese and English. Excerpts of course descriptions highlight this shift in focus from content-based ESL instruction to ESL-WL partnerships where language is the partnering content area:

> **ESL Methods course description:** This course prepares candidates to teach language and content in English as a Second Language settings. Candidates examine and apply conceptual and pedagogical tools for teaching English as a second language and supporting students' bilingualism. Candidates explore tools to create effective language and content instruction that is differentiated according to language proficiency.
>
> **ESL and WL Methods course description:** This course prepares candidates to teach a World Language to culturally and linguistically

diverse learners in classroom settings. Candidates examine and apply conceptual and pedagogical tools for teaching World Languages and supporting students' emergent bilingualism across language program models. Candidates explore tools to create effective language and content instruction that is differentiated according to language proficiency.

The above excerpts underscore key differences in the target audience for each course and potential professional trajectories. While the former focuses on candidates who plan to teach in ESL settings, the latter targets WL candidates while explicitly expanding the focus to various language program models and emphasizing classroom learners' multifaceted linguistic profiles. For this reason, it may be framed as a multilingual approach (May, 2014). This phrasing is significant because WL candidates may set out to teach the target language under the assumption that their future learners are English monolinguals who should learn to behave as Chinese monolinguals in an immersive classroom environment. This change invites them to adopt an asset-based approach to leverage learners' multilingual resources as funds of knowledge (Moll et al., 1992) to learn an additional WL.

As in Phase 1, Phase 2 course learning outcomes are illustrative of curricular modifications. In the combined ESL and WL Methods course, candidates apply theories of second language acquisition and foreign language learning. In addition to noting shared professional knowledge and overlapping constructs, this course delves into differing emphases and traditions (e.g., communicative language teaching). By inviting WL candidates to explore the similarities and differences, we create space for them to cross borders in language teacher education. Further, candidates examine the role of cultural learning in concert with language and content learning; this shift reflects the emphasis on culture as one of the critical components of WL education included in professional standards (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015). Lastly, course learning outcomes shift from a focus on English-medium program models (e.g., push-in, self-contained, and sheltered) toward broader language program models including immersion, dual language, world language, and heritage language. Candidates identify models that best support different learner profiles, and select methods appropriate for each.

Learning activities throughout the course leverage the language expertise of WL candidates to enhance the learning trajectories of emergent bilingual learners of diverse profiles. Candidates are encouraged to look beyond learner labels (e.g., EL, heritage language speaker, and Chinese-dominant) to understand bilingualism as a dynamic and complex system (Douglas Fir Group, 2016; García, 2009). We utilize case studies, such as the example below, to bring candidates into conversation around pedagogical questions with opportunities to draw on learners' funds of knowledge as well as current scholarship.

Case Study: You have accepted a teaching position at Riverside Elementary, which offers a dual-language bilingual Mandarin Chinese and English program. Among the learners enrolled in the cohort, there are heritage Chinese speakers, English-dominant learners, and Spanish-English bilinguals. While designing the curriculum for the program, you need to decide when and how to teach Pinyin, the

Mandarin Chinese pronunciation system using the Latin alphabet,
based on the best practices recommended by research.

Accompanying this case study are two scholarly articles centered on the role of Pinyin in promoting metalinguistic skills that enhance biliteracy development (Lü, 2017; Luo et al., 2018). The WL candidates draft and present a proposal on when and how to teach Pinyin, drawing on research evidence in light of learner linguistic profiles.

In another learning activity that invites border-crossing in language education, candidates become familiar with professional standards guiding language program models where a WL such as Chinese is taught. They observe or interview a mentor teacher working in one of these models as part of the field experience component of the course. Putting it all together, candidates explain the role of standards in designing culturally and linguistically responsive curriculum for emergent bilingual learners in the setting of their field experience. Through this activity, WL candidates develop a deeper understanding of the linguistic diversity among students, varied program model outcomes, and the intersectionality of different professional standards guiding curriculum design.

Lastly, an ongoing assessment asks candidates to build a WL teaching portfolio demonstrating how to support learners' bilingualism and biliteracy across languages. The portfolio includes a statement of teaching philosophy in which candidates consider the main issues of Chinese language teaching in the U.S. context, draw upon their field experiences and research findings, and reflect on their own linguistic and cultural identities. Candidates additionally make connections to course assignments such as the classroom observation with a mentor teacher and outline instructional strategies that integrate culture, content, and language learning. In this portfolio, candidates may grapple with, for example, their background as Chinese immigrants to the United States whose classroom experiences reflected a top-down, teacher-centered approach that differs from what they may find in U.S. classrooms (Yue, 2017). In dialogue with course materials, candidates analyze and negotiate ideological influences on teaching and learning that can be observed in curriculum design, theme selection, classroom activities, classroom management, and family engagement. In this way, they engage in an analysis of the theoretical and ideological factors at play across fields of language education, contextualized within Chinese language teaching.

The ESL and WL Methods course resulting from Phase 2 of our curricular innovation features learning outcomes, activities, and assessments that leverage WL candidates' professional expertise to cross borders in language education. We designed this bridging course as an ongoing conversation across the fields' research and pedagogical foundations and professional standards, with firm grounding in classroom field experiences that enable candidates to envision their future multilingual classrooms. This focus on professional identity and positionality, on the one hand, and classroom reality on the other, guides future WL teachers in taking a multilingual turn and enacting an asset-based stance toward classroom learners of diverse linguistic profiles (May, 2014).

Phase 3 (Future Work): Crossing from World Languages to Bilingual Education

Our future third phase of curricular innovation focuses on crossing borders from WL to BE. As noted in the historical literature review, these fields have traditionally diverged in learner population, programmatic goals, and instructional materials. For example, WL learners are often assumed to be (monolingual) majority language speakers who will benefit from intensive use of the target language in an immersion environment created within the constraints of the traditional classroom (García, 2009; Leung & Valdés, 2019). Additionally, the native speaker model continues to hold sway as the presumed ideal WL teacher and purported goal of WL learning, despite decades of critique (e.g., Cook, 1999; Macedo, 2019). Indeed, learner non-native-like use of the target language has received intense scrutiny and led to more explicit instruction in grammar (Swain, 1985), reinforcing a traditional pillar of foreign language education. Lastly, as the term *foreign languages* implies, language models from abroad have been portrayed as authentic and privileged over U.S. communities where the language is spoken. These characteristics distinguish WL from BE program models.

Despite its prestige as a means to travel abroad and expand one's cultural horizons, WL study is increasingly embattled. Already minimal hours of instruction in K-12 schooling have been decreased or entire programs eliminated to accommodate increasing attention to math and reading in the accountability era (García, 2009), while in higher education, WL enrollments dropped precipitously by 16% from 2016 to 2021 (Lusin et al., 2023). WL education has been criticized as adopting neoliberal discourse, lacking diversity in the teaching force and instructional materials, and insufficiently addressing its colonial history (Bernstein et al., 2015; Bori & Canale, 2022; Hines-Gaither & Accilien, 2023; Macedo, 2019). Perhaps as a strategy for increasing enrollments in WL, K-12 two-way dual language immersion models of BE are promoted to pair WL learners with emergent bilingual learners who speak the target language. The contentious issues of WL education are thus becoming intertwined with BE concerns, and vice versa, as noted by Valdés (1997, 2018) and others (e.g., Cervantes-Soon, 2014; Palmer, 2009).

In light of these trends bringing together the learners, teachers, and fields of WL and BE, we have argued that WL educators should attend to the target and English language learning goals of their learners; at which point, we feel equally compelled to advocate for training WL educators as, in fact, bilingual educators. The design of a BE methods course that can cater to both WL and bilingual educators across program models, but with a particular focus on increasingly widespread models of dual language bilingual education, is thus the focus of our current curricular innovation. As we consider the future careers of WL candidates enrolling in ESL/BE coursework, we see BE as a generative framework for training candidates who can fulfill multiple roles, while heeding Valdés' (1997, 2018) cautionary notes with a commitment to language equity.

Looking specifically at the case of Chinese in Illinois schools, the number of speakers and learners appears to be growing. The state reported approximately 2,340 Chinese-speaking English Learners in 2021, increasing to 2,900 in 2022 (Illinois State Board of Education, 2021, 2023). Additional data on WL enrollment in Chinese

from 2014-15 indicate that 6,500 students were enrolled in Chinese language courses across 64 programs in public and private schools in Illinois (American Councils for International Education, 2017). This report also notes the nationwide "explosion of Chinese enrollment" (p. 18): Chinese is the most offered Advanced Placement language course after Spanish and French; 72% of high schools offer courses or online instruction in Chinese; 100 schools anticipated expanding their Chinese language course offerings; Chinese makes up 80% of enrollment in so-called "critical" languages, notably targeting language proficiency at the most advanced levels. These trends indicate increasing interest in Chinese as a WL coupled with rising numbers of Chinese-English emergent bilingual learners.

Our border-crossing between WL and BE centers on three curricular priorities that build on Phases 1 and 2 above and invite candidates to engage directly with Valdés' framework of language curricularization (2018). First, we aim to document and affirm candidates' linguistic repertoires, dynamic bilingualism, and histories of bilingualism and schooling using decolonizing methodologies (Hamilton, 2018). These linguistic autobiographies and landscape studies are built on reflexive and community-building activities, for example, language portraits, sociolinguistic inquiry, and community cultural wealth surveys inspired by pedagogical and theoretical resources (e.g., España & Herrera, 2020; Tian & King, 2023; Yosso, 2005). Learning activities will address the historical and personal contexts of BE as well as key pedagogical approaches including translanguaging.

Second, we aim to leverage and hone candidates' critical consciousness to build linguistic ideological clarity, which professionally prepares them for the field, classroom, and sociocultural contexts of education (Caldas, 2021; Venegas-Weber & Martinez Negrette, 2023). These framing ideas are generated through scenarios and debriefing discussions based on drama arts pedagogy in teacher education (Cahnmann-Taylor & Souto-Manning, 2010; Caldas, 2018). Learning activities involve reading and representing narratives of tension confronted by experienced bilingual educators and reenacting possible responses to develop candidates' ability to advocate for emergent bilingual learners in the moment. These scenarios address current equity issues in dual language bilingual education (e.g., program gentrification, raciolinguistic ideologies, and translanguaging; Delavan et al., 2021; Flores & Rosa, 2015; García et al., 2017).

Lastly, our goal is to crystalize candidate historical, equitable, and pedagogical perspectives through critical curricular analysis of an existing program through case study. Candidates will address core program elements (e.g., target learner populations, instructional approach, materials, and assessments) of a specific BE program model in practice, while also uncovering the mediating influence of policies, contexts, and traditions and the underlying ideologies and theories of language and bilingualism that shape these program elements. Valdés (2018) points out that educators are not often invited to examine these factors that can contribute to a language program's success or failure. We view the invitation to engage in such analysis as essential to fostering candidates' critical consciousness and re-ordering the traditional priorities of BE (Palmer et al., 2019). As part of the case study, candidates will design a bilingual unit of instruction guided by language and content objectives and reflecting key

ideological, theoretical, political, contextual, and programmatic elements shaping the unit context.

This future third phase of curricular innovation will foster convergence between WL and BE teacher education within a language equity frame built on critical consciousness. The work follows curricular priorities inspired by the professional expertise of WL and bilingual educators, with a vision for training teachers for the future of language education in which learners, educators, and teacher educators cross disciplinary borders to pursue bilingualism, biliteracy, biculturalism, and critical consciousness (Palmer et al., 2019).

Curricularization and Heteroglossic Vision

By inviting ESL, BE, and WL educators to cross disciplinary borders during their teacher training, we are preparing them to imagine new possibilities for the field of language education. We urge candidates to transform the status quo, in which:

> In some cases, important decisions that directly impact both students and instructors are made simply because policies or traditions require it, because existing ideologies surrounding groups of students and their characteristics have not been interrogated, and/or because reasonable alternatives have not been explored. (Valdés, 2018, p. 405)

As a first step in this transformation, we have considered our own role and responsibility as language teacher educators to reshape curriculum. We have engaged in a process of identifying and interrogating ideologies and theories of language and bilingualism, state policies, institutional contexts and curricular arrangements, and assumed teacher candidate profiles that have shaped our existing ESL/BE curriculum. Thanks to the enrollment of WL candidates in our ESL/BE coursework, we have been called to cross disciplinary borders to facilitate translanguaging pedagogies, a multilingual turn, and critical consciousness in light of diverse teacher candidate profiles, as a model for candidates to use with their own future learners.

To undertake this curricular innovation, we have utilized the framework of language curricularization to analyze the alignment of our program elements with current theories of language and language learning, as well as the language ideologies communicated through our curricular choices. The essence of this process began with asking *what do we teach, how, and for whom*? In redesigning an ESL methods course, we shifted the course focus from sheltered instructional models to translanguaging classrooms guided by a heteroglossic view of language (García, 2009). That is, the course's foundational theoretical concept posits that learners' languages do not exist as parallel monolingualisms that switch on and off, but rather span a continuum of flexible and heterogeneous practices crossing categories of language, variety, register, genre, and mode in communicative contexts across time. This thinking reflects prominent theoretical orientations in second language acquisition that describe language as the complex, dynamic, and holistic subject of a learning process, typified by variability and change and mediated by ideologies; learners with a range of linguistic competencies negotiate agency and make investments in new social identities through language learning in sociocultural contexts (Douglas Fir Group, 2016).

This heteroglossic, complex view can be seen in the dynamic translanguaging progressions outlined by García et al. (2017) and now part of the translanguaging unit of instruction that serves as a culminating assessment in the redesigned ESL methods course. Rather than utilize the marker of proficiency, which emphasizes a linear and standardized view of individual language development, the progressions document learners' bilingual performances from various perspectives (e.g., self, teacher, and family) with a focus on academic tasks in any language and language-specific tasks. Teacher candidates, from monolingual English-speaking content teachers to ESL specialists to WL educators, must indicate how they will document learners' linguistic repertoires and utilize this information in designing instruction. In this way, candidates are equipped to not only leverage learners' resources in culturally and linguistically responsive instruction, but also to account for how these repertoires shift across time, task, and perspectives.

In a second phase, we embraced a multilingual turn in ESL and WL Methods to address the needs of WL teacher candidates. The redesigned course establishes a platform for them to explore the intersectionality of second and foreign language acquisition through a culturally and linguistically responsive framework that assumes learner multilingualism rather than English monolingualism. Revisions to the course description and learning outcomes emphasize our commitment to aligning with equity-oriented ideologies, where WL candidates cultivate dispositions that ensure learners with diverse linguistic profiles have equitable access to flexible and differentiated instruction in the process of learning a new language. Consequently, instructional materials, class activities, and assessments involve candidates in leveraging the diverse linguistic repertoires of their learners, selecting inclusive curricular materials that reflect the diversity of both the learner and target language communities, and designing and implementing instruction that is culturally and linguistically relevant to learners while challenging them to consider and evaluate multiple perspectives.

In the interest of expanding the heteroglossic vision of named languages traditionally considered in WL education, we integrated an additional diversity lens into this course drawing on antiracist frameworks (Hines-Gaither & Accilien, 2023; Kendi, 2019). Alongside candidates, we reflected on what an antiracist WL classroom looks like and for whom it is designed. This reflection opens possibilities for analyzing, learning, and using language varieties that raciolinguistic ideologies portray as nonstandard. Indeed, this commitment to antiracism in our curricular work has provided necessary and meaningful context to the asset-based perspective on learner linguistic repertoires as funds of knowledge. As multilingual experts by virtue of their language training, WL candidates can leverage linguistic expertise across languages to design instruction that not only responds to but expands learners' linguistic profiles.

Lastly, we have articulated curricular priorities to guide the future redesign of our BE methods course to prepare WL and BE candidates for the politicized contexts of education that they may encounter, in addition to the multiple roles they may be asked to serve. This course offers a chance to foreground critical consciousness as a necessary component of BE in addition to the goals of bilingualism, biliteracy, and biculturalism (Cervantes-Soon et al., 2017; Palmer et

al., 2019). Critical consciousness is enhanced through drama-based pedagogical strategies in the course, providing opportunities for candidates to rehearse social change and ready themselves to counter inequities they will likely face in educational settings (Cahnmann-Taylor & Souto-Manning, 2010). Secondly, candidates study Valdés' (2018) analytic framework of language curricularization in the context of program model case studies, seeking to assess how well core elements of various BE program models reflect stated and implicit ideologies and current research in second language acquisition, and how factors such as policies and traditions affect program implementation. The case study culminating assessment invites candidates to ask questions drawn from Valdés' (2018) framework such as: *What is considered correct and standard language in this program model?; Which varieties of language are taught or not taught?; How are learners labeled and categorized in terms of language?; How are languages understood to be learned, and how does this relate to teaching?; How is bilingualism defined?*. Addressing these points through concrete case studies allows candidates to engage in critical curricular analysis and examine the complex factors that imbue bilingual instruction beyond grammar and vocabulary, oracy and literacy, proficiency and competence.

Implications

Curriculum redesign in a given teacher education program to resolve a particular problem of practice can provide insights for similar undertakings by language teacher educators in other settings. We have narrated the specificities of our curricular innovation across three courses to provide an example of disciplinary border-crossing and collaboration across language teacher education, even as we worked within institutional, educational, and political constraints. For example, due to divergent program schedules and formats that are served by ESL/BE coursework at our institution, we are often not able to organize enrollment in a specific sequence through the curriculum (any course is available to any candidate at any point in their program). Relatedly, WL candidates may enroll in any one (but only one) of the three courses discussed, without necessarily being advised on which course or section is the most relevant to their studies. Enrolling in further coursework represents an additional investment of candidates' time and financial resources. Further, in most cases, candidates' major program advisors and a separate team of supervisors monitor field experiences; our understanding of these important sites of learning is thus once removed. We therefore believe that language teacher educators implementing similar curricular innovation in programs whose coursework is designed to follow a certain sequence, by candidates organized into cohorts, where learning can be documented and solidified over several terms, with close relationships to field sites–as in traditional pre-service teacher education–could experience great success with the multi-tiered, spiral curriculum we have designed.

At the same time, our unique institutional context has led to the enrollment crossover that initially inspired our curricular innovation. We regularly differentiate instruction for educators who are pre-service or in-service teachers; content, language, or special education-certified; licensed for early childhood, elementary, or secondary; and administrative leaders, classroom teachers, or paraprofessionals. In addition, candidates are culturally and linguistically diverse given our institutional

identity as Hispanic-serving and Minority-serving and our broad reach in Illinois teacher education. We have found this heterogeneous context ideal for maintaining a heteroglossic vision that dismantles myths of teacher identity, knowledge, and pedagogy. Language teacher educators in similar settings will have the advantage of a honed pedagogical flexibility that is well adapted to the curricular innovations we put forth.

We argue that curriculum benefits from regular review to refresh the material and align with theoretical developments in foundational disciplines. As part of this process, certain factors enhanced our work, including collaboration with related programs to highlight convergence, harmonize pedagogical approaches, and develop materials (especially in areas lacking resources such as Chinese language teaching and antiracist WL scholarship); as well as outside review by non-specialists (e.g., faculty in other areas) and external partners (e.g., current bilingual educators in schools). Additionally, a guiding analytic framework such as that proposed by Valdés (2018) has been indispensable for framing a larger conversation about theoretical development in second language acquisition research, language ideologies embedded in curriculum, and the mediating influences of policy and tradition, beyond the customary emphasis on core program elements such as language allocation and instructional materials.

A key takeaway from our curricular innovation is to model for teacher candidates what we hope they will enact in their future classrooms with emergent bilingual learners, and to present the modeling and rationale as an ongoing, explicit focus of learning. Across all three redesigned courses, for example, we begin by eliciting candidate experiences of language and schooling: In ESL Methods, candidates produce a language identities drawing; in ESL and WL Methods, they narrate their journey to bilingualism; and in BE Methods, they compose a linguistic autobiography and landscape. Candidates then study and generate tools of their own for documenting learners' linguistic repertoires in similar ways. The coursework also leverages multimodality to enhance and demonstrate learning (e.g., video learning materials and multimodal teaching portfolios). Candidates then design multimodal learning activities for emergent bilingual learners using research-based strategies to teach visual literacy. Through this approach emphasizing modeling, reflection, and authorship, language teacher educators can form a community of practice with candidates as critically conscious, pedagogically capable language professionals.

Conclusion

In this paper, we have surveyed the historical emergence of English as a Second Language, Bilingual Education, and World Languages as distinct strands of language education in the United States. We then applied Valdés' (2018) framework on the curricularization of language in order to illuminate distinctions and connections across these strands' theoretical foundations, ideological influences, contexts, and core program elements, as seen within our own work crossing borders in language teacher education. In our analysis and discussion, the key role of a heteroglossic view on language and language learning is explored in terms of a translanguaging pedagogy, a multilingual turn, and critical consciousness that can be honed across and throughout language teacher education (Alfaro & Bartolomé, 2017; Caldas, 2021;

García, 2009; May, 2014; Venegas-Weber & Martinez Negrette, 2023). We address the implications of our work in terms of affordances and limitations for language teacher educators undertaking similar curricular work. Throughout, we foreground multilingual learners of diverse linguistic profiles, with particular attention to minoritized emergent bilingual learners, as we ask *language for whom*?

By way of answering this question, we do not advocate for compressing the language teacher education curriculum into a single path that would cater to all future language teachers. Instead, we argue that bridging language education fields in teacher education presents an opportunity to historicize the fields of English as a Second Language, Bilingual, and World Language Education with teacher candidates, as we address the processes and consequences of the curricularization of language in different fields. We explore ways to harmonize theoretical foundations and to critically examine ideological influences that inform language education in all its forms, maintaining a historical awareness and pedagogical flexibility adapted to each learner's linguistic profile. We view culturally and linguistically responsive pedagogy in light of learners' backgrounds, grounded in larger sociopolitical contexts and historical trends, as a meaningful guiding principle in crossing borders in language teacher education.

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4

Expanding Conversations: Experiential Learning through Film in Asynchronous Online World Language Courses

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Abstract

Many educators face challenges with online learning since the COVID-19 pandemic began. Online modalities became common in world language courses; however, challenges remain in creating communicative contexts. This study examined university student perceptions of an experiential learning sequence using films in Spanish and French at the intermediate level in an asynchronous online environment. Students were required to watch a movie and complete activities related to language and culture learning goals, followed by an in-depth survey about the experience. Participants expressed positive perceptions of the activities, finding them helpful in increasing interest and motivation, as well as in expanding their thinking and knowledge about course topics. These findings demonstrate the importance of experiential learning to build student-centered communities of language and culture learning in the asynchronous classroom.

Keywords: *asynchronous online instruction, experiential learning, film and culture, language learning*

Background

As a result of the challenges brought on by the COVID-19 pandemic, large shifts in higher education–both in policy and practice–continue to affect stakeholders at all levels. At each turn, these challenges counter traditional ways of thinking about effective education, but also present opportunities to reexamine long-held beliefs and practices. One such challenge is how to deliver effective online instruction that meets curricular goals and student needs.

The present study addresses this question in the context of world language (WL) instruction, with a specific focus on asynchronous online language and

culture courses at the intermediate level and possible methods to expand learning experiences using Kolb's (1984, 2014) experiential learning cycle. In this model, students and instructors collaborate to move beyond comprehension of material, termed the "concrete experiences," through stages of "reflective observation," "abstract conceptualization," and finally "active experimentation" (Kolb et al., 2001, p. 228). These stages require students to reflect upon what they have learned, reconceptualize the information in a different format, then experiment with this knowledge in a new setting. Engagement plays a key role in the cycle; the model provides an opportunity for both students and educators to transform the learning experience and make it inherently more personal and active.

At present, prior research primarily focuses either on the integration of film as authentic material or on how experiential learning sequences can be used in face-to-face or synchronous online classrooms. However, using film to expand opportunities for experiential learning in asynchronous online instruction has yet to be explored in detail. While much discussion has been given to the challenges of teaching communicatively in asynchronous online courses (Russell & Swanson, 2022), few have discussed how to leverage the benefits of this format, namely the opportunities for reflection and further action while using the target language. This study intends to help bridge this gap in the literature and provide concrete examples of how to integrate films for language and culture learning in asynchronous online WL courses.

The current study sought to provide students with structured opportunities for expanding language and culture learning through film and to explore their perspectives related to structured film viewing in the target language, followed by experiential learning opportunities beyond the classroom setting. This included the exploration of perspectives and construction of knowledge from research or others in their community. As specific goals, the study aimed to identify students' perspectives on using films to expand the online course experience beyond textbook content and beyond the classroom. To this end, an open-ended survey (see Appendix A for the Student Perceptions Survey) was administered to the participants at the end of the term and analyzed using Creswell's (2003) transformational approach.

The findings from this study may be relevant for those considering incorporating film projects into their courses and they could potentially be adapted to other contexts and fields of study. In the exploration of best practices for overcoming the challenges presented by asynchronous online language courses (Al Shlowiy, 2021; Daigle & Stuvland, 2020; Fabriz et al., 2021; Payne, 2020; Xie & Ziebart, 2022), experiential learning through film provides a way to create a communicative community of learners, expanding the conversation between students, instructors, and other stakeholders.

Literature Review

Online, Asynchronous Language Instruction

The COVID-19 pandemic and emergency remote teaching necessitated many changes for teachers, parents, and administrators, most notably in the areas

of implementing effective online instructional techniques and ensuring access to quality virtual educational experiences. Even as classrooms have largely returned to an in-person format, many instructors have continued to consider how best practices in both traditional and online learning can intersect to better serve the needs of learners, the vast majority of whom would be considered "digital natives," (Prensky, 2001, p. 1) or the first generations to have had access to digital technology since birth. WL instruction was not immune to these shifts in instructional techniques and perspectives; however, the implementation of fully online language courses did not begin with the pandemic. Rather, educators and researchers alike have been exploring how learners can best engage with language and culture instruction in the online format for more than two decades. Indeed, in the late 1990s, practitioners began to focus on the benefits of asynchronous discursive models and streaming audio and video for access to and use of authentic materials (see Godwin-Jones, 2021 for a review). It seems, then, that while the pandemic may have accelerated the pace of inquiry into best practices for online language learning, as a discipline WLs had already begun to develop a strong and widely varying repertoire of pedagogical resources and practices for the online classroom experience.

Broadly speaking, these virtual learning spaces can range from fully synchronous to fully asynchronous, with many variations in between (Jansem, 2021). As technological advances allowed for increased mobility of applications across platforms, the flexibility offered by fully asynchronous online courses became not only a reality, but a necessity for many students, allowing them to accelerate their pace of study or to adjust it to their professional and personal schedules (Namada, 2022). Findings specifically for online WL classes mirror these general trends, with students appreciating the opportunity to engage with language study at their own pace, experiencing fewer distractions and less anxiety (Lin & Gao, 2020).

Despite these benefits, teachers and students have also cited challenges in asynchronous online learning, namely the decrease in immediacy of contact with those in the classroom and the lack of a class community, as well as the "repertoire of trust" needed for communication (Payne, 2020, p. 244). In general, learners felt what Daigle and Stuvland (2020) termed the "social presence gap" (p. 380), highlighting the importance of connections between individuals as well as the centrality of the student in the learning experience. For Fabriz (2021), the need for "active, learner-centered" (p. 13) experiences is a particular challenge for asynchronous online classrooms. In the online language classroom specifically, while modality did not seem to affect scores on measures of learning outcomes, such as tests, homework, or oral exams, there were affective factors for students that could negatively impact their language learning experience, including "perceptions [of online learning], self-confidence, anxiety, and enthusiasm" (Al Shlowiy, 2021, p. 6), as well as learner anxiety surrounding communication practice opportunities, teacher feedback, and encouragement from the teacher (Al Shlowiy, 2021; Xie & Ziebart, 2022).

One of the challenges most commonly referenced by language teachers remains the objective of communicative competence without the naturally synchronous nature of in-person classrooms (Moorhouse & Kohnke, 2021). For these teachers, creating a space in which learners have the opportunity to build the variety of

skills related to communicative and intercultural competence is difficult in a fully asynchronous online class. To this end, many have identified tools and resources, such as social media platforms or collaborative writing tools like Google Docs or Padlet (Morehouse & Yan, 2023), as well as the more traditional approach of using movies in their instruction.

Using Film to Expand Classroom Content

When fully integrated into the learning experience, films can constitute an important part of the WL classroom. For many, films are the prime manner in which students are able to engage with authentic materials given their longer format and possibility of well-developed narratives with strong text-to-image pairing. Authentic materials, or those materials made for transmitting meaning outside of the language classroom, usually by native speakers for native speakers (Gilmore, 2007), have long proved to be an effective method of engaging students at the intersection of language and culture in action (ACTFL, n.d.). For Chamba and Gavilanes (2018), authentic materials such as films provide students with comprehensible input that is realistic and organic, allowing learners to see the dynamic nature of exchanging and negotiating meaning in oral communication. The often-familiar narrative structures underlying many films and the longer format also allow educators and students to capitalize on the contextualization of language use in cultural frames of reference that can be applied throughout language lessons (Sánchez-García, 2018). For Yue (2019), films also help develop awareness of sensitive issues often raised while building intercultural communicative competence, like racism and discrimination: "using film has the potential to not only raise greater awareness of cultural differences (and similarities) but also serves to generate a feeling of empathy in learners" (p. 198).

In addition to their value as authentic resources, films also provide an opportunity for teachers to build interest and motivation in the language classroom. Not only are teachers able to identify films that correspond with both student interests and learning goals, they are also able to use films as a window into the target language and culture that can pique student interest to learn further. Shintaku (2022) details the digital literacy practices of students learning Japanese, citing the integration of anime as a key point of interest and motivation for students, given their prior interest in and engagement with this type of media. Increased interest and motivation led to more instances of self-directed learning and exploration of language nuances. For Moeller (2018), this interest builds a self-perpetuating motivation, as learners are able to identify how language learning can serve a real-life purpose.

These benefits of using film for language and culture learning are also apparent in the online language and culture classroom. Films can be used in a variety of ways to invite learner interest through the cultural contexts represented and motivate learners to continue their language study as they see the realistic, natural usage of the forms and functions studied in the course (Steckmest, 2021). When tightly tied to the curriculum, films can allow learners the opportunity to explore complex questions related to societal issues and, according to Barski and Wilkerson-Barker (2019), "relate to and reflect on language as a cultural product and vehicle for enacting different perspectives and practices" (p. 496). Similarly, Taguchi (2020) gives an

example of how films can be used as the catalyst for asynchronous discussion activities related to cultural themes, leading to more in-depth understanding of associated language pragmatics. For González-Lloret (2020), the integration of films is a key step in providing important comprehensible input as the basis for collaborative tasks in online language courses. In all of these examples, the integration of film with the general curriculum allows for a language and culture learning experience that goes beyond textbooks, lists of vocabulary, or verb conjugations. Learners are invited to see how these forms and functions are used for real-life, dynamic communication that is constantly changing and evolving with society. This process allows them to view language as applicable to individual goals and interests beyond the gradebook and to engage in more meaningful communication with the target language. In this sense, the inclusion of film in the online WL classroom works toward what Barski and Wilkerson-Barker (2019) deem imperative for the future of WL learning at the university level: "to facilitate an analytic process of discovery, helping learners to ask questions, interpret answers, and develop an awareness of values" (p. 502).

Going Beyond the Classroom with Experiential Learning

The use of movies as authentic materials to expand language and culture course content can also function for scaffolding larger goals, such as building awareness of critical issues in the target culture as mentioned by Barski and Wilkerson-Barker (2019) or reflective sequences leading to action beyond the classroom. Although some researchers have noted the difficulty of cultivating a sense of learner community (Moser et al., 2021; Tao & Gao, 2022) and shared "repertoire of trust" (Payne, 2020) in overcoming the social presence gap so often cited as a fault of online courses, the asynchronous language and culture classroom actually presents an ideal opportunity for high impact practices (Kuh et al., 2017) such as those in an experiential learning (Kolb, 1984, 2014) cycle.

In this model, students and teachers engage in learning as a process that can be extended beyond the classroom rather than just as an "aggregation of credits" (Dillette & Sipe, 2018). Students work with teachers and other stakeholders to both "grasp" and "transform" their learning experiences (Kolb, 2001, p. 228), moving through four general stages:

1. Concrete experiences: the foundational interaction with learning material

2. Reflective observation: a structured yet dynamic reflection process

3. Abstract conceptualization: Constructing new or different knowledge frameworks upon which one can act

4. Active experimentation: Testing and/or experimenting with new knowledge frameworks

For Kolb (2001), these stages are fluid and occur in a cyclical format, one in which the learner "touches all the bases–experiencing, reflecting, thinking, and acting" (p. 240). Learners must be highly engaged for this deeply personal cycle to

move forward. Baasanjav (2013) notes that online learning's focus on flexibility and decentralized control of learning becomes a greater asset in the context of experiential learning. The time frame associated with an asynchronous course can often lend itself to deeper reflections and preparations for conceptualization and experimentation. In addition, the course format can allow for access to a greater variety of authentic resources and a more flexible timeline with which to work on them. For Amiti (2020), distance has a positive correlation with critical thinking and response cultivation, i.e., students can work at their own pace to fully consider questions, problems, or new constructs. As Bailey et al. (2021) demonstrate, the flexibility of time can combat the social presence gap: "a community of learners produces and continually improves on their ideas, which allows knowledge construction to become a social activity" (p. 2564). Hsiao et al. (2020) add that, with a "multimedia-rich environment" (p. 1), online students can engage with material and move beyond traditional methods of instruction using the experiential learning framework.

In the language classroom specifically, integrating film with course content can structure the "multimedia-rich environment," such that learners are able to engage with experiential learning to build linguistic and intercultural competencies. When thoughtfully integrated with language and culture learning objectives, films can provide a way for students to move beyond the touristic views of culture so often presented in curricula and begin to construct knowledge and perspectives on a new level (Pai & Duff, 2021). This process is a key part of the experiential learning cycle. When used in an asynchronous online course, the flexibility and possibilities for reflection and further action can be structured to help students move away from traditional curriculum to realize Bailey et al.'s (2021) goal of "knowledge construction as a social activity," allowing for concrete experiences, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and, finally, active experimentation with language and culture learning in an individualized, organic manner. This dialogic learning experience can thus be at once student-centered, but also community and trust building, reducing the social presence gap felt in asynchronous online courses.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of the current study was to explore student perspectives related to (1) structured film viewing in the target language, (2) experiential learning opportunities beyond the classroom setting, and (3) the exploration of perspectives from others in their communities. The research questions that this study aimed to answer were:

1. What are students' perspectives on using films to expand the online course experience beyond textbook content?

2. What are students' perspectives on using films to expand the online course experience beyond the classroom?

Methods

Instructional Context

The participants in this study were college students at a mid-size university in the southeastern United States who were enrolled in intermediate level French and Spanish language courses in a fully online, asynchronous instructional context. One of the courses was an intermediate level French Civilization and Culture class taken just after the beginner and intermediate language introductory courses. This course is usually the first content course for French students, meaning most are still at the intermediate proficiency level. Course materials and assignments reflect the proficiency level of the students, and these join structured language learning exercises within the contexts provided by the content. Learners engage in study related to history and social issues, such as political structures, regional identities, and the values and systems related to education in France. The other course was an intermediate level Spanish Language and Hispanic Cultures class, with an emphasis on proficiency and communicative competence at the intermediate level in the four basic skills: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Awareness and understanding of various socio-cultural aspects in Spanish and the distinctiveness of certain cultural traditions are connected with the communicative competencies.

The researchers, who are employed at the same university, were the instructors of record in each course. Each researcher has a background in language pedagogy, with approximately a decade of online teaching experience. Both are interested in the connections between language and culture learning and decided to undertake culture and film projects to expand upon the curriculum in their respective courses. The syllabi for the courses were designed by the researchers to incorporate structured film viewing in the target language. For the first iteration of the project, the researchers worked together to identify films that represented themes from the curriculum, as well as to construct the activities related to the study.

In both courses, students were presented with films related to the vocabulary, grammar, and culture presented in the textbook and other materials. In the French course, students were asked to view *Entre les murs* (Cantet, 2008), a film focusing on the experiences of a new teacher in a diverse and challenging middle school classroom in Paris. In the Spanish course, students watched NO (Larraín, 2012), a film about the 1988 political referendum in Chile where Chileans had to choose between the dictator governing for another term and holding open democratic presidential elections the following year.

To structure their viewing and create an experiential learning opportunity, students were asked to complete a pre-viewing activity consisting of vocabulary practice on the Transparent Language application, some questions to guide their viewing of the films, and reflection prompts. After viewing the film, students were asked to expand their experiences by either sharing and discussing the movie with a peer or engaging in further research. This task also included a reflection prompt. After having engaged in these activities as part of the course structure, students in each class were invited to complete a survey (Appendix A) at the end of the term.

Participants

Out of a total of 25 students enrolled across two fully online intermediate courses in French and Spanish, 17 students volunteered to participate in the study, a response rate of 68%. Of these 17 participants, 8 students were enrolled in the French class and 9 in the Spanish class. Twelve of the participants identified as female, four identified as male, and one identified as non-binary or third gender.

With regards to ethnicity, nine participants identified as White, two as Black/African American, two as Hispanic/Latinx, one as Asian, while three reported an intersectional ethnicity, such as White Hispanic, Black Hispanic, and American Indian/Alaskan Native White Hispanic. With regards to age, ten participants were in the 18 – 24 range, three were between 25 – 34 years old, and four were between 35 – 44 years of age.

Among the 17 participants, four listed French as their major, two listed Spanish, three listed a double major in Spanish and French, and the remaining participants listed various other majors, such as English, psychology, journalism, education, foreign language, health sciences, international business, and organizational leadership.

Pedagogical Approaches

Pre-viewing

To prepare for viewing the films, students were assigned a set of vocabulary activities as well as a predictive reflection prompt based on the title of the films (see Appendix B for all activities used). Students completed the vocabulary activities using the Transparent Language platform. Transparent Language is an online language learning platform and mobile application that offers over 100 languages and allows instructors to author lessons specific to a certain set of vocabulary as well as implement pre-designed ones for more general vocabulary lists. All lessons cover reading, speaking, listening, and writing skills, offering a set of eight activities to choose from, among them pronunciation, dictation, matching, recognition, and an assessment at the end of the lesson. For this study, the researchers authored their own vocabulary lists according to those provided by their respective curricula as well as terms that would be helpful for comprehension of the films (Appendix B). These activities corresponded with the "concrete experience" stage of Kolb's (2001, p. 228) experiential learning cycle and prepared students for how the project would connect with other parts of the course.

During Viewing

Students were given guiding questions (Appendix B) to use while viewing the film for their class. The researchers designed the questions to be applicable to both films in order to increase the replicability of the project as well as to avoid spoiling the plot of the films. This approach allowed students a structured viewing while also keeping the narrative suspense inherent in real-world movie watching. The guiding questions included making a list of unfamiliar words in the movie, as well as identifying the main characters, the location, the time period, and the central conflict or event of the film. In addition, students were asked to reflect on possible

connections to real-life events or issues and finally to summarize the plot in one to two paragraphs. In viewing the film and answering these questions, participants were engaging in the second part of Kolb's (2001) cycle, "reflective observation" (p. 228), through structured yet communicative queries.

Post Viewing

After viewing the films, students in each class were given a set of reflection questions to act as a bridge between film and the experiential component of the project (Appendix B). For this portion of the project, students were allowed to engage in code switching with a detailed explanation from the researchers as to the reasoning behind this allowance. It was made clear that the students should use the target language to the best of their abilities; however, if it was unavoidable, the student could switch between the language of instruction and the shared language (English) to express complex ideas rather than use an online translator. This strategy provided a space where authentic reflection was prioritized alongside the use of the target language.

The first question was movie-specific: for the French film, students were asked about the representation of the educational system in France and for the Spanish film, students were asked about the representation of the 1988 referendum in Chile. The remaining two questions were the same across courses, asking students to elaborate on whether the film focused on a specific group or interaction as well as how the plot might be different if recounted from an alternate perspective. These questions were crafted to push students to reconsider the films beyond a traditional movie watching context and to engage with the ideas of representation, points of view, and stereotypes and/or biases in films. This allowed for the "abstract conceptualization" in Kolb's (2001) cycle, leading to the "active experimentation" phase (p. 228).

Experiential Expansion Activities

Following these phases, students were required to extend their learning through experiential expansion activities related to the films (Appendix B). They were given two options, each of which included a reflection prompt. For the first option, "peer viewing," students could watch the movie a second time with a family member or friend. Students were then required to pose the same questions from their post-viewing activity for a discussion. This was followed by a short paper asking students to reflect upon their shared viewing and the ideas presented. For the second option, students could choose to do "further research" and find two outside sources, such as reviews or articles, offering different perspectives on the film. They would then discuss their findings in a reflective essay.

The researchers elected to provide a choice of activities for this phase in order to create a more inclusive classroom environment, provide flexibility, build upon student interests, and capitalize on the benefits of asynchronous online learning detailed above. With either choice, students were invited to expand their thinking about the films and investigate perspectives outside of their own.

Data Collection and Analysis

The survey (Appendix A) included a total of 20 questions, ten of which were about the students' backgrounds and ten of which were about their perspectives

on using films to expand the online course experience. Of the questions related to student perspectives, seven focused on the activities done before, during, and after the viewing of the films, and three focused on the experiential component. The survey was hosted on Qualtrics and the study participants completed it online during the last two weeks of the term.

The data transformation approach (Creswell, 2003) was used to analyze the survey data, which allowed the researchers to compare the quantitative data from the close-ended survey questions with the qualitative data from the open-ended survey questions. The researchers did frequency counts to analyze data from close-ended survey questions in order to set preliminary themes from the patterns that emerged from the responses. Next, the researchers analyzed the open-ended survey questions using a comparative method, by first coding the questions for themes and later comparing and defining the main themes evident in participant responses. Reliability was established by negotiating codes and a comparison of coded data between researchers. The researchers redefined and renegotiated themes and codes as needed during the data analysis process.

The main themes that emerged were related to participants' perceptions of the helpfulness of vocabulary pre-viewing tasks and guiding and reflection questions, as well as the experiential expansion activities in language and culture courses. Additional themes were related to the effectiveness of expansion activities in asynchronous online courses in general, including perceptions of helpfulness. Emergent themes from both the quantitative and qualitative data sets provided answers to the research questions.

Findings

In general, most of the participants in the study described their experience with the structured film viewing and expansion activities in their online French and Spanish classes as helpful and positive. Participants shared their perspectives on using films to expand the online course experience beyond the textbook content and beyond the classroom. The following section summarizes the findings and answers to each of the research questions.

RQ1: Students' Perspectives on Using Films to Expand the Online Course Experience Beyond Textbook Content

In order to answer the first research question, "What are students' perspectives on using films to expand the online course experience beyond textbook content?," participants were asked about the helpfulness of the pre-viewing activities and the reflection and guiding questions used during viewing. In addition, students were asked about their choice for the experiential component and to explain through written commentary.

Pre-viewing: Helpfulness of Vocabulary Exercises

Student comments regarding the pre-viewing activities focused on the helpfulness of completing targeted vocabulary exercises in Transparent Language prior to viewing the film. Of the 17 respondents, 88% (n = 15) found the vocabulary activity

to be helpful, with 59% (n = 10) finding it "very helpful." The remaining 12% (n = 2) were neutral on the matter. All but one of the participants expanded on their responses through written comments, some of which are shared below:

Helpful	"The vocabulary exercises in Transparent Language are not overly difficult, but are effective in helping one learn new vocabulary. Then when it comes time to view the film or to read an article that contains the vocabulary, the terms are not brand new. It is not necessary to pause the film to look up vocabulary." (French) "Reviewing the words beforehand gave me more context as to what the movie was going to be about, and I was able to recognize those words in speech much easier." (Spanish)
Neutral	"I'm fluent in French, I did not need the vocabulary to understand." (French) "I think reviewing the vocabulary was helpful but I would have gotten the same help from a list of vocab released to have while watching the movie." (French)

During Viewing: Helpfulness of Guiding and Reflection Questions

In addressing the activities used during viewing, students discussed the helpfulness of having specific guiding questions while watching the film. All (100%) of the respondents felt that they were helpful, with 53% (n = 9) finding them "very helpful." In addition, participants shared whether the more general reflection questions helped them structure their viewing. Of the 17 respondents, 82% (n = 14) said that the reflection questions were helpful, whereas 18% (n = 3) stated that they were not. Participants explained their responses in more detail, as seen in the sample comments below:

Guiding Questions.

"The films have more than one theme or main idea. It is helpful to have a guided question or two to help you know what to look for while watching the film and to have a common area of discussion as a class." (French)

"The questions helped me keep going, but at times, I would get lost on if I was actually correct." (Spanish)

"I am horrible at remembering names and dates. Having guiding questions forced me to recall dates and main character names, which actually helped me keep track of "who's who" during the movie." (Spanish)

"The guided questions allowed me to think deeper about the subject matter behind the film, rather than the film itself. They also offered a decent structure for the writing assignment in Paso 3." (Spanish)

Reflection Questions.

"Although I understood the movie and the context behind it, the reflection questions helped me to be able to put my thoughts into words. To compare, my mind was like

a ball of yarn with thoughts over the movie, and with the guiding questions, the yarn was well woven into a sweater." (Spanish)

"Similarly to the guided questions, they helped me to develop my thinking on something I had no prior experience with. I have never witnessed a dictatorship in my real life, nor in my real country. Therefore, the reflection questions gave me ways to look at this film through various perspectives after watching it, and make several arguments and statements when writing about it." (Spanish)

"I would describe it as neutral. Good practice, but neutral." (Spanish)

"I tried not to be too influenced by the questions because I thought it would be better to watch the movie without much outside thought, just my own reaction. Afterwards, I reread the questions and noted scenes that illustrated the points from the guided questions." (French)

Post Viewing: Experiential Activity

Choice. To begin their discussion of the post-viewing experiential expansion activity, students shared their choice between peer viewing and discussion of the film or further research on the film topic and their rationales for their choices. Of the 17 respondents, 59% (n = 10) chose the peer viewing and discussion activity and the remaining 41% (n = 7) chose to do further research. Some comments describing their rationales are shared in the table below:

Peer Viewing	"I was able to watch it with my mom and discuss. It was great!" (French) "I watched this film twice because I did not really understand at first, so I had my friend watch it also and he also had a hard time understanding and we are both Mexican. However, it goes to show how so many different Latin languages differ." (Spanish) "Because I had a friend watch it with me as well, but he does not speak Spanish at all, so we had to rewind a couple of times during the movie." (Spanish)
Further Research	"I chose it because I didn't have time to find someone who was willing and available to watch the film and answer questions about it." (French) "Film has always interested me, so choosing to do further research on the movie and finding out more "behind the scenes" information, as well as its effect on others was an easy decision. However, I have recommended the film to several friends in hopes that they will watch it and get back to me on their thoughts. There was not enough time in my family/friends' schedules, nor mine, to watch it together." (Spanish)

Expansion of Film Topic. Subsequently, students discussed whether the post-viewing experiential activity helped to expand their thinking/knowledge about the topic of the film. Of the 17 respondents, 76% (n = 13) found this activity helpful,

while 24% (n = 4) felt that it was not. Most students explained their survey answers in more detail through written comments, some of which are shared below:

Helpful	"The post-viewing activity gave me greater insight into the film. One of the reviews that I read made a connection in the film that I did not make. It was also helpful to see how other people understood the key ideas of the film." (French) "I think the discussion helped me frame the topic in a clearer way (...) It is interesting to see how the media portrayed certain issues." (French)
Not Helpful	"I think the reflection was sufficient." (French) "Not really, only because my sister and I had the same perspective on the movie. It was hard to come up with a full page of writing over it." (Spanish)

Expansion of Language and Culture Thinking. Finally, students shared perspectives on how the post-viewing activity helped expand their thinking/ knowledge about Spanish or French language and culture. Of the 17 students, 82% (n = 14) felt that it did and 18% (n = 3) felt that it was not helpful in this regard. Most students further elaborated on their responses through written comments. A sample comment from each perspective is shared below:

"The [further research] helped me think more deeply about the film and helped me consider how the French educational system is structured. It also caused me to reflect upon how the classroom acts as a microcosm of French society." (French)

"Being that the post activity was mainly for our peer to answer or tell us how they feel about the movie, it did not really expand my knowledge or thinking about the Spanish culture." (Spanish)

RQ 2: Students' Perspectives on Using Films to Expand the Experience Beyond the Classroom

In order to answer the second research question, "What are students' perspectives on using films to expand the online course experience beyond the classroom?," participants were asked to identify aspects of the peer viewing or further research that were interesting or unexpected, as well as to discuss the effectiveness of these activities. In addition, students were asked to consider the helpfulness of experiential expansion activities in an online language and culture course.

Student Reflections on Experiential Learning with Film

When discussing their experiences either with peer viewing or further research, students highlighted different areas that were surprising or unexpected to them. The themes most frequently mentioned in their responses were related to explorations of perspectives, such as through comparison and contrast of viewpoints, and an increased depth of understanding through additional interaction with the film. They

also shared thoughts on how language is experienced through audio and subtitles as well as greater insight into historical/cultural backgrounds. Some of the responses are shared below:

> "My partner has never learned about French culture or education so it was interesting to see the contrast between my thoughts and hers. I also liked to bridge the gap in understanding because that solidified my comprehension on the subject." (French)
>
> "I found interesting how even being from very different generations, we agreed in some topics from the movie." (French)
>
> "I was surprised how they were also confused about the film at first. I thought it was just me and my lack of Spanish but his first language is Spanish so to see him struggle in understanding made me realize there are different types of Spanish language." (Spanish)

Effectiveness of Expanding Beyond the Traditional Classroom

Students also shared perspectives on the effectiveness of taking activities that are traditionally intended to be done within a classroom and expanding them beyond the classroom environment. Out of 17 participants, 88% (n = 15) found it effective to expand the activities beyond the classroom, whereas 12% (n = 2) participants did not. Sample comments are shared below from each viewpoint.

Effective	"In an online environment, it is necessary to have activities like this to go deeper with the material. Also, I would have liked to have completed the peer viewing as it would have given needed social interaction in an academic setting. That is something that is definitely lacking in an online environment, naturally." (French)
	"I feel that doing activities outside of a classroom environment is always helpful in solidifying information, especially when it comes to language courses." (Spanish)
	"While it may not be necessary, topics which many find interesting can be fueled by others' thoughts and opinions. More information can be shared, therefore more can be learned in a team-based environment." (Spanish)
Not Effective	"Honestly, no. I discovered all the information I needed when watching the movie and answering the reflection questions." (Spanish)

Helpfulness of Expansion Activities in an Online Language and Culture Course

Finally, students were asked to reflect on whether it is helpful to include expansion activities such as the peer viewing or further research in an online language

and culture course. All 17 (100%) students felt that these activities are helpful in an online language and culture course. Most students wrote comments to elaborate on their responses. Some sample comments are shared below:

> "The films and the exercises surrounding the films were some of my favorite assignments/projects in my collegiate career. Film is an outstanding window into culture and a great starting place for conversation." (French)

> "These types of assignments are not common. Online courses can often swing between engaging and monotonous pretty quickly so I think having something with an 'outside' application piques interest and helps the student stay interested in the topic." (French)

> "Yes, these expansion activities are especially helpful in an online course since there is less interaction and immersion than traditional classroom settings." (Spanish)

> "To watch a movie in Spanish was very helpful because on a day to day I am hardly ever around anyone who speaks Spanish so to hear it in a movie while I am taking the course was very helpful and also interesting." (Spanish)

> "Watching this film and proceeding with the activities gave me a direct view into a culture which I had no prior (vital) knowledge of. Hearing others speak the language made me more comfortable speaking it myself, as well." (Spanish)

Discussion

Student responses demonstrated that participants found the experience with the structured film viewing and the experiential expansion activities to be both helpful and positive. Most participants (88%) found the pre-viewing vocabulary exercises to be a helpful way to prepare for viewing the film. Students appreciated being able to practice and review beforehand, for example, it "gave more context" about the film and introduced new words related to textbook vocabulary. While viewing the film, the guiding and reflection questions provided structure, in fact, 100% of the participants considered the guiding questions to be helpful. Similarly, 82% found the reflection questions to be a helpful part of the film viewing. Regarding the post-viewing activities, participants were able to choose activities that addressed preferences or scheduling needs: 59% of the participants chose the peer viewing and discussion activity, while 41% chose to conduct further research on the film topic. Overall, 76% found the post-viewing activity to be helpful in expanding their thinking/knowledge about the topic of the film. Further, 82% found this phase to be helpful in expanding their thinking/knowledge about Spanish or French language and culture.

These findings echo the literature surrounding the use of films in the language and culture classroom. For ACTFL (n.d.) and Gilmore (2007), authentic materials are essential for students to see the dynamic intersections of language and culture in action. For example, one student elaborated on this point, saying that watching a movie in the target language "was very helpful because on a day to day I am hardly ever around anyone who speaks Spanish." For this student, the movie provided the

contextualized, realistic, and organic comprehensible input described by Chamba and Gavilanes (2018) and Sánchez-García (2018).

In addition, the integration of these activities allowed students to think more deeply about the topics presented in the curriculum. As one student stated, the reflection questions "helped me see and think about things I had not previously thought about." For another, they helped the student to "think deeper and analyze the movie from a different point of view." Students were also able to take these reflections farther when considering the themes of the films; for one participant, "the activities left me grateful that I never had to experience anything like that in my real life thus far, and also opened my eyes to the fact that dictatorships are still very relevant, and several countries are still suffering from them." The scaffolded integration of the films gave the participants the opportunity to consider difficult cultural and historical issues in more depth, such as the dictatorship at the center of the story in NO, mirroring Yue's (2019) findings that students are able to develop awareness about sensitive issues as well as feelings of empathy for those in different cultures.

For many students, the integration of the experiential film project positively influenced their interest in aspects of language and culture in a way that the textbooks did not and increased their motivation to learn more, as found in Steckmest (2021). As one student stated, "I found it surprising that my peer could understand the plot of the movie and not understand Spanish. I found it interesting that my peer and I had similar thoughts about the movie as well." Another student echoed this, albeit with a slightly different focus, stating, "I found it interesting that even though my sister had to read the English subtitles the entire time, that we had the same perspectives about the movie." For these students, the film project provided an interaction space in which to consider both the linguistic and cultural input of the movie more deeply, as well as to engage in reflection on meta-linguistic questions related to media. Interestingly, this same point was offered by a different student as to their motivation in choosing a post-viewing activity: "I was curious to see my peer's thoughts on the topic of the movie. Also, I was curious to see if they understood as well via subtitles rather than language knowledge." This interest or "curiosity" for these students–for some a realization, for another the motivation or preparation–was a driving factor in the different parts of the project.

The integration of the film also allowed students to explore questions related to their own linguistic and cultural heritages. One student repeatedly reflected on linguistic differences between Chilean Spanish and Mexican Spanish: "I watched this film twice because I did not really understand at first, so I had my friend watch it also and he also had a hard time understanding and we are both Mexican. However, it goes to show how so many different Latin languages differ." This student was actively engaging in self-reflection as well as reflection on the indelible connection between language and culture, similar to that described by Barski and Wilkerson-Barker (2019) and Taguchi (2020). In this way, the film project as an experiential learning component gave students the opportunity to actively engage in the "analytic process of discovery" mentioned by Barski and Wilkerson-Barker (p. 502, 2019).

Regarding the use of films to expand the learning experience beyond the traditional online classroom, students discussed different aspects of the activities

that were surprising or unexpected. For example, students shared thoughts about exploring and comparing perspectives in their selected expansion activities as well as how the activity deepened their understanding of historical and cultural backgrounds, the way language works, and the films themselves. When discussing online course activities more generally, 88% of the participants found it effective to introduce experiences that expanded beyond the traditional classroom environment. More specifically, participants found it helpful to integrate expansion activities such as peer viewing and further research into an online language and culture course. In fact, 100% (n = 17) of participants found these activities to be helpful, considering them more "engaging," a way to introduce the "interaction and immersion" often missing in online courses, or even "some of my favorite assignments/projects in my collegiate career."

For most students, transitioning activities that are usually part of the traditional classroom environment into asynchronous collaborative spaces provided an opportunity to engage in reflective sequences leading to action outside the classroom. As one student stated, "I think both types of assignments [peer viewing and further research] are motivating. Instead of breaking down a film in a straightforward essay, you can have some freedom with research and discussion." This freedom is supported by the asynchronous online context, making it an opportunity for high impact practices (Kuh et al., 2017) like experiential learning, rather than a challenge to be overcome. This is also described by Baasanjav (2013) who noted that the flexibility and decentralization of online asynchronous courses are assets for experiential learning.

Using these expansion activities, online courses bridge the social presence gap (Daigle & Stuvland, 2020), creating the communities of learners found missing by Moser (2021) and Tao and Gao (2022). Another student underlines the importance of these interactive experiential learning cycles, stating "While it may not be necessary, topics which many find interesting can be fueled by others' thoughts and opinions. More information can be shared, therefore more can be learned in a team-based environment." This student demonstrates the power of experiential learning activities in the online course not only to expand the course content but also to provide constructive opportunities to widen perspectives through connections with others.

When focusing on language and culture courses specifically, the integration of a structured film project that was tightly tied to learning objectives was a successful experiential learning opportunity. Expanding activities to include film provided the "multimedia-rich environment" of Hsiao et al. (2020) that includes authentic materials and reflective sequences. As one student emphasized, online courses can often be "monotonous," thus "having something with an 'outside' application piques interest." For another, activities like these lead students to "appreciate other people's point of view from that culture." These students mirror the findings of Pai and Duff (2021), stating that films can make it possible to avoid the often touristic views of other cultures as represented in textbooks. In addition, students also found that they were able to construct new knowledge and perspectives as central to Pai and Duff's (2021) argument: "Watching this film and proceeding with the activities gave me a direct view into a culture which I had no prior (vital) knowledge of."

In providing a different, more authentic representation of the basic topics covered in the textbook, the films laid a foundation for students to move beyond passive learning of vocabulary toward a more integrative, active construction of concepts.

Study Limitations and Future Research

This research study is somewhat limited by the scope and size of its sample. The research findings stem from data collected from one section of an intermediate level Spanish course and one section of an intermediate level French course from the same institution in the same academic term. Studying additional groups of students, from additional languages, from different proficiency levels, across several academic terms would be beneficial in future research studies.

A final limitation of the study is related to the timing of the research instrument. Students took the survey at the end of the academic term, when most grades were already known to them, so that information as well as their attitude about their course grades may have influenced their responses, opinions, and their overall positivity or negativity about the experience. Collecting survey data from future groups of students at different points of the academic term may be worth considering.

Although not a part of the current study due to time constraints, the researchers would like to incorporate additional experiential learning components to the film assignments in future research projects, such as expanding activities, including discussion boards for student predictions as part of the pre-viewing portion, and adding opportunities for student discussion to wrap up the post-viewing portion, among others. Finally, the researchers would also like to include interdisciplinary collaborations and explore different topics in future experiential learning research projects.

Pedagogical Implications

Previous research in this area focuses on the use of film or experiential learning in traditional classrooms and synchronous online settings. This study, however, has demonstrated overall positive student perspectives on the use of films to provide expanded, experiential learning opportunities in asynchronous online language and culture courses. Given the responses detailing the activities as "helpful," "interesting," and even "some of the best in my collegiate career," some considerations are presented for those contemplating implementing similar objectives and tasks. These include experiential learning stages, differentiation of process and product, and strong scaffolding at each stage.

The results indicate that designing activities within Kolb's (1984, 2014) experiential learning cycle can provide opportunities for new knowledge construction. The films were carefully chosen, and the activities crafted to have strong connections with the existing curriculum and the proficiency levels of the students. The strengths of asynchronous courses often lie in time for reflection and possibilities for options that address student needs. The present study built upon these by allowing several weeks for the activities with interspersed deadlines as well as differentiation through a choice of expansion activities. The activity sequence was scaffolded to provide students with varied points of reflection, as well as the freedom to explore themes of interest, increasing motivation and curiosity.

As more language and culture departments begin to explore asynchronous online language and culture courses, these results demonstrate the possibilities for active, discovery learning that builds upon students' lived experiences and funds of knowledge (Moll, 2019) to construct meaning through experimentation and reflection.

With these strengths in mind, the following are some tips for instructors who wish to incorporate a similar experiential learning through film activity sequence in their course:

- Become familiar with the areas of Kolb's (1984, 2014) experiential learning cycle and ensure that you are identifying how each of your activities "touches all the bases" (Kolb, 2001, p. 240).
- Choose films that are tightly linked to the curriculum but that provide opportunities to expand student perspectives and discussion.
- Consider issues of equity and access for the films. Ensure there are no barriers:
    - Choose free films or apply for funding to purchase the film online.
    - Provide an online space where students can schedule to watch the film if needed.
    - Provide information for technical support for the film viewing platform.
    - Ensure the platform has support for differently-abled students.
- Watch the movie several times to become familiar with different areas for engagement and to identify portions that will be challenging for language and culture comprehension.
- Watch asynchronously with a friend or family member not in your physical location to identify technical issues and how to overcome them, as well as to identify ways that you might need to model constructive discussion of difficult topics for your students.
- Determine broader themes in the film as related to social justice, diversity, the connections between language and culture, or language varieties to be presented throughout the unit/chapter/course.
- Provide strong scaffolding for students as they progress through the activities. This might include discussion prompts, vocabulary/ pronunciation activities, previewing reflections, and tips on how to approach watching a movie in the target language.
- Strongly integrate the film chosen and the products expected with course content and objectives, with special consideration given to proficiency levels, age ranges, classroom cultures, and student scheduling needs.
- Differentiate the process and product when possible. Provide a choice of activities for the experiential learning expansion phase (here, peer viewing or further research), as well as a variety of formats in which students can submit their work, such as essays, reflective recordings, "podcasts" of student discussions, or even artwork.
- Make a short video to briefly, yet clearly explain to students the purpose of the activity and how it fits into communicative learning goals. Provide all materials in advance, as well as rubrics or grading expectations, and

reference these as they are discussed in this video.

- Keep wording of reflection and guiding questions general to avoid giving away details or influencing student perspectives. This also helps instructors who would like to recycle prompts or use the same activity structure for several films, especially if they would like to compare and contrast perspectives about different films in a course. See Appendix B for the guiding and reflection questions used in this study as examples.
- Spread the stages of the activity over several weeks, ideally one to two weeks per stage, to allow for adequate time to reflect and discuss in the target language.
- Provide space for classroom community building through whole group discussions after the activity sequence.
- Consider if and when it may be appropriate to allow for code switching. Clearly define these windows for students.

Conclusion

Current emphases for both high impact practices and increased online learning options are lasting effects of the COVID-19 pandemic in higher education. Although asynchronous online courses are sought after for their increased flexibility, this format necessitates innovative approaches to the communicative study of language and culture. This study sought to explore how experiential learning could be implemented in online asynchronous language courses as such an approach, using films to provide opportunities to connect language and culture as well as create possibilities for knowledge construction within a community of learners.

Kolb's (1984, 2014) Experiential Learning Cycle was used as a theoretical framework through which to structure viewing activities and expand beyond traditional curriculum, inviting students to move from concrete experiences like vocabulary exercises to more reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation in viewing and discussing films. In general, students found the implementation of the experiential learning cycle through film to be a helpful and effective aspect of the course design, allowing them to explore and compare perspectives as well as deepen their understanding of the target language and the cultural and historical backgrounds represented in the films.

This study makes a case for integrating experiential learning expansion activities in online language and culture courses and the benefits of using film to do so. Scaffolding student learning through pre-viewing and during-viewing activities allowed for the reflection and engagement necessary in the post-viewing and experiential stage. This dialogic learning experience can thus be at once student-centered, but can also be community and trust building, reducing the social presence gap felt in asynchronous online courses.

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Appendix A

Student Perceptions Survey

Pre-viewing

1. How helpful was having the vocabulary lesson in Transparent Language before watching the movie? (choice and open response)
Very helpful
Somewhat helpful
Neither helpful nor unhelpful
Somewhat unhelpful
Very unhelpful
Explain your answer in the box below.

2. What else would have been helpful to know or do before watching the film? (open response)

During Viewing

3. How helpful was it to have the guiding questions while watching the film? (choice and open response)
Please explain your answer in the box below.

4. Did the reflection question(s) help you structure your viewing of the film? (choice and open response)
Yes
No
Please explain your answer in the box below.

Post Viewing

5. Which post-viewing activity did you choose? (choice and open response)
Peer viewing & discussion of the film
Further research
Why did you choose this? Please explain in the box below.

6. Do you feel that having a post-viewing activity in the course helped to expand your thinking/knowledge about this topic? (choice and open response)
Yes
No
Please explain your answer in the box below.

7. Do you feel that having a post-viewing activity in the course helped to expand your thinking/knowledge about Spanish or French language and culture? (choice and open response)
    Yes
    No
    Please explain your answer in the box below.

8. What did you find interesting/surprising/unexpected about sharing the movie with someone outside of the class or reading more about the topic? Please explain your answer in the box below. (open response below)

9. Do you find it effective to take activities that are traditionally intended to be done within a classroom environment and expand them beyond the classroom environment, such as peer viewing or further research? (choice and open response)
    Yes
    No
    Please explain your answer in the box below.

10. Do you think that these expansion activities are helpful in an online language and culture course? (choice and open response)
    Yes
    No
    Please explain your answer in the box below.

Appendix B

Activities Used in Experiential Learning Cycle

I. Pre-viewing activities
    A. French Transparent Language vocabulary list
        1. défavorisé(e) - disadvantaged
        2. l'autonomie - independence, autonomy
        3. accéder - to access
        4. s'épanouir - to blossom, to "come out of your shell"
        5. l'égalité des chances - equal opportunity
        6. le Baccalauréat - standardized test after le lycée
        7. le Brevet des collèges - standardized test after year 10
        8. l'échec - failure
        9. carcéral(e) - prison-like
        10. Paris intra-muros - Paris city (as opposed to Paris and its suburbs)
        11. une zone d'éducation prioritaire - area where schools receive special funding
        12. attiser les tensions - to fuel tensions

B.   Spanish Transparent Language vocabulary list
  1.   contexto social - social context
  2.   ciudadanía - citizenship
  3.   campaña - campaign
  4.   dictadura - dictatorship
  5.   dictador - dictator
  6.   democracia - democracy
  7.   plebiscito - plebiscite
  8.   votar - to vote
  9.   el voto - the vote
  10. campaña electoral - electoral campaign
  11. discurso político - political speech / political discourse
  12. partido político - political party
  13. gobierno - government
  14. protesta - protest / demonstration
  15. censura - censorship
  16. oposición - opposition
  17. constitución - constitution
  18. elecciones libres - free elections
  19. libertad de expresión - freedom of speech
  20. libertad de prensa - freedom of the press
  21. lugar de votación - polling location

C. Predictive reflection prompt (used for both films): After reviewing this vocabulary and knowing the title of the movie is _____, what do you expect to see? What do you think the movie is about?

II. During viewing activity
  A. Guiding questions (used for both films):
    1.   Make a list of any words that are unfamiliar to you as you are watching the film.
    2.   Who are the main characters in the film?
    3.   Where is the film located?
    4.   When do the events in the film take place?
    5.   What is the central conflict or event in the film? Are they based on real life events?
    6.   Summarize the plot of the film in 1-2 paragraphs.

III. Post-viewing activity
  A. Reflection questions
      Instructions: Code switching is allowed. I want to know your thoughts in depth on these ideas but I also want to see your real French/Spanish. So please try your best in French/Spanish but write in the language in which you feel most comfortable and feel free to change during your response if needed. For example, if you feel that you need to use Google translate or similar, switch to your native language for that portion of your response.

If French/Spanish is your native language, please use that if you feel most comfortable doing so.

1. How did the movie represent the educational system in France? (French class) / How did the movie represent the 1988 referendum in Chile? (Spanish class)
2. Do you feel that the movie focused on one type of group or interaction? Please explain your response (both classes).
3. Might the story or plot be different if told from a different perspective? Please explain your response (both classes).

B. Experiential Learning component

Instructions: Now that you have watched the film and reflected on it, let's take your experience beyond the "classroom." Please choose between one of the two options below.

Code switching is allowed. I want to know your thoughts in depth on these ideas but I also want to see your real French/Spanish. So please try your best in French/Spanish but write in the language in which you feel most comfortable and feel free to change during your response if needed. For example, if you feel that you need to use Google translate or similar, switch to your native language for that portion of your response. If French/Spanish is your native language, please use that if you feel most comfortable doing so.

Option A: Peer Viewing

Watch the movie a second time with a family member or friend. You can also do this with more than one person in a small group of 3-4 people. After viewing the film, pose the reflection questions that you have already answered to this person and discuss your points of view. Write a reflection (minimum length: one page) on your experience viewing and discussing the movie. Detail the person's responses and share two interesting points from your discussion. Did you learn anything new? Did your second viewing and peer discussion change your perspectives?

Option B: Further Reading

Look for two other sources (articles, reviews, etc.) that offer different perspectives about the film. Compare and contrast the sources. Write a reflection (minimum length: one page) summarizing what you have learned from your reading, including what made the perspectives different from each other, and what you think about them. Do you agree or disagree? Why is it important to consider who tells the story and whose perspective is being shared? Please include the sources or links to the articles that you used for this assignment.

5

Bridging Instruction of the Spanish Subjunctive: Exploring Task Types for Heritage and L2 Learners

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Abstract

To this day, there are only a few studies that have used a controlled instructional intervention on specific linguistic structures to investigate if language instruction is beneficial for heritage learners (HLs), in the same way it is for second (L2) language learners, and more research in this area is rapidly needed (Bowles, 2018). The results from this small body of research suggest that explicit language instruction can be beneficial for HLs, but overall L2 learners still appear to benefit from language instruction more than their HLs counterparts (Potowski et al., 2009; Torres, 2018, inter alia). The present study seeks to contribute to this growing body of research and further examines if the type of task employed to measure learning gains plays a role in the uneven outcomes heritage and L2 learners evidence after receiving language instruction.

Keywords: instructed language instruction, assessment tasks, L2 and HL Spanish, subjunctive mood

Introduction

The field of heritage language acquisition has grown dramatically in the last 20 years. Heritage languages and their speakers have gained more attraction and have become a central focus of different areas of linguistic research. From theoretical accounts that seek to investigate how interrupted input exposure to a first language (upon starting schooling) can result in language loss or attrition (Bayram et al., 2020; Polinsky, 2011), to psycholinguistic accounts that explore if early acquisition (in comparison to later onset of acquisition during puberty) grants heritage speakers (HS) the ability to use abstract grammatical information in real-time (Jegerski, 2018). Nevertheless, less focus has been placed on instructed heritage language acquisition (IHLA), which examines how controlled instructional interventions focusing on specific linguistic structures can help heritage learners (HL) master formal aspects of their heritage language grammar that show signs of differential acquisition (Pascual y Cabo & Rothman, 2012) due to reduced and differential input in a minority context (Bowles, 2022). In fact, as Bayram and colleagues (2016) pointed out, formal and

pedagogical approaches to heritage language acquisition have remained separate and disconnected, but understanding formal linguistic approaches to heritage language acquisition can be extremely beneficial to the development of heritage language pedagogies, as it can help establish how the linguistic system of HS differs from that of monolingual speakers and of second language learners, and can therefore aid establish which and how certain formal aspects of the language could be addressed and taught in the Spanish language curriculum.

According to the most recent American Community Survey data from 2019, the number of Spanish speakers in the United States is 67,802,345 million, making it the most spoken minority language in the United States. Consequently, we have seen that the number of Spanish HS enrolling in Spanish language courses has also increased rapidly (Bowles, 2018). Nevertheless, little is known about the outcomes of classroom teaching of minority languages (Bowles & Torres, 2021; Montrul & Bowles, 2017). Some argue that world languages curricula, designed for foreign language learners, are largely inappropriate for HLs (Carreira & Kagan, 2011; Oh & Au, 2005), and that on some occasions sharing a classroom with Spanish second language (L2) learners can cause HLs to feel insecure about their language ability (Potowski, 2002), affecting their learning outcomes. Today's reality is that most heritage learners (HLs) who choose to study their heritage language in a formal context (school or college) end up in a foreign language classroom with L2 learners, because very few programs have a separate teaching track for HLs that is designed to meet their learning needs (Beaudrie, 2012). Research in mixed classrooms suggests that heritage and L2 learners can work together for mutual benefits, if oral and written tasks are balanced and the two types of learners have a similar proficiency level (Bowles et al. 2014; Henshaw & Hetrovicz, 2021). Unfortunately, this optimal scenario is very rare given that foreign language assessment tools tend to be written non-open-ended tasks (Kang et al., 2019), and the number of standardized tests developed to assess HLs' knowledge to place them in the most appropriate class are scarce (Potowski et al., 2012). If we want education, which is a human right, to be more inclusive, more research efforts should be put towards understanding if and how HLs can develop and/or maintain their heritage language (beyond what they acquire at home) through language and literacy instruction.

The field of heritage language instruction is broad, but the present study aims to focus on the subfield of grammar language instruction which is characterized for employing a traditional approach including the use of pre- and posttests that investigates the effects of one or two pedagogical approaches on one grammatical variable (e.g., Spanish subjunctive in adjectival clauses). Within this subset of studies, results often point to explicit instruction—containing explicit information and feedback—as being particularly beneficial (Beaudrie & Holmes, 2022; Bowles & Torres, 2021; Fernández Cuenca & Bowles, 2022), when compared to implicit approaches. Furthermore, the few studies that investigate how heritage and L2 learners respond to grammar instruction, point to L2 learners benefitting from language instruction more than HLs, at least based on the outcome measures used to assess learning over time (Potowski et al., 2009; Torres, 2018; among others). That is, HLs sometimes do not show improvement or exhibit partial learning gains (Montrul & Bowles, 2010) depending on the assessment task used (Fernández Cuenca &

Bowles, 2022; Montrul & Bowles, 2010; Potowski et al., 2009), whereas L2 learners show significant learning gains across assessment tasks over time and, in some cases, higher effect sizes (Bowles & Torres, 2021; Torres, 2018). Some attribute these differences to heritage and L2 learners approaching the assessment tasks differently–such as L2 learners focusing on form while HLs tend to focus more on meaning and the communicative content of the task at hand–and to HLs not perceiving corrective feedback as corrective (Torres, 2018), which could explain why implicit approaches to language instruction that do not bring awareness to form are the ones leading to the weakest or no learning gains at all for HLs (Beaudrie & Holmes, 2022; Fernández Cuenca & Bowles, 2022). Spanish heritage and L2 learners differ in the context as well as the mode in which they acquire Spanish. L2 learners begin learning a foreign language later in life (i.e., after puberty) with the input coming mostly from a language instructor in a classroom setting, and more prominently in a written than oral form. On the other hand, HLs acquire their heritage language early in life in an oral mode, and do not always receive formal education in their heritage language. Consequently, these differences are likely to influence both the nature of heritage and L2 learners' linguistic knowledge and how they draw on it when approaching language learning or completion of a language task (Bowles, 2011).

As Bowles (2018) points out, the field of instructed heritage language acquisition (IHLA) is just starting to grow, and we need more experimental studies that manipulate aspects of instruction and compare the learning outcomes of different conditions with similar groups of learners to be able to directly assess how effective grammar language instruction is for adult heritage learners. Furthermore, identifying the instructional factors that lead to differential learning outcomes for heritage and L2 learners is paramount since both learners tend to share a language classroom, and understanding how to best adapt language instruction so it becomes equally beneficial for both types of learners is our responsibility as educators (see Carreira & Chik, 2018, to learn more about differentiated instruction). Finally, Bowles (2018) and Bowles and Torres (2022) called for researchers to adopt a systematic empirical approach grounded on conceptual or partial replication, largely based on instructed second language acquisition (ISLA) research, which can confirm or challenge previous findings and that allows us to collect data from larger groups of learners to be able to generalize findings.

The present study seeks to contribute to this growing body of research on the outcomes of heritage language instruction by conducting a partial replication of Fernández Cuenca and Bowles (2022), and by adding a comparison L2 group. The addition of a comparison L2 group has been the norm in previous studies that further examined if the type of outcome measure employed to assess learning gains plays a role in the uneven benefits heritage and L2 learners evidence after receiving language instruction. To our knowledge only two studies, one with L2 learners (Sanz, 1997), and one with HLs (Torres, 2022) have investigated how task modality, and in the case of Sanz (1997) also degree of discreteness (how open-ended the tasks were—), can interact with the observed learning gains these learners exhibit post-instruction.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. We start by discussing: (a) the factors that make acquisition of grammatical mood (particularly subjunctive mood) challenging for both heritage and L2 learners, and (b) we synthesize the literature on

Spanish mood acquisition for both types of learners, and how language instruction can help them learn this grammatical feature. In the methods section, we lay out the research questions, provide an in-depth description of the methodology adopted in the study, and report the results from the statistical analyses. We close the paper with a discussion of the importance of the findings, how they compare to previous studies, followed by a list of some pedagogical implications for educators teaching heritage or mixed classes.

Literature Review

Acquisition of Spanish Mood

Spanish grammatical mood is semantically abstract and linguistically complex because it involves, morphology, sentence-level semantics, and morphosyntax. The meaning conveyed by the verb or lexical expression in the matrix clause triggers either the use of subjunctive or indicative in the subordinate clause, resulting in a long-distance dependency in which the use of the subjunctive mood in the subordinate clause depends on the lexical semantics of the verb or lexical expression in the matrix clause (see example 1).

1. Joanne quiere   una casa   que esté   en la ciudad
   Joanne want-PRES3SG a house   that be-PST-SBJV in the city
   'Joanne wants a house in the city.'

The subjunctive mood is less frequently used than its indicative counterpart (Biber et al., 2006; Kanwit & Geeslin, 2018). It is also highly variable among monolingually-raised Spanish speakers who still live in a Spanish-speaking country, and this characteristic of the subjunctive holds true for speakers who migrated and reside in the United States (Blas-Arroyo & Porcar Miralles, 1997; Gudmestad, 2006, 2012; Viner, 2018). Moreover, if the verb in the embedded clause is regular, and the difference between the indicative and the subjunctive mood is only marked by a change in thematic vowel (a→e or e→ a, i), the morphological saliency is minimal (Collentine, 1997; Gudmestad, 2006). For this gamut of reasons, it is not surprising that acquisition of mood, especially subjunctive mood, posits a challenge for heritage and L2 learners.

Acquisition of Mood by Heritage and Second Language Learners

Studies that analyzed heritage speaker corpora in the United States have found that there is an intergenerational decline in subjunctive mood use, compared to traditional monolingual standards (Lynch, 1999; Silva-Corvalán, 1994; Viner, 2018). A pattern in which the use of indicative mood grows categorically in the speech from second and third-generation HS in contexts where the subjunctive is normatively expected, and that drops drastically in non-obligatory contexts—a context in which the speaker intentionally uses mood to signal what they mean (e.g., degree of certainty)—, even with first-generation Spanish speakers (Silva-Corvalán, 1994). In the case of the imperfect of subjunctive, which is the target form used in the

present study, Silva- Corvalán (1994) found that less fluent third-generation HS did not use this form at all. Nonetheless, Viners' (2018) most recent study revealed that subjunctive mood was still substantially operational in second-generation HS, but the linguistic constraints conditioning the variation of the two moods (e.g., tense) seemed to be weaker than those observed in first-generation Spanish speakers.

Studies that employed interpretation and production tasks to elicit HS' responses, rather than naturalistic conversation or guided sociolinguistic interviews, also found that Spanish HSs exhibit a gradual loss of mood distinction, which often translated into overproduction of the indicative mood in contexts were the subjunctive is expected (Silva-Corvalan, 1994; Van Osch et al., 2017). Nonetheless, this pattern did not always occur in variable contexts (Perez-Cortes, 2022), supporting the intergenerational differences in grammatical mood competence found by the aforementioned studies (Silva-Corvalán, 1994; Viner, 2018).

It is important to note that HSs' behavior is not uniform, and one can encounter high degrees of variability in interpretation and production tasks that target obligatory contexts (Montrul, 2007; Montrul & Perpiñán, 2011; Pascual y Cabo & Rothman, 2012; Van Osch et al., 2017), but not always so much in contexts where indicative and subjunctive forms can co-exist and using one or the other expresses different meanings that are considered grammatical (Perez-Cortes, 2022). More recent studies have pointed to factors such proficiency and onset of acquisition of the majority language as potential modulators of the variability in subjunctive mood use exhibited by second and third generation HSs. These studies' outcomes suggest that HSs of Spanish with an intermediate and low proficiency did not appear to have a full command of Spanish mood (Giancaspro, 2019b; Montrul, 2007; Montrul & Perpiñán, 2011; Perez-Cortes, 2021) and that HSs who began acquiring the majority language later (from 8 to 12 years age) often displayed higher rates of subjunctive preference and production, in comparison to early acquirers (Giancaspro, 2019b).

Similarly, L2 speakers of Spanish find grammatical mood, particularly subjunctive, to be a difficult construct to learn. However, subjunctive mood can be acquired to some degree, even if such distinction is not present in the learners' native language (Bornogovo et al., 2005). Studies that employed a more explicit methodology, found that L2 speakers with high levels of proficiency can perform close to or in a nativelike fashion with trigger verbs that depict volition, or with negated epistemic and perception predicates in tasks that tap into interpretation and judgment of Spanish mood use (Borgonovo et al., 2005; Iverson et al., 2008; Massery, 2009). In terms of oral production, there is evidence that high proficiency L2 speakers' oral production of mood can be very similar to that of native speakers in terms of frequency and contextual factors that shape variation (e.g., semantic category of the trigger verb), with the only exception being the discourse pragmatic variable of hypotheticality (Gudmestad, 2012). There have also been a few extralinguistic factors that appear to shape mood production among L2 learners. For instance, there is evidence that L2 learners produce more subjunctive forms in written than in oral tasks (Geeslin & Gudmestad, 2008; Montrul 2011) and that more nativelike performance seems to occur with more focus on form tasks, such as a written controlled production tasks or a verb elicitation task, than with a more open-ended free task, such as an oral interview (Collentine, 1995; Terrell et al., 1987).

To summarize, acquisition of the Spanish subjunctive mood posits a problem for both heritage and L2 learners. The Spanish subjunctive (particularly past subjunctive) is a grammatical construct difficult to learn for both heritage and L2 learners because it is late acquired, and because it does not have a direct equivalent in English. As previously mentioned, Spanish L2 and heritage learners often share the same classroom, and even when they do not, the concept of past subjunctive is covered in Spanish language textbooks designed for L2 as well as in textbooks designed primarily for heritage speakers (Potowski, 2010). Thus, the Spanish past subjunctive presents a unique opportunity to explore the effects of controlled language instruction on these two student populations' learning outcomes.

Instruction of the Spanish Subjunctive with L2 Learners

Despite its low frequency in oral and written input compared to its indicative counterpart (Kanwit & Geeslin, 2018), the Spanish subjunctive is always present in Spanish textbooks and taught sometimes as early as in second- and third-year Spanish courses, even though some have argued that L2 learners at this level are not always ready to acquire this linguistic construction (Farley & McCollam, 2004; Massery, 2009). It is probably for this reason that there is a robust body of research that has investigated the most effective pedagogical approaches to teaching Spanish subjunctive.

One of the instructional interventions that has received more attention is processing instruction (PI) (VanPatten, 1996, 2015), a pedagogical intervention that takes into account some of the processing pitfalls that impede L2 learners' from making accurate form-meaning connections (see VanPatten, 1996, for a more in-depth description of the tenets of Processing Instruction). The effectiveness of PI with L2 learners, in contrast with other pedagogical intervention such as traditional output-oriented instruction or meaning-based output-oriented instruction, has been widely studied (Benati, 2001; Morgan-Short & Bowden, 2006; Potowski et al., 2009; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993, among others). Within the subset of studies that targeted the Spanish subjunctive, results suggested that output-oriented instruction–as long as it is meaning-oriented–could lead to similar interpretation and production gains as PI does (Collentine, 1998; Farley, 2004a; Morgan-Short & Bowden, 2006; Shintani, 2015). However, most studies found an advantage for learners in the PI group, who displayed significantly greater learning gains, especially when PI was combined with visual input enhancement (Farley, 2001; Kirk, 2013; Russell, 2009) and these learning gains were present across different subjunctive constructions that differed in their degree of markedness, that is, the state of standing out as nontypical or divergent as opposed to regular or more common (Pereira, 1996).

Subsequent studies have moved to examine if the explicit information (EI) component of PI is necessary, or if structured input (SI) activities alone are enough to generate accurate form-meaning connections that lead to positive learning outcomes. Overall, these studies found an advantage for the learners who received a full version of PI (i.e., including EI), as they tended to outperform learners who only completed SI activities (Bowles & Henshaw, 2015; Farley, 2004b; Farley & Mc-Collam, 2004). In addition, Fernández (2008) and Bowles & Henshaw (2015) found that learners in the PI group made the appropriate form-meaning connections faster

than those in the SI group. However, it is important to acknowledge that PI (with or without EI) leads to substantial learning gains in interpretation and production over time, even when L2 learners are categorized as not "ready" to acquire the subjunctive according to processability theory parameters (Farley & McCollam, 2004). Although not exactly PI, Adrada-Rafael (2017) observed that more explicit instructional interventions led to deeper processing of subjunctive form-meaning connections, which in his study correlated with more accurate production. More recently, McNulty-Díaz (2017) and Fernández Cuenca (2019) investigated if PI can aid L2 learners make appropriate subjunctive form-meaning connections in adverbial clauses and their findings confirmed that not only was PI an effective instructional intervention, but its effectiveness was supported even if the order of its components (explicit information and structured input) was inverted (McNulty-Díaz, 2017), leading to positive changes that have been found even in real-time processing (Fernández Cuenca, 2019).

In sum, PI can facilitate L2 learners' acquisition of subjunctive mood and points to metalinguistic knowledge of subjunctive mood as being an asset in the acquisition of Spanish subjunctive. This finding is consistent with Correa (2011) who found that explicit metalinguistic knowledge of Spanish subjunctive positively correlated with subjunctive accuracy use, suggesting that L2 learners with high metalinguistic knowledge of Spanish subjunctives are more accurate in mood selection.

Instruction of the Spanish Subjunctive with Heritage Learners

Research on the instruction of the Spanish subjunctive with heritage learners (HLs) has been less extensive with only a handful of studies that often include a comparison L2 group (Fernández Cuenca & Bowles, 2022; Potowski et al., 2009; Torres, 2018, 2022). Potowski and colleagues (2009) investigated if traditional and processing instruction (TI, PI) facilitated acquisition of past subjunctive mood in adjectival clauses with definite and indefinite referents for Spanish L2 and HLs. In their study, participants were randomly assigned to a PI group that received explicit information including the description of two faulty processing strategies that affect noticing of subjunctive mood, and structure input practice (consisting of five referential and five affective activities). On the other hand, participants assigned to the TI group received output-oriented instruction consisting of explicit information on the past subjunctive and form-focused activities commonly found in language textbooks that include a grammar component. Participants in the control group only completed the pre- and posttest which consisted of an interpretation, production, and grammaticality judgment task. The interpretation task resembled a referential SI activity, the production task was a sentence completion activity, and the grammaticality judgment task (GJT) had a binary choice ("it has no mistakes, sounds good" or "it has a mistake, it does not sound good"). The authors found that HLs in both experimental groups experienced equal (moderate) learning gains in interpretation and production over time, compared to the control group, but no improvements were observed with HLs' judgments of stimulus sentences where the subjunctive in adjectival clauses was used. On the other hand, L2 learners evidenced greater linguistic development with a higher overall accuracy post-instruction and higher effect sizes that were present across all three tasks regardless of the type of instruction.

Following this initial study, Torres (2018, 2022) investigated the effects of task-based language instruction on L2 and HLs' knowledge of subjunctive also in adjectival clauses, but this time in the present tense. As part of the treatment, participants were asked to adopt the role of a director in a university residence, who had to explain disconcerting behavior that was taking place among residents. Participants were assigned to one of two experimental conditions that differed in their cognitive demands (i.e., task complexity, see Torres 2018) but consisted of a series of monologic computerized sentence completion tasks that also delivered written recasts as a form of corrective feedback. A writing and oral sentence completion task (contextualized with an image) were used to assess learning outcomes as a pre-, post-, and delayed posttest 1-2 weeks post-instruction. Results showed, once again, moderate improvements in interpretation and production over time that were greater in the oral than the written assessment task for the HLs. These findings contrasted with those of two comparison L2 groups (+/- complex), which displayed greater overall learning gains and higher effect sizes in the immediate and delayed posttest. Interestingly, the exit questionnaire revealed that L2 learners had taken a more focus-on-form approach to complete the task, whereas HLs were more focused on meaning and content. Torres concluded that these differences in learning gains could be partly explained by the difference in approach that the two types of learners had adopted.

Finally, Fernández Cuenca & Bowles (2022) examined the effects of explicit and implicit language instruction on HLs' knowledge of Spanish past subjunctive in adjectival clauses. Their explicit instruction included EI followed by an explanation of faulty processing strategies that could hinder acquisition of subjunctive morphology, and structured input practice. The implicit treatment, on the other hand, consisted of input flood. Participants in this experimental group did not receive explicit information; instead, they read the sixty-two items that participants in the explicit group read in the SI portion, but in the form of a written story followed by a series of comprehension questions (similar to an input flood treatment). Instruction was delivered in a written mode, and learning gains were assessed with a computerized written AJT (with a 5-point Likert scale) and an oral elicited imitation task (EIT) which encompassed the pre-, post-, and delayed posttest. Results revealed that HLs in the explicit group exhibited significant improvement over time with ungrammatical items in both tasks and with grammatical and ungrammatical items in the EIT task, in both cases, these learning gains were still present in the delayed posttest, two weeks post-instruction. In contrast, HLs assigned to the implicit group only showed learning gains with ungrammatical items from pre- to posttest that disappeared by the time they completed the delayed posttest, a week post-instruction. In a debriefing questionnaire used to subjectively target the source of knowledge that HLs were using to complete the pre- and posttests, a participant in the explicit group reported using the rule for the written test and intuition for the oral task (i.e., the EIT). This finding is in line with Chomón Zamora (2022) who found that HLs predominantly used intuition upon receiving explicit feedback, followed by some use of grammatical knowledge, in contrast with L2 learners, who tend to rely primarily on explicit and comparison grammar.

Overall, explicit language instruction seems to have a positive impact on HLs'

grammatical mood development leading to long-lasting learning gains. However, when compared to the learning gains that L2 learners exhibit, HLs appear to benefit less from language instruction. HLs' responses to the exit surveys used by Torres (2018) and Fernández Cuenca and Bowles (2022) appear to indicate that L2 and heritage learners approach the completion of the assessment tasks differently. Thus, it is possible that the assessment task itself plays a role in the uneven learning outcomes observed between these two learner groups.

The Assessment Task

Due to the context and mode of acquisition in which heritage and L2 learners acquire Spanish, being different in terms of mode (oral vs. multimodal) and context (formal vs. informal), it is safe to assume that this does influence both the nature of their linguistic knowledge and how they draw on it when learning language or completing a language task. In fact, this question has been directly addressed in more recent studies that adopted a comparative approach (e.g., Bowles, 2011; Torres, 2018). The few instructional studies that included a heritage and L2 learner group consistently found that L2 learners benefitted from instruction more than HLs and this observation was based on a positive increase in accuracy rates from pre to posttests, often accompanied by higher effect sizes, that were consistent across assessment tasks. A possible explanation for this observed difference could be the outcome measure used to assess learning gains. The way learning gains were assessed in most of these studies that included only an L2 group or both types of learners, points to a bias toward explicit knowledge given that most tasks were designed to elicit a constrained discrete response. This may pose a disadvantage for HLs, who tend to perform worse in more focus-on form-tasks such a timed GJT, than in less explicit-oriented tasks such as an EIT, in comparison to L2 learners who show a reversed pattern (Bowles, 2011; Ellis, 2005). Furthermore, the modality of the task appeared to modulate performance for at least HLs. For instance, HLs in Fernández Cuenca & Bowles (2022) made significant improvements with grammatical and ungrammatical items in the oral assessment task (i.e., EIT), but only with ungrammatical items in the written assessment task (i.e., AJT), a similar pattern to Torres (2022), who found that HLs displayed greater learning gains in an oral than a written assessment task post-instruction. On the contrary, in Sanz's (1997) study, which is–to our knowledge–the only instructional study with L2 learners that directly controlled for task modality and discreetness, L2 learners exhibited significantly superior performance in the written most discrete assessment tasks (i.e., a sentence completion task) vis-a-vis the oral assessment tasks post-instruction. This modality factor affecting heritage and L2 learners' performance differently post-instruction has also been found in non-instructional studies, which consistently show HLs performing better in oral than in written tasks and the opposite pattern for L2 learners (Alarcón, 2011; Montrul & Perpiñán, 2011). Non-instructional studies often find that the task's degree of explicitness and modality seem to play an important role in L2 and heritage learners' performance and this can therefore obscure the observed effects of language instruction. More precisely, with regard to the Spanish subjunctive, in particular, these findings point to more focus on

form/discrete written tasks as being advantageous for L2 learners (e.g., Geeslin & Gudmestad, 2008), which could, in turn, help explain why L2 learners often seem to benefit from language instruction more than HLs do (Potowski et al., 2009), at least with this grammatical construction.

The present study seeks to replicate previous findings supporting the effectiveness of explicit instructional interventions with both learner types (HL and L2) in the learning of the Spanish subjunctive. Furthermore, it aims to tease apart if the modality of the task used to assess longitudinal learning gains may play a role in our understanding of instructional effectiveness. If prior language experience, in terms of context and mode of acquisition, affect these two groups of learners' approach to learning and completion of a language task differently, it is our duty as applied linguists to investigate this empirically with the goal to provide fair assessment of pedagogical interventions' efficacy and overall language assessment moving forward.

Methods

Research Questions

The present study is a partial replication and extension of Fernández Cuenca and Bowles (2022), which aims to fill this gap by examining the effects of explicit language instruction on both heritage and L2 learners' knowledge of Spanish subjunctive using an untimed written acceptability judgment task (AJT) and an oral elicited imitation task (EIT) as outcome measures. We posit the following research questions.

1. Do L2 learners benefit from explicit instruction on the Spanish past subjunctive?
2. Do HLs benefit from explicit instruction on the Spanish past subjunctive?
3. Does the modality of the outcome measure employed modulate heritage and L2 learners observed learning gains differently?

Participants

The first group of participants consisted of 39 undergraduate college-level HLs (31 female and eight male). They were all registered in upper-level Spanish content courses at the time of recruitment, and they were all Spanish major or minors. Thirty-four participants reported having been born in the United States, whereas five were born in a Spanish-speaking country and moved to the United States before the age of six, making them all second-generation HSs. Of the 39 HLs, 22 were simultaneous bilinguals, and the remaining 17 were sequential. All HLs reported having at least one parent who spoke Spanish, but most of them indicated that one of their parents could speak both languages fluently. All HLs had taken at least one Spanish course in college and thirteen listed having attended a Spanish-English bilingual elementary school.

The second group of participants consisted of 40 L2 learners (30 female and 10 male), who were Spanish majors and minors and were enrolled in advanced Spanish courses at the time of recruitment. The majority of these L2 learners were

raised in a monolingual household (except for eight L2 learners that reported an intermediate level of proficiency in a minority language other than Spanish), and they learned Spanish formally in a classroom consistently after puberty. All participants completed a short questionnaire with a 10-point scale to self-report their English and Spanish proficiency and were also asked to complete the modified version of the DELE standardized Spanish proficiency test (Montrul & Slabakova, 2003). See Table 1 for a more detailed description.

Table 1
Participants' Language Background Information

	L2[a]			HL		
	M	SD	range	M	SD	range
Age	20.10	.65	19-21	19.92	1.20	18-23
Age of Acquisition						
English	.35	.60	0-2	3.69	2.40	0-6
Spanish	10.91	2.78	7-15	.59	1.64	0-3
DELE	34.81	2.98	29-39	42.3	6.1	35-45
Self-ratings English						
Comprehension	9.88	.31	9-10	9.56	.91	8-10
Reading	9.86	.42	8-10	9.71	.51	8-10
Writing	9.80	.46	8-10	9.53	.64	8-10
Speaking	9.88	.31	9-10	9.56	.78	6-10
Self-ratings Spanish						
Comprehension	6.77	1.24	3-9	8.53	1.33	4-10
Reading	7.13	1.64	5-10	8.20	1.68	4-10
Writing	6.97	1.20	5-9	7.48	1.93	3-10
Speaking	5.97	1.34	4-8	8.02	1.58	3-10

Note: The maximum score was 50 for the DELE and 10 for the self-rated proficiency.
[a] These are the minority languages that eight L2 learners reported speaking to some degree, respectively: Afrikaans, Arabic, Danish, Greek, Russian (*n* =2), Tagalog, and Thai. Age was measured in years and participants could report 0 (from birth).

The Target Form

The present study targets the imperfect of subjunctive in subordinate adjectival clauses with specific and non-specific referents, to be consistent with previous research that had explored instructional effects with both types of learners (Potowski et al, 2009; Fernández Cuenca & Bowles, 2022), and because past subjunctive posits an acquisitional challenge for both heritage and L2 learners (Silva-Corvalán, 1994). As such, this target form allows for a fairly similar baseline to assess learning gains for L2 and HLs over time. In the case of the subjunctive with (in)existential clauses, the subjunctive can be found in the embedded clause when the referent in the matrix clause is unknown or nonspecific (see example 2b). However, the indicative mood is expected if the entity in the matrix clause is something specific or known (example 2a). The use of the indicative mood in a relative clause when the referent in the main clause is nonspecific or unknown is considered non-standard (example 2c).

2a. Michelle encontró a los turistas que hablaban español.   Grammatical

"Michelle found tourists that could speak_{IND} Spanish"
2b. Michelle no encontró a ningún turista que hablara español. Grammatical
2c. Michelle no encontró a ningún turista que hablaba español. Ungrammatical
"Michelle didn't find any tourist that could speak_{SUBJ/IND} Spanish"

Due to the non-categorical nature of the subjunctive mood, being used slightly differently even by monolingually raised speakers (Waltermire, 2017), the stimuli employed in the assessment tasks and instructional module were normed with a group of 20 monolingually raised Spanish speakers from different Spanish speaking countries. Their responses showed that when the antecedent was nonspecific or unknown (often marked by negation), sentences were rated as "completely acceptable" 96% of the time, and as "unacceptable" 4% of the time, in this later case, due to reasons that did not involve the use of subjunctive mood, but rather the syntax of the sentence. On the other hand, when the sentence had a nonspecific or unknown referent in the main clause and the verb in the embedded clause was in the indicative mood (as in example 2c), they rated them as "completely unacceptable" 74% of the time, and as "acceptable" 26 % of the time. Overall, these findings mirrored those of previous studies that found subjunctive mood use to be variable among Spanish monolingual and monolingually raised speakers (Blas-Arroyo & Porcar Miralles, 1997; Murillo-Mendrano, 1999) as well as with second-generation heritage speakers (Viner, 2018).

Materials

Participants in the present study completed a pretest, immediate posttest, and a two-week delayed posttest consisting of an elicited imitation task (EIT), which was followed by an untimed acceptability judgment task (AJT) (identical to the ones employed in Fernández Cuenca and Bowles, 2022).

In the EIT task, which was administered via PowerPoint, participants were asked to (a) listen to a statement in Spanish, (b) state whether this statement applied to them by saying "sí", "no", "no se aplica" ["yes", "no", "does not apply"] and (c) to repeat the statement they had heard correctly (if it contained a mistake). See Figure 1 below for a visual representation of a sample trial. In keeping with previous EIT research, we followed a series of parameters to ensure that learners had to reconstruct the sentences they heard in the EIT and could not just simply repeat them (Erlam, 2006; Yan et al., 2016). First, sentences were long and included a relative clause on the likelihood that it would exceed the participants' working memory span. Second, after listening to each utterance, participants had to make a judgment regarding whether the content of the sentence applied to them or not, which pushed them to focus on meaning—rather than form—, before they proceeded to reconstruct the sentence to the best of their ability. Third and last, there was a delay between presentation of the stimuli and repetition to avoid rote repetition. The EIT contained eight experimental items, four grammatical and four ungrammatical, in addition to eight distractors that targeted other grammatical constructions. The full task can be found in Appendix A.

Figure 1 EIT Task Procedure
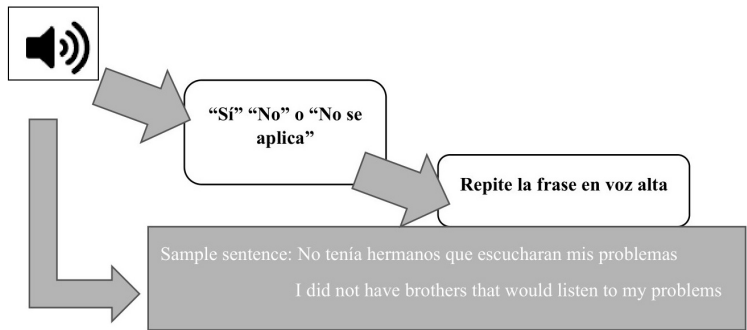
After completing the EIT, learners moved to the AJT which was administered using Survey Gizmo. In this task, participants were asked to rate the acceptability of a series of statements that were presented in writing and orally, using a 5-point Likert scale with 1 being totally unacceptable and 5 being completely acceptable. In addition to rating these sentences, participants had to correct sentences (with a rating under five) to make them completely acceptable using a textbox that appeared after each stimulus sentence. The presentation of the stimuli in this task was bimodal to accommodate HLs who might prefer aural to written stimuli. Participants read or listened to a total of eight experimental and eight distractor items (half of them grammatical and half ungrammatical). This additional step enabled us to examine if the corrections implemented involved the target form addressed in the study. The whole task can be found in Appendix B. Three different versions of these two tests (EIT and AJT) were created and counterbalanced so they would be presented at the pre-, post-, and delayed posttest the same number of times with heritage and L2 learners. Finally, these two tasks were also employed as a screening test at the pretest, to ensure that participants were not familiar with the target form, and as assessment tests to capture potential learning gains over time. Only learners who scored less than 60% in both tasks at the pretest stage, which is the traditional baseline in PI studies−, were allowed to continue onto the second phase of the study (instruction/ immediate posttest), which took place within a week. The delayed posttest took place two weeks post instruction. Overall, participants completed the whole study within 3-4 weeks. Reliability for all three versions of these two tests were measured by Cronbach alpha (see Table 2), which reflected medium to high instrument validity (Plonsky & Derrick, 2016).

Table 2
Cronbach Alpha Values for Task Reliability

|	Version A	Version B	Version C
AJT	.72	.81	.85
EIT	.70	.93	.89

Pedagogical Intervention

Heritage and L2 learners were randomly assigned to an experimental and a control group, which led to a final distribution of 19 HLs in the explicit group and 20 HLs in the control group, and to 20 L2 learners for both experimental and control group. The instructional intervention took place in a laboratory setting, where students completed a self-paced instructional module in a desktop computer, which lasted approximately 30-40 minutes. This instructional module was designed following PI principles (VanPatten, 1996) that consisted of explicit information (EI) on the target form and accurate processing strategies, followed by structured input (SI) practice. In addition to reading the explicit information, participants were prompted to answer a few multiple-choice questions targeting the explicit information they had just read to ensure that they had understood this information, before engaging with the SI practice. SI items were designed so that learners first read an incomplete relative clause and were asked to choose which matrix clause out of four available options was the most appropriate to start the sentence (see example 3). Both the incomplete written sentence and possible endings appeared in the same screen. Participants were asked to press the letter key that matched their chosen response and after they pressed the corresponding key, they moved to a new screen where they received corrective feedback ("correct" or "incorrect") before repeating the process all over again with each of the total sixty-two items that encompassed the SI practice module (see Figure 2 below). The whole instructional module including: (a) the grammatical explanations, (b) the brief multiple-choice items used to verify that participants understood the explicit terminology explained, and (c) SI practice. All three modules were administered using the psychology software Paradigm. The stimuli in the instructional module were only presented in a written modality. Learners assigned to the control group completed the EIT and AJT tasks at the pre- and posttests, but they did not receive instruction.

3. tuviera acento de Chicago.
    A. Había mucha gente que …
    B. No había mucha gente que…
    C. Hay mucha gente que…
    D. Ninguna

had$_{PAST-SUBJ}$ an accent from Chicago
    A. There were people that …
    B. There weren't many people that…
    C. There are people that…
    D. None of the above

Figure 2

Sample Trial Structured Input Practice
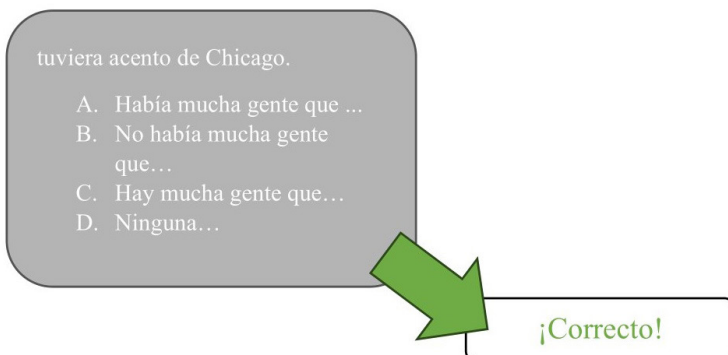
Data Coding and Analysis

The present study examined accuracy scores for the experimental sentences in the EIT and AJT at three points in time. The scoring procedure for the EIT task was conducted as follows: grammatical sentences that were repeated grammatically were assigned a 1, but those that were considered ungrammatical because their repetition did not include the standard use of the past subjunctive, when the referent was unknown, received a 0. We acknowledge that we considered instances of other forms that were not imperfect subjunctive, in this context, as "inappropriate," even though these are completely acceptable forms in non-standard varieties of Spanish. However, this approach had to be adopted if we hoped to establish a clear baseline and potential changes in grammatical mood judgment and use over time. In addition to these two scenarios, on some occasions, learners also altered the structure of the sentence by making the statement positive or by simplifying the syntax and eliminating the relative clause all together, which disallowed the use of past subjunctive. Sometimes, the verb was not uttered or was inaudible due to poor quality recording, leading to no codable data. This resulted in 8% of the EIT data, that were therefore excluded from the final data pool consisting of 1,754 items.

Learners' individual AJT responses were entered based on participants' numeric selection of ratings from the 5-value Likert scale employed (see more details in Appendix B) and were later analyzed separately for grammatical and ungrammatical items. The text box included after each item allowed us to examine if ratings were assigned based on the appropriate or inappropriate use of the past subjunctive, rather than by other morphosyntactic or lexical components of the sentence. This technique was particularly helpful with five items in which learners had assigned an ungrammatical sentence a low value in the scale due to something that was not related to subjunctive/indicative mood use. These five items were excluded from the AJT final data pool, which ended up being 1,915 items.

Learners' individual EIT and AJT responses were coded by the main researcher and another Spanish native speaker fellow researcher, who coded 25% of the data separately to establish inter-rater reliability. Inter-rater agreement was high at 97%, and the few disagreements encountered were discussed and agreed upon by both researchers in a short discussion session.

The EIT data was fitted to a mixed-effects logistic regression and the AJT data was fitted to a mixed effects linear regression model for heritage and L2 learners separately. For all primary analyses, the fixed effects were instruction (explicit, control), and time (pre, post, delayed posttest); participants and items were included as random effect (intercepts and random slopes). Grammatical and ungrammatical items within the AJT and EIT data were analyzed separately. The control group and pretest session data were used as reference levels. Statistical analysis was carried out using R (R Development Core Team, 2023) with the *lme4* package (Bates et al., 2015) and keeping the maximal random effect structure whenever possible (following Barr, 2013). Pairwise comparisons were obtained using the *emmeans* package (Lenth et al., 2018). Data processing and visualization were conducted using the *tidyverse* package (Wickham et al. 2019). Finally, further analysis was run on mean scores to determine the effect size (Cohen's d) for the AJT and EIT tasks, for the experimental and control group, with grammatical and ungrammatical items.

Results

L2 Learners' AJT Results

To explore if explicit language instruction led to positive learning gains for L2 learners as measured by a highly explicit written assessment task, we calculated the average ratings for grammatical and ungrammatical items and compared them by group (experimental vs. control) and session (pre-, post-, and delayed posttest). Average L2 AJT ratings per session and group for both grammatical and ungrammatical items can be found in Figure 3.

The output of the mixed effects linear regression model containing L2 learners' AJT ratings for grammatical items (see Appendix C) yielded a significant interaction of time and instruction at the immediate posttest, $p = 0.05$, $d = 0.42$, as well as a significant interaction of instruction with time at the delayed posttest, $p = 0.03$, $d = 0.33$. Pairwise comparisons run to explore these significant interactions yielded no significant effect of time for the control group, from pre- to posttest, $p = 0.98$, $d = 0.01$, from post to delayed posttest, $p = 0.31$, $d = 0.16$ or from pre- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.21$, $d = 0.10$. With the instructed L2 group, a significant effect of time was found from pre- to posttest, $p = 0.01$, $d = 0.34$, and from pre- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.00$, $d = 0.70$, but there was no significant effect from post- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.19$, $d = 0.27$. Overall, these results evidenced that the ratings for grammatical sentences for L2 learners in the instructed group improved significantly as the result of instruction and were maintained over time. Participants in the control group did not show improvement over time as expected.

Figure 3
Mean L2 AJT ratings for grammatical and ungrammatical items for L2 instructed and control group (SDs in parenthesis)
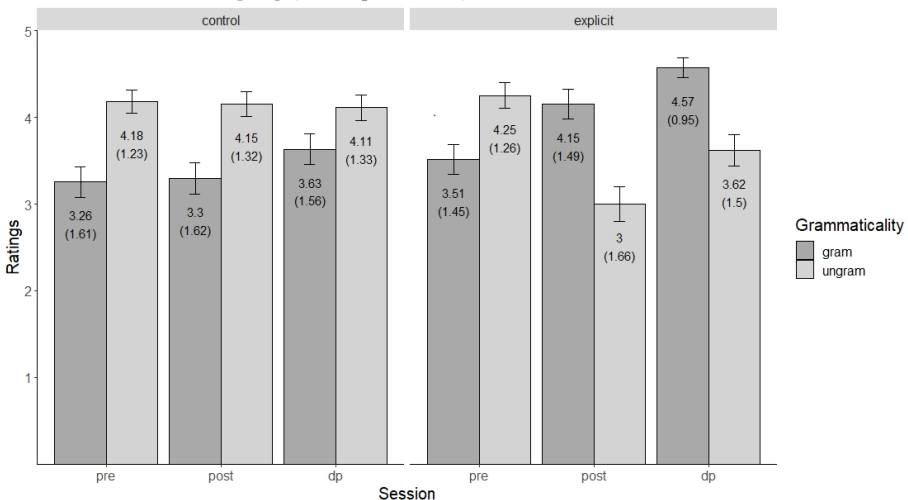
The output of the mixed effects linear regression model containing L2 learners' AJT ratings for ungrammatical items (see Appendix C) also yielded a significant

interaction of instruction with time at the delayed posttest, $p = 0.03$, $d = 0.51$, and of instruction with time at the immediate posttest, $p = 0.00$, $d = 0.61$. Pairwise comparisons of group type (experimental vs. control) by time revealed no significant effect of time for the control group, from pre- to posttest, $p = 0.97$, $d = 0.01$, from post- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.79$, $d = 0.02$, or from pre- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.90$, $d = 0.04$, evidencing no improvement with ungrammatical times over time for L2 learners in the control group. On the other hand, L2 learners in the instructed group displayed a significant effect of time from pre- to posttest, $d = 0.68$, from post- to delayed posttest, $d = 0.36$, and also from pre- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.04$, $d = 0.31$, showing that instructed L2 learners' ratings for ungrammatical items decreased upon receiving instruction, despite ratings starting to pick back up two weeks post-instruction.

L2 Learners' EIT Results

To examine if explicit language instruction led to positive learning gains for L2 learners as measured by a structured oral assessment task, we coded L2 learners' responses to EIT items for accuracy with grammatical and ungrammatical items and compared them by group (experimental vs. control) and session (pre-, post-, and delayed posttest).

L2 EIT accuracy percentages per session and group for both grammatical and ungrammatical items can be found in Figure 4. The output of the mixed effects binomial logistic regression model containing L2 learners' EIT accuracy scores for grammatical items (see Appendix C) yielded a significant interaction of instruction with time at the delayed posttest, $p = 0.00$, $d = 0.58$, and of instruction with time at the immediate posttest, $p = 0.01$, $d = 0.68$. Pairwise comparisons of instruction by time yielded no significant effect of time for the control group, from pre- to posttest, $p = 0.75$, $d = 0.08$, from post- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.99$, $d = 0.01$, or from pre- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.67$, $d = 0.10$, evidencing no improvement on accuracy with grammatical items over time for L2 learners in the control group. On the contrary, the instructed L2 learners showed a positive improvement in EIT accuracy with grammatical items, as evidenced by the significant effect of time for the experimental group found, from pre- to posttest, $p = 0.02$, $d = 0.39$, and from pre- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.00$, $d = 0.56$, but the effect from post- to delayed posttest was not significant, estimate $= 0.38$, $SE = 0.33$, $z = 1.15$, $p = 0.47$ $d = 0.16$. These results confirmed once more that instructed L2 learners' ratings for grammatical sentences improved upon receiving instruction.

Figure 4

Accuracy percentages for grammatical and ungrammatical items for the L2 instructed and control group
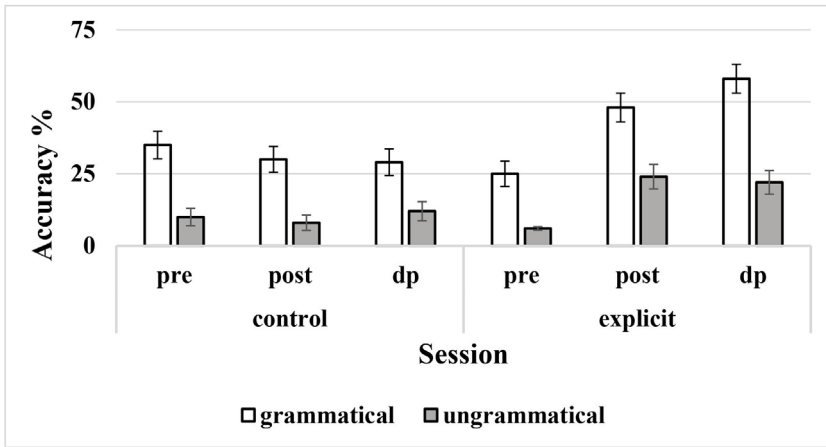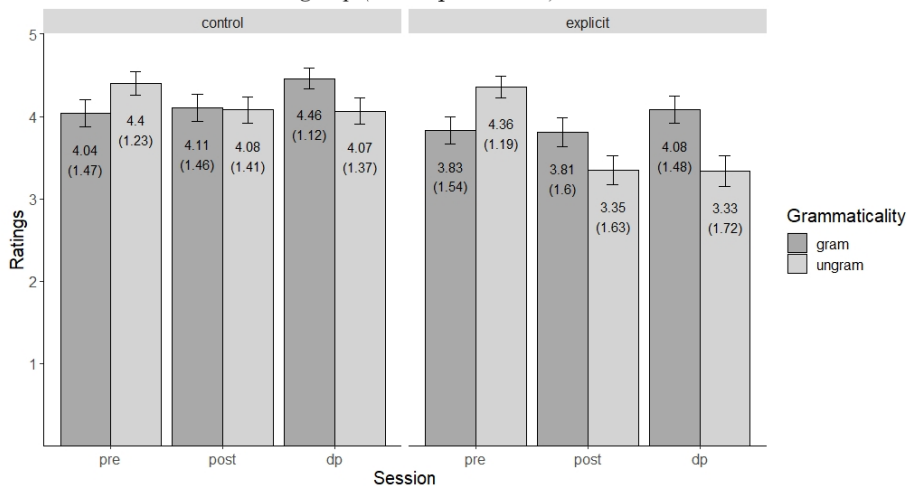

The output of the mixed effects binomial logistic regression model containing L2 learners' EIT accuracy scores for ungrammatical items (see Appendix C) yielded only a significant interaction of instruction with time at the immediate posttest, $p = 0.01$, $d = 0.63$. Pairwise comparisons revealed no significant effect of time for the control group, from pre- to posttest, $p = 0.75$, $d = 0.05$, from post- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.99$, $d = 0.10$, or from pre- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.67$, $d = 0.05$, showing that accuracy on EIT grammatical items did not improve over time for L2 learners in the control group. On the contrary, instructed L2 learners exhibited positive gains in accuracy with ungrammatical items as shown by a significant effect of time for the experimental group, from pre- to posttest, $p = 0.01$, $d = 0.43$, from pre- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.02$, $d = 0.40$. No significant effect of time was found from post- to delayed, $p = 0.94$, $d = 0.03$.

Heritage Learners' AJT Results

Similar to the approach employed with L2 learners, potential learning gains for HLs−as measured by a written assessment task−were examined using the average ratings for grammatical and ungrammatical items that we later compared by group (experimental vs. control) and session (pre-, post-, and delayed posttest). HL AJT average ratings per session and group for both grammatical and ungrammatical items can be found in Figure 5.

Figure 5
Mean HL AJT ratings for grammatical and ungrammatical items for HL instructed and control group (SDs in parenthesis)

The output of the mixed effects linear regression model containing HLs' AJT ratings for grammatical items (see Appendix D) did not yield any significant main effects or interactions, showing that HLs' AJT ratings for grammatical items did not change over time.

The output of the mixed effects linear regression model containing HLs learners' AJT ratings for ungrammatical items (see Appendix D) yielded a significant main effect of instruction, $p = 0.00$, $d = 0.51$, showing that overall ratings for HLs in the explicit group were lower, when compared to those of HLs in the control group. In addition, the model yielded a significant interaction of instruction with time at the pretest stage, $p = 0.01$, $d = 0.33$. Pairwise comparisons revealed a significant main effect of time for instructed HLs from pre to posttest, $p = 0.00$, $d = 0.37$ and from pre- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.00$, $d = 0.33$, which was not present from post- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.99$, $d = 0.02$, evidencing that instructed HLs' ratings for ungrammatical sentences decreased overtime. On the other hand, HLs in the control group did not show significant changes from pre- to posttest, $p = 0.17$, $d = 0.22$, from pre-to delayed posttest, $p = 0.53$, $d = 0.08$, or from post- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.78$, $d = 0.32$. In other words, the ratings from HLs in the control group did not change over time, suggesting that it was instruction that helped instructed HLs.

Heritage Learners' EIT Results

To explore potential learning gains for HLs–as measured by a structured oral assessment task–HLs' responses to EIT items were coded for accuracy with grammatical and ungrammatical items and compared by group (experimental vs. control) and session (pre-, post-, and delayed posttest). See descriptive statistics in Figure 6.

The output of the mixed effects binomial logistic regression model containing HLs' EIT accuracy scores for grammatical items (see Appendix D) yielded a

significant main effect of time at the posttest, $p = 0.05$, $d = 0.31$, and delayed posttest, $p = 0.00$, $d = 0.29$, showing that accuracy was lower at the posttest and delayed posttest stage when compared to the pretest. Furthermore, the model yielded a significant interaction of instruction with time at the posttest, $p = 0.01$, $d = 0.32$, and at the delayed posttest, $p = 0.00$, $d = 0.27$. Pairwise comparisons by time and instruction revealed that for HLs in the control group, accuracy for grammatical items decreased significantly from pre- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.01$, $d = 0.35$, but no significant changes were observed from pre- to posttest, $p = 0.13$, $d = 0.39$, or from post- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.57$, $d = 0.13$ Instructed HLs did not show any significant changes in accuracy with grammatical items from pre- to posttest, $p = 0.24$, $d = 0.42$, from pre- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.62$, $d = 0.22$, or from post- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.73$, $d = 0.09$. Interestingly, and against any predictions, HLs in the control group showed a decrease in accuracy with grammatical sentences over time, and no positive effects were found for instructed HLs.

Figure 6
Accuracy percentages for grammatical and ungrammatical items for the HL instructed and control group
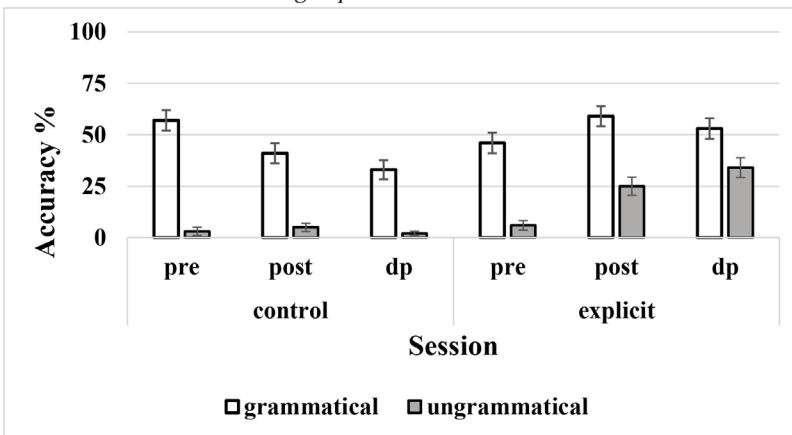
The output of the mixed effects binomial logistic regression model containing HLs' EIT accuracy scores for ungrammatical items (see Appendix D) yielded a significant main interaction of instruction with time at the delayed posttest, $p = 0.03$, $d = 0.57$. Pairwise comparisons of instruction by time revealed no significant effect of time for the control group, from pre- to posttest, $p = 0.89$, $d = 0.08$, from post- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.73$, $d = 0.12$, or from pre- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.90$, $d = 0.04$. On the other hand, instructed HLs showed a significant increase in accuracy with ungrammatical items from pre- to posttest, $p = 0.00$, $d = 0.45$, and from pre- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.02$, $d = 0.63$. There was no significant effect of time from post- to delayed posttest, $p = 0.45$, $d = 0.15$. This time, in line with our expectations, instructed HLs showed learning gains with ungrammatical sentences over time and HLs in the control did not.

Brief Summary of Results

AJT results suggest that L2 participants in the control group did not evidence learning gains at any point in time, validating the current study's methodology, whereas instructed L2 learners showed an improvement in ratings with grammatical and ungrammatical items from pre- to immediate as well as from pre- to delayed posttest with grammatical sentences, and also from post- to delayed posttest with ungrammatical sentences. These findings were similar to those in the EIT, where instructed L2 learners showed a significant increase in accuracy from pre- to immediate and from pre- to delayed posttest–but not from immediate posttest to delayed posttest–with grammatical and ungrammatical items. Once again, the control group did not display learning gains over time.

       Instructed heritage learners' results were also consistent by task but differed from L2 learners' results based on the grammaticality condition. Instructed HLs improved on their ratings of ungrammatical sentences from pre- to immediate posttest and from pre- to delayed posttest only with ungrammatical sentences. EIT results mirrored these findings with a significant increase in accuracy from pre- to immediate posttest, and from pre- to delayed posttest also with only ungrammatical items. No improvement was observed for instructed HLs with grammatical items. Surprisingly, a rather unpredictable pattern emerged with HLs in the control group, who showed a significant decrease in accuracy from pre- to delayed posttest only in the EIT only with grammatical items.

Discussion

       The first two research questions in the present study were set to determine if explicit language instruction in the form of PI is beneficial for both types of learners (heritage and L2), considering potential learning gains in both assessment tasks. At the pretest stage, L2 learners showed more acceptability of the use of the imperfect of indicative in sentences containing a matrix clause with a nonspecific referent (M = 4.2), than of the past subjunctive (M = 3.3). L2 learners also produced either the imperfect of indicative or the preterite as alternatives to the expected imperfect subjunctive in the EIT, when repeating sentences with a non-specific referent in the matrix clause. As predicted, learners who received instruction exhibited learning gains in both assessment tasks showing significant improvement immediately after receiving instruction, and in a two-week delayed posttest, in contrast with the control group who did not show any signs of learning. This positive outcome occurred with both grammatical and ungrammatical sentences and is the result of a one-time short instructional intervention. These findings are also consistent with previous research that examined the benefits of explicit language instruction, particularly with PI studies that focused on the Spanish subjunctive (Farley & McCollum, 2004; Fernández, 2008; Kirk, 2013, among others), which as previously stated, is difficult to acquire in a naturalistic manner due to a series of intra- and extra-linguistic factors. The present study provides further evidence that full PI (EI + SI) is an effective instructional intervention for L2 learners that can lead to long-lasting learning gains in metalinguistic written and productive knowledge of the imperfect subjunctive in non-existential clauses.

Instruction was also beneficial for HLs. At the pre-test stage, HLs also showed strong acceptance of the imperfect indicative (M = 4.3) with sentences that contained a matrix clause with a specific and non-specific referent, but also displayed high acceptance of the imperfect subjunctive (M = 4 out of 5) in sentences where its used was expected. This pattern was complemented with a 42% accurate use of subjunctive when repeating sentences that contained a non-specific referent in the matrix clause. This high acceptance of both alternatives could suggest that use of subjunctive mood in this context was not categorical for HLs, supporting the results from studies that find a reduced use of subjunctive mood among second generation Spanish heritage speakers (Viner, 2018). Nonetheless, and unlike L2 learners, HLs used almost categorically the imperfect indicative–when they did not opt for the imperfect subjunctive–with sentences that had a matrix clause with a nonspecific referent in both tasks. This could be interpreted as HLs having developed a rule that calls for the use of either the imperfect indicative or subjunctive in this context, whereas L2 learners did not have a default grammatical form that they consistently used for this linguistic context. This pattern of a reduced but present use of subjunctive (compared to monolingually raised Spanish speakers residing in the US) is consistent with research on variationist approaches to heritage language acquisition (Silva-Corvalán; Viner, 2018), and also highlights the differences in starting point for these two groups of learners, whose prior learning experience may have likely influenced the underlying grammar they drew on before being exposed to grammar instruction.

In contrast with L2 learners, instructed HLs only exhibited positive changes over time with ungrammatical items. Instructed HLs' ratings for ungrammatical sentences decreased significantly over time, and they showed a significant increase in the use of imperfect subjunctive in sentences that contained a matrix clause with a non-specific reference in the EIT upon receiving instruction, compared to participants in the control group, who did not experience learning gains. The AJT results from the present study are not consistent with Potowski et al. (2009) who found that explicit instruction is not able to alter HLs' acceptability perception of sentences' grammaticality, and with Montrul and Bowles (2010), whose participants experienced no learning gains with ungrammatical sentences. With regard to EIT results, our findings contrast slightly with those of Fernández Cuenca and Bowles (2022), who found that HLs receiving explicit instruction (identical module to the one in the present study) improved with grammatical and ungrammatical sentences in the EIT post-instruction. In the present study, instructed HLs only exhibited learning gains with ungrammatical sentences in the EIT. A possible explanation for this difference could be the approach used to analyze the data. Whereas the analyses in the present study were conducted separately for grammatical and ungrammatical sentences, Fernández Cuenca and Bowles (2022) explored accuracy with both types of items together. Our AJT findings match those of Fernández Cuenca and Bowles (2022) with HLs only exhibiting a decrease in acceptability with ungrammatical items. Overall, these studies and the present study provide evidence that explicit language instruction is beneficial for adult HLs who still displayed learning gains two weeks post instruction.

Our third research question aimed to take a closer look at learning gains by outcome measure. As formerly discussed, heritage and L2 learners differ in the way they acquire the Spanish language, and this may have affected how learners approached completion of these assessment tasks. Previous research suggests that HLs are less familiar with written focus on form tasks, such as GJTs, due to acquiring Spanish in a naturalistic fashion that did not bring their attention to form until later in life when they enrolled in Spanish language courses (Bowles, 2011). On the contrary, these studies also point to Spanish L2 learners being more comfortable completing focus on form tasks due to their robust experience with formal language instruction. Our findings do not necessarily match this task modality distinction. L2 learners evidenced learning gains similarly in both assessment tasks, and HLs also did so across assessment tasks, even if positive learning outcome were only present with ungrammatical sentences. We did not find HLs' learning gains to be greater in the oral than in the written task or observed L2 learners performing better in written than oral tasks, in contrast with previous studies (Sanz, 1997; Torres, 2022). Therefore, we conclude that task modality, at least in the current study, did not modulate learning gains for heritage and L2 learners differently.

What we did find is an interesting pattern with the grammaticality variable that we did not anticipate, despite it already being somewhat present in previous studies (e.g., Montrul & Bowles, 2010). As Montrul and colleagues (2014) wisely pointed out, some studies that sought to compare heritage and L2 learners' performance with different types of tasks differing in modality, often confounded modality with the type of knowledge (explicit or implicit) these learners had to rely on to complete the language task. The two tasks employed as assessment tasks in the present study raise the notion of grammaticality despite it being presented in different modalities. EITs have been traditionally associated with measuring implicit knowledge, and untimed GJTs are associated with explicit knowledge (Bowles, 2011; Ellis, 2005). The EIT used in the present study is slightly different than the type of EIT used in the cited previous studies in that it includes a focus-on-form approach that alerts participants to pay attention to form in the sentences they listen to and asks them to correct such mistakes when participants proceed to repeat the stimulus sentences. Therefore, one could easily say that the EIT task employed in the present study does not fit the criteria of the EITs used in previous research and both tasks are characterized for adopting an explicit approach.

Nevertheless, one important point we can draw on from this research is their findings with regard to the type of stimulus sentence. Vafaee and colleagues (2017) found that ungrammatical sentences in a GJT are a good measure of explicit knowledge, at least for L2 learners. Similarly, Gutiérrez (2013) found evidence that L2 learners draw on different types of knowledge, which one could interpret as explicit vs. implicit knowledge, when rating grammatical and ungrammatical sentences in GJTs. One possible explanation could be that instruction provided both types of learners with explicit knowledge that they were able to apply in discrete focus-on-form tasks such as the ones used in our study. As we know, L2 learners possess a dynamic linguistic system that is constantly being restructured based on negative or positive feedback, similar to the type of feedback received in an instructional setting. Therefore, we could speculate that since L2 learners are

familiar with explicit instruction and focus-on-form tasks that tap into explicit knowledge, the notion of grammaticality did not present a problem for them and they were successful at identifying and correcting grammatical and ungrammatical sentences, upon receiving and practicing the rule. On the other hand, this may have posited a problem for HLs who most likely had implicitly acquired the imperfect indicative as the most suitable form (when the imperfect subjunctive was not chosen) for this linguistic context. In other words, HLs had a strong grammar in place that was acquired largely implicitly, given that the average number of Spanish formal education for this group was 4.5 years, and replacing this established pattern would likely require more than one instructional session. Unfortunately, this argument falls short if we consider that HLs in the control group displayed a significant decrease in accuracy with grammatical items from pre- to posttests in the EIT, suggesting that unguided exposure to sentences that incorporated past subjunctive in this linguistic context was enough to destabilize the form-meaning connections that HLs had in place before engaging with formal language instruction. What is interesting here is that this only occurred in the EIT where the stimulus sentences were presented aurally and not in writing, which brings up the question of the modality in which the stimuli are presented as it being an important factor at play here. In fact, this observation was already noted by Torres (2022) and future studies should take the necessary steps to separate the modality of the stimulus presentation and the modality in which participants are required to respond.

Pedagogical Implications

An important takeaway from this study should be that whereas L2 learners responded homogeneously to instruction, HLs did not. Both groups of learners showed positive learning gains, but the factor of grammaticality in the stimulus sentences modulated the learning outcomes of the HLs. The notion of grammaticality is highly associated with explicit knowledge, which is a type of knowledge heritage learners do not usually resort to, given that they acquired their heritage language implicitly as children. As heritage learners become more familiar with formal language instruction, it is very possible that concepts such as grammaticality or the approach to focus-on-form will become more natural to them, but patience is needed, and them and their performance should not be directly compared to that of L2 learners. Studies such as the ones described and presented here only incorporate one instructional session and perhaps multiple sessions will be necessary for HLs.

Another point raised in the discussion is the modality of the task, or more precisely, the modality in which the stimuli is presented in the assessment tasks used to measure learning gains could have impacted HLs performance learning in this study. The fact that unguided exposure to aural grammatical and ungrammatical sentences appeared to have a negative effect on HLs' competence of mood in this linguistic context, raises the question of how HLs' already existing grammar interacts with language instruction in adulthood, especially when the language construction being targeted is a vulnerable one that shows highly variable acquisitional attainment among second generation heritage speakers (Viner, 2018). Recent studies are starting to decipher how psychosocial and biographical factors

such as willingness to communicate in the heritage language, acquisitional profile, or motivation to become a better Spanish speaker, can affect heritage learners' performance completing language tasks (Torres et al., 2019). The HL profile does not fit the uniform profile of the learner that has commonly populated our language classes. The same way language changes over time, so does the student profile and we, as language educators, should become aware and make the necessary changes to update our language teaching practices.

As previously mentioned, the field of instructed heritage language acquisition is just starting to grow, and a lot of questions remain unanswered. For the time being, Spanish language instructors should bear in mind that HLs are different in the way they acquired Spanish, and they, unlike L2 learners, come to classroom with an established grammar that was acquired largely implicitly and orally before the puberty years. This is bound to interact with the way they approach language learning in our classes and most assessment tasks commonly used to measure language proficiency and longitudinal language learning do not take this into consideration.

A final point that deserves to be mentioned here and that applies to heritage language grammar instruction in general, is that no HL should be shamed for not performing well in these tasks. The language experience HLs bring to the classroom is as valid as that of L2 learners, and it is our job as educators to ensure that HLs leave our classroom feeling empowered for having learned how to label concepts they already know, and for learning how to best use different language forms depending on the context (formal or informal) in which they plan to communicate a message.

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Appendix A

Sample elicited imitation task

Listen to the following sentences carefully and indicate whether these sentences are consistent with your personal experience by saying "Sí" "No" o "No se aplica" then repeat them out loud in correct Spanish (Sometimes this will mean repeating the sentence exactly as you heard it, and sometimes this will mean changing some part of the sentence).

One more thing…if the statement you hear is negative, but your answer is yes, make sure to repeat the sentence the same way you heard it in the second screen.

Here is an example to clarify this:

Screen 1: you hear: No vivía en un apartamento
                "Sí" "No" "No se aplica"
                 you say: Sí
Screen 2: Repite la frase
                 you say: No vivía en un apartamento

Context for these sentences: Cuando era más joven….. (context)

Practice item:
      - No me gustaba pasar tiempo con mis padres

Experimental (ungrammatical)- 4 total	Experimental (grammatical)- 4 total	Fillers (grammatical and ungrammatical) – 8 total
No tenía hermanos que escuchaban mis problemas	No usaba excusas que mis padres conocieran	Tenía muchas fiestas de cumpleaños
No leía libros que eran de ficción	No tenía hermanos que interrumpieran mis sesiones de videojuegos	Mis hermanos jugaba con juguetes peligrosos
No tenía una clase que me gustaba	No tenía amigos que hablaran chino mandarín	Pasaba mucho tiempo fuera de casa
No jugaba con niños que eran muy mayores	No escuchaba música que enojara a mis padres	Mis amigas eran tímidos e inocentes
		Me peleaba mucho con mis hermanos
		Mi madre no trabajan muchas horas
		Decía mentiras que eran inocentes La escuela no era divertido
		Practicaba deporte con mis amigos después de clase

Appendix B

Sample acceptability judgment task

Read or listen to the following sentences and using the scale below indicate what you think their acceptability is. If you think that a sentence is not totally acceptable, please make the necessary corrections to make it sound better.

Context for these sentences: when I was young…

Example:
1.   Las tiendas tenían menos variedad de juguetes

1- totally unacceptable   2 - unacceptable   3 - neutral   4 - acceptable   5 - perfectly acceptable

If you did not click on "perfectly acceptable" please make the necessary changes to make it sound better.

Experimental stimuli
1.   En mi escuela no había profesores que hablaran bien español (grammatical)
2.   No había gente que quisiera otra línea de tren nueva (grammatical)
3.   En la interestatal 57 no había luces que alumbraran la carretera por la noche (grammatical)
4.   El profesor no encontró estudiantes que supieran la respuesta a la pregunta (grammatical)
5.   Susana no compré un televisor que costaba $ 2.000 dólares en Amazon (ungrammatical)
6.   En el centro comercial no había tiendas que tenían productos orgánicos (ungrammatical)
7.   De pequeño no tenía amigos que hablaban muchas lenguas diferentes (ungrammatical)
8.   Los trabajadores no aceptaron un contrato que cumplía con sus demandas (ungrammatical)

Fillers
1.   Las clases de gimnasia en la escuela eran obligatorias (grammatical)
2.   En los años 50, la mujer no trabajaban fuera de la casa (ungrammatical)
3.   Las fiestas de cumpleaños eran muy importantes cuando era joven (grammatical)
4.   Los carreteras de Chicago estaban en construcción el invierno pasado (ungrammatical)
5.   Los parques de Chicago estaban más limpios hace 10 años (grammatical)
6.   Mi amigo Juan tenían una bicicleta de segunda mano (grammatical)
7.   Cuando mis abuelos eran joven la gente se casaba muy pronto (ungrammatical)
8.   Hace 20 años las películas no eran tan largos y aburridas (ungrammatical)

Appendix C

Statistical outputs from L2 learners' analyses

Output from mixed effects linear regression model with L2 learners' AJT ratings for grammatical and ungrammatical items

	Estimate	SE	t	p
Grammatical items				
Intercept	3.24	0.20	15.56	0.00
Instruction	0.26	0.28	0.90	0.36
Time (delayed posttest)	0.38	0.22	1.67	0.09
Time (posttest)	0.04	0.22	0.19	0.84
Instruction x Time (delayed posttest)	0.68	0.31	2.15	0.03
Instruction x Time (posttest)	0.59	0.31	1.90	0.05
Ungrammatical items				
Intercept	4.13	0.20	19.97	0.00
Instruction	0.08	0.27	0.31	0.75
Time (delayed posttest)	0.09	0.21	0.42	0.66
Time (post)	-0.04	0.20	-0.22	0.81
Instruction x Time (delayed posttest)	-0.62	0.28	-2.17	0.03
Instruction x Time (posttest)	-1.25	0.29	-4.30	0.00

Pairwise comparisons:

Grammatical items

	Control group	Instructed group
Pre to posttest	estimate = -0.04, SE = 0.22, t = -0.19, p = 0.98, d = 0.01	estimate = -0.64, SE = 0.22, t = -2.84, p = 0.01, d = 0.34
Post to delayed posttest	estimate = 0.34, SE = 0.23, t = 1.46, p = 0.31, d = 0.16	estimate = 0.42, SE = 0.24, t = 1.72, p = 0.19, d = 0.27
Pre to delayed posttest	estimate = -0.38, SE = 0.22, t = -1.67, p = 0.21, d = 0.10	estimate = -1.06, SE = 0.23, t = -4.46, p = 0.00, d = 0.70

Ungrammatical items

	Control group	Instructed group
Pre to posttest	estimate = 0.04, SE = 0.20, t = 0.22, p = 0.97, d =0.01	estimate = 1.29, SE = 0.20, t = 6.25, p = 0.00, d = 0.68
Post to delayed posttest	estimate = 0.13, SE = 0.21, t = 0.63, p = 0.79, d = 0.02	estimate = 0.76, SE = 0.23, t = 3.27, p = 0.00, d = 0.36
Pre to delayed posttest	estimate = -0.09, SE = 0.21, t = -0.42, p = 0.90, d = 0.04	estimate = 0.53, SE = 0.22, t = 2.38, p = 0.04, d = 0.31

Output from mixed effects binomial logistic regression model with L2 learners' EIT accuracy responses for grammatical and ungrammatical items

	Estimate	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Grammatical items				
Intercept	-0.60	0.25	-2.31	0.02
Instruction	-0.47	0.38	-1.22	0.22
Time (delayed posttest)	-0.30	0.35	-0.85	0.39
Time (posttest)	-2.26	0.36	-0.72	0.47
Instruction x Time (delayed posttest)	1.70	0.50	3.36	0.00
Instruction x Time (posttest)	1.27	0.53	2.37	0.01
Ungrammatical items				
Intercept	-2.23	0.37	-6.01	0.00
Instruction	-0.58	0.63	-0.91	0.36
Time (delayed posttest)	0.29	0.54	0.53	0.59
Time (post)	-0.26	0.56	-0.46	0.64
Instruction x Time (delayed posttest)	1.23	0.81	1.52	0.12
Instruction x Time (posttest)	1.91	0.80	2.36	0.01

Pairwise comparisons:

Grammatical items	Control group	Instructed group
Pre to posttest	estimate = 0.26, *SE* = 0.36, $z = 0.72$, $p = 0.75$, $d = 0.08$	estimate = -1.00, *SE* = 0.39, $z = -2.58$, $p = 0.02$, $d = 0.39$
Post to delayed posttest	estimate = -0.04, *SE* = 0.35, $z = -0.11$, $p = 0.99$, $d = 0.01$	estimate = -1.39, *SE* = 0.35, $z = -3.91$, $p = 0.00$, $d = 0.56$
Pre to delayed posttest	estimate = 0.30, *SE* = 0.35, $z = 0.85$, $p = 0.67$, $d = 0.10$	estimate = 0.38, *SE* = 0.33, $z = 1.15$, $p = 0.47$ $d = 0.16$.
Ungrammatical items	**Control group**	**Instructed group**
Pre to posttest	estimate = 0.26, *SE* = 0.36, $z = 0.72$, $p = 0.75$, $d = 0.05$	estimate = -1.65, *SE* = 0.57, $z = -2.85$, $p = 0.01$, $d = 0.43$
Post to delayed posttest	estimate = -0.04, *SE* = 0.35, $z = -0.11$, $p = 0.99$, $d = 0.10$	estimate = -1.52, *SE* = 0.59, $z = -2.55$, $p = 0.02$, $d = 0.40$
Pre to delayed posttest	estimate = 0.30, *SE* = 0.35, $z = 0.85$, $p = 0.67$, $d = 0.05$	estimate = -0.12, *SE* = 0.40, $z = -0.31$, $p = 0.94$, $d = 0.03$

Appendix D

Statistical outputs from Heritage learners' analyses

Output from mixed effects linear regression model with HLs' AJT ratings for grammatical and ungrammatical items

	Estimate	SE	t	p
Grammatical items				
Intercept	2.77	0.51	5.37	0.00
Instruction	0.11	0.60	0.18	0.85
Time (delayed posttest)	1.18	0.53	2.22	0.02
Time (posttest)	0.67	0.56	1.18	0.24
Instruction x Time (delayed posttest)	-0.29	0.67	-0.43	0.66
Instruction x Time (posttest)	-0.10	0.83	-0.12	0.90
Ungrammatical items				
Intercept	4.53	0.21	21.50	0.00
Instruction	-0.19	0.24	-0.78	0.43
Time (delayed posttest)	-0.07	0.27	-0.28	0.77
Time (post)	-0.55	0.27	-2.03	0.04
Instruction x Time (delayed posttest)	-0.59	0.35	-1.65	0.10
Instruction x Time (posttest)	-0.01	0.37	-0.05	0.95

Pairwise comparisons:

Ungrammatical items	Control group	Instructed group
Pre to posttest	estimate = -0.44, *SE* = 0.24, *t* = -1.80, *p* = 0.17, *d* = 0.22	estimate = -1.09, *SE* = 0.21, *t* = -4.99, *p* = 0.00, *d* = 0.37
Post to delayed posttest	estimate = 0.17, *SE* = 0.25, *t* = 0.67, *p* = 0.78, *d* = 0.32	estimate = 0.00, *SE* = 0.22, *t* = 0.08, *p* = 0.99, *d* = 0.02
Pre to delayed posttest	estimate = -0.27, *SE* = 0.26, *t* = -1.06, *p* = 0.53, *d* = 0.08	estimate = -1.07, *SE* = 0.21, *t* = -4.98, *p* = 0.00, *d* = 0.33

*Output from mixed effects binomial logistic regression model with HLs'
EIT accuracy responses for grammatical and ungrammatical items*

	Estimate	SE	t	p
Grammatical items				
Intercept	0.29	0.27	1.08	0.27
Instruction	-0.44	0.35	-1.26	0.20
Time (delayed posttest)	-1.01	0.36	-2.79	0.00
Time (posttest)	-0.68	0.35	-1.90	0.05
Instruction x Time (delayed posttest)	1.29	0.47	2.72	0.00
Instruction x Time (posttest)	1.21	0.48	2.48	0.01
Ungrammatical items				
Intercept	-3.32	0.58	-5.65	0.00
Instruction	0.48	0.78	0.62	0.53
Time (delayed posttest)	-0.50	1.16	-0.43	0.66
Time (post)	0.37	0.83	0.45	0.65
Instruction x Time (delayed posttest)	2.69	1.30	2.06	0.03
Instruction x Time (posttest)	1.37	1.01	1.35	0.17

Pairwise comparisons:

Grammatical items	Control group	Instructed group
Pre to posttest	estimate = 1.01, SE = 1.01, z = 2.79, p = 0.01, d = 0.35	estimate = -0.53, SE = 0.33, z = -1.60, p = 0.24, d = 0.42
Post to delayed posttest	estimate = -0.32, SE = 0.32, z = -0.99, p = 0.57, d = 0.13	, estimate = -0.24, SE = 0.32, z = -0.75, p = 0.73, d = 0.09
Pre to delayed posttest	estimate = 0.68, SE = 1.90, z = 0.13, p = 0.13, d = 0.39	estimate = -0.28, SE = 0.31, z = -0.92, p = 0.62, d = 0.22

Ungrammatical items	Control group	Instructed group
Pre to posttest	estimate = -0.37, SE = 0.83, z = -0.45, p = 0.89, d = 0.08	estimate = -1.75, SE = 0.57, z = -3.07, p = 0.00, d = 0.45
Post to delayed posttest	estimate = -0.88, SE = 1.17, z = -0.75, p = 0.73, d = 0.12	estimate = 0.44, SE = 0.37, z = 1.19, p = 0.45, d = 0.15
Pre to delayed posttest	estimate = 0.50, SE = 1.16, z = 0.43, p = 0.90, d = 0.04	estimate = -2.19, SE = 0.58, z = -3.75, p = 0.62, d = 0.63

6

An Examination of World Language Teacher Practices Regarding Target Language Instruction

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Abstract

In this study, 96 world language teachers in the state of Georgia completed a survey regarding their delivery of instruction in the target language. While ACTFL (2010, 2021) recommends using the target language 90% or more of the time to deliver instruction, only 20% of the world language instructors who were surveyed reported doing so. According to ACTFL (2010, 2021), delivering instruction in the target language is necessary to create an acquisition-rich environment where learners are exposed to significant amounts of comprehensible input—a key factor for second language acquisition to occur (Krashen, 1982). This study examined three factors that may play a part in world language instructors' practices regarding target language use; namely, teacher proficiency level, level of experience, and teacher foreign language anxiety. The results indicated that teachers' self-reported levels of proficiency were not correlated with delivery of instruction in the target language; however, language anxiety and level of experience appeared to play a part in world language teachers' target language use in the classroom. The findings of this study have implications for pre- and in-service world language teachers and administrators as well as for teacher education programs in Georgia and beyond.

Keywords: target language instruction, teacher proficiency, teacher experience, language anxiety

Introduction

The Classroom as an Acquisition-Rich Environment

According to the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL, 2010, 2021), world language (WL) students must receive significant

amounts of comprehensible input in the target language as well as opportunities to engage in meaningful interaction in order to develop proficiency in a target language and its cultures. ACTFL clearly states that WL educators and students should use the target language 90% or more of the time during class unless they are teaching in a dual language school, where instructional delivery in the target language should be 100% of the time (ACTFL, 2010, 2021). These recommendations are based on long-standing research in the fields of applied linguistics and second language acquisition (Krashen, 1982, 1985; Swain, 1985, 1995, 1998, Long, 1983, 1985, 1996), and according to these scholars, language learners must be exposed to target language input that has been made comprehensible by their instructors, they must be pushed to produce output, and they must have opportunities to interact in the target language, where they engage in the negotiation of meaning and receive feedback and correction. Therefore, these three ingredients—input, output, and interaction—are paramount for second-language learning to take place (Krashen, 1982, 1985; Swain, 1985, 1995, 1998, Long, 1983, 1985, 1996).

ACTFL has set forth instructional strategies that maximize target language use in the classroom in a position statement as follows:

1. provide comprehensible input that is directed toward communicative goals;
2. make meaning clear through body language, gestures, and visual support;
3. conduct comprehension checks to ensure understanding;
4. negotiate meaning with students and encourage negotiation among students;
5. elicit talk that increases in fluency, accuracy, and complexity over time;
6. encourage self-expression and spontaneous use of language;
7. teach students strategies for requesting clarification and assistance when faced with comprehension difficulties; and
8. offer feedback to assist and improve students' ability to interact orally in the target language. (ACTFL, 2010, p. 0)

While the strategies above have been clearly detailed and available for WL educators for over a decade, it is presently unclear to what extent they are being followed in WL classrooms across the country, and in particular, in Georgia. The goal of the present study was to reveal Georgia high school WL teachers' practices with respect to delivering instruction in the target language. Moreover, this study also explored possible impediments to teaching in the target language; namely, teacher proficiency level, level of experience, and teacher foreign language anxiety. By exploring these factors and uncovering classroom practices with respect to instructional delivery in the target language, recommendations can be made for teacher education programs and for pre- and in-service WL teacher professional development.

Review of the Literature

Teacher Proficiency in the Target Language

The ACTFL/CAEP standards for teacher preparation programs state that WL teachers should have a minimum of Advanced Low proficiency based on the ACTFL

Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI). Thus, in order to be nationally recognized in world language teacher education, a program must require an OPI of Advanced Low for all teacher candidates of commonly taught languages (e.g., Spanish, French, German). For less commonly taught languages such as Chinese, Japanese, and Arabic, the minimum proficiency level required is Intermediate High (ACTFL, 2012). These levels were chosen based on recommendations from the various national language-specific associations (e.g., American Association of Teachers of Japanese) in accordance with the ACTFL proficiency guidelines. While a teacher education program may require the Advanced Low level, the state in which the program is housed may have a lower requirement for teacher certification (Chambless 2012, Garcia et al, 2019). Currently, only 26 states require the OPI for teacher certification, and the proficiency level varies from Intermediate High to Advanced Low depending on the state (Huhn et al., 2020). The variation in state requirements could possibly be attributed to the fact that most WL majors only reach an Intermediate High level of proficiency after completing a 4-year undergraduate program (Swender, 2003). Kissau's 2014 study found that only 30% of non-native teacher candidates reached Advanced Low proficiency by graduation.

A possible reason for such a low percentage of candidates reaching Advanced Low could be that Kissau differentiated native and non-native speakers of the target language while other studies do not make that distinction. However, Kissau did note that the majority of teacher candidates did reach Intermediate High-level proficiency. Glisan et al. (2013) examined teacher candidates' OPI scores over a period of 6 years and found that 54.8% of teacher candidates reached Advanced Low proficiency, which is slightly higher than previous studies. Aoki (2013) suggests that more teacher candidates may actually achieve Advanced Low proficiency but do not score well on the OPI due to test anxiety.

The role of teacher target language proficiency has become a critical issue in the field of WL education. While there is an extensive amount of research to support the call for using the target language at least 90% of class time, there is little empirical evidence to support the connection between teacher effectiveness and target language proficiency (Chambless 2012; Huhn et al., 2020). However, second language acquisition research does indicate that the quantity, variety, and comprehensibility of target language input does affect student learning (Krashen, 1982, 1985; Long, 1983, 1985, 1996; Swain, 1985, 19985, 1998).

Additionally, ACTFL's rationale for requiring Advanced Low proficiency is that "[t]he heart of language instruction is the ability to teach students to communicate, which can only be possible if teachers themselves exemplify effective communicative skills" (ACTFL, 2002, p. 4). Therefore, Chambless's (2012) statement that there is an "intuitive assumption of a causal connection between a teacher's oral proficiency in the target language and the quality of teaching and learning that takes place in the classroom" (p. 142) seemingly rings true as does Sullivan's observation that "the French teacher who cannot speak French will not be a successful teacher of French" (2011, p. 241). Regardless, it cannot be ignored that the few empirical studies that have been conducted on teacher proficiency in the target language as it relates to classroom effectiveness have provided conflicting results (Chambless 2012, Huhn et al 2020).

With the lack of empirical data and the desperate need for WL teachers, some in the field have called for a lowering of the standard to Intermediate High for commonly taught languages, stating that the field may miss out on effective future teachers because they cannot reach Advanced Low proficiency (Burke 2013; Kissau & Algozzine, 2017). However, Advanced Low proficiency is necessary in order to provide the type of input-rich classroom that facilitates language acquisition (ACTFL 2023, Phillips 1998). The ACTFL Proficiency guidelines (2012) state that "Advanced Low speakers demonstrate the ability to narrate and describe in the major time frames of past, present and future in paragraph-length discourse with some aspect of control" (p. 6). If teachers do not have these skills in the target language, they will not be able to model comprehensible language usage skills for their students. While the rationale for Advanced Low proficiency is logical, it should be noted that reaching an Advanced Low proficiency level does not automatically translate to a candidate becoming an effective classroom teacher, as there are many other variables at play. Rather, as Tedick (2013) said, Advanced Low proficiency is a prerequisite to effective teaching.

Teacher Foreign Language Anxiety

Throughout this article, the term WL is used except in relation to the construct of teacher *foreign* language anxiety. With respect to teachers' perceptions of language anxiety, TFLAS used "foreign", as originally coined by Horwitz in her seminal work on language anxiety. Moreover, the instrument that she created to measure teachers' perceived levels of language anxiety is known as the Teacher Foreign Language Anxiety Scale or TFLAS (Horwitz, 1996, 2008; Horwitz et al. 1986). The TFLAS was employed in the present study and is discussed at length in the methodology section.

It should be noted that WL teachers who are not native speakers of the languages that they teach are advanced language learners themselves (Horwitz, 1985, 1988, 2008), and they may experience language anxiety, which is defined as "a distinct complex construct of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (Horwitz et al., 1996, p. 128). Horwitz asserted that teachers with high levels of language anxiety may opt for instructional strategies and techniques that do not require them to speak in the target language—such as grammar drills— rather than the open-ended communicative activities that are beneficial for language acquisition. Moreover, Horwitz (1996) claimed that teachers with high levels of language anxiety may subconsciously select strategies that favor more controlled and predictable interactions with their students; thus, limiting spontaneous speech in the target language in the interpersonal mode of communication. According to ACTFL's World Readiness Standards (2017), language learners must engage in three modes of communication: interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational. The interpretive mode of communication refers to all of the input that students hear, read, or view. With the presentational mode of communication, learners have time to plan and rehearse their written or spoken interactions. Conversely, with the interpersonal mode, students engage in person-to-person communication in real time; and by its nature, this mode of communication cannot be planned for or controlled by the teacher. Therefore, it is likely that teachers with language anxiety may avoid the

interpersonal mode of communication (i.e., speaking in the target language during class) (Horwitz, 1996).

Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) found that WL teachers who had low levels of language anxiety spoke spontaneously in the target language and did not worry about making mistakes in front of their students, while their counterparts with high levels of language anxiety were concerned about and attempted to avoid making mistakes when teaching, which impeded their delivery of instruction in the target language. In addition, WL instructors who have not yet reached the minimum proficiency levels recommended by ACTFL (2013) (Advanced Low for the commonly taught languages, such as Spanish and French, and Intermediate High for the less commonly taught languages, such as Arabic and Mandarin) may experience higher levels of language anxiety when speaking in the target language in front of their students (Fraga-Cañadas, 2010; Horwitz, 1985, 1988, 1989, 1990; Russell, 2013). Horwitz (1996) asserted that when teacher foreign language anxiety levels are high, "a teacher's ability to effectively present the target language, interact with students, and serve as a positive role model as a language learner" (p. 366) are inhibited. Moreover, Horwitz (1996) expressed concerns that students in WL classrooms with teachers who have high levels of language anxiety may receive negative messages regarding WL learning.

At present, the vast majority of studies on language anxiety have focused on classroom language learners and not on WL teachers. Among the few studies that examined teacher foreign language anxiety were Russell (2013), Tum (2015), and Kim and Kim (2004). Russell (2013) investigated whether participating in a short-term study abroad program could alleviate pre-service teachers' perceived levels of language anxiety the semester prior to their final clinical practice (formerly known as student teaching). The participants were seven teacher candidates enrolled in an undergraduate initial certification program in Foreign Language Education (Spanish). All of the participants were non-native speakers of Spanish. The candidates took the TFLAS as a pretest just prior to departure for Spain, where they took coursework on WL methodology alongside native Spaniards training to teach Spanish as a foreign language in Spain. At the end of their five-week program of studies, on the day of departure from Spain, the candidates took the TFLAS again as a post-test. Russell (2013) found that candidates' perceived levels of language anxiety were statistically significantly lower at posttest than at pretest, indicating that a short-term study abroad experience had a positive effect on teacher foreign language anxiety.

Tum (2015) examined teacher foreign language anxiety among 12 pre-service teachers of English who were enrolled in a teacher education program in Turkey. All of the participants were nonnative speakers of English. Tum used the FLCAS rather than the TFLAS to measure the participants' perceived levels of language anxiety quantitatively. In addition, participant interviews were conducted, transcribed, and examined qualitatively. Tum (2015) found that the preservice teachers in his study experienced significant levels of language anxiety, such that they avoided the use of English during their practice teaching. He concluded that preservice teachers' levels of language anxiety can be similar to those of the inexperienced language learners that they teach.

Kim and Kim (2004) investigated teacher foreign language anxiety among 147 in-service teachers of English as a foreign language in Korea. All of the participants were nonnative speakers of English. They modified Horwitz's TFLAS for their own instructional context and administered it to their participants. They also administered an open-ended questionnaire, which they analyzed qualitatively, in order to determine the specific situations that provoke teacher foreign language anxiety in classrooms as well as to uncover the coping strategies that teachers use to alleviate their own language anxiety. The researchers (Kim & Kim, 2004) found that the following situations provoked the most anxiety among their participants: low levels of proficiency in English, a lack of confidence in the classroom, and a lack of experience in the field of education. Therefore, Kim and Kim's findings suggest that teachers with less experience may have higher levels of language anxiety and may avoid delivering instruction in the target language. They also found that secondary level teachers had higher levels of language anxiety than elementary level teachers, which they attributed to the more complex linguistic and cultural content that must be taught at the secondary level (Kim & Kim, 2004).

With respect to actions that in-service teachers took to help alleviate their own anxiety, Kim and Kim (2004) found that the teachers in their study reported engaging in extensive preparation for class, using instructional technologies to infuse more activities in English, and they made a conscious effort to abandon their perfectionist tendencies (Kim & Kim, 2004). However, more research is needed to determine if more experienced high school WL teachers have lower levels of language anxiety than their counterparts who are less experienced. Moreover, it is presently unclear whether teacher foreign language anxiety, level of experience, or proficiency level has an effect on high school WL teachers' delivery of instruction in the target language in Georgia. The lack of determinative research in these areas has left a gap in the present body of knowledge on how a WL teacher's level of experience correlates to delivery of instruction in the target language. The present study aims to fill this gap in the literature.

The Covid-19 Pandemic

This research study was conducted in 2020 and in 2021; thus, it is important to address the possible effects of the Covid-19 pandemic on its results. As educational institutions worldwide grappled with lockdowns and social distancing, traditional teaching methods and paradigms were significantly disrupted (LeLoup & Swanson, 2022). Educators were forced to quickly transition to online and remote instruction often with no preparation for this type of instruction (Moser et al., 2021). Post-pandemic, much research has been conducted to ascertain the effects the pandemic had on learning and instruction. Troyan et al. (2022) conducted a study in which they surveyed teachers about their ability to enact certain core practices such as TL use. They found that teacher TL use was limited during the shift to remote instruction. Teachers cited various reasons for the limiting of TL use, including the need to connect with students in English to assure their safety and well-being. Having been designed and begun pre-pandemic, this study took no measures to assess pandemic effects on its results.

Given the gaps in our present body of knowledge outlined previously, the following research questions were investigated in this study:

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between teacher self-reported proficiency levels in the target language and the amount of instruction delivered in the target language?

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between level of experience and amount of instruction delivered in the target language?

Research Question 3: What is the relationship between perceived teacher foreign language anxiety levels and the amount of instruction delivered in the target language?:

Methods

Population and Sample

As of the summer of 2019, 2,693 WL teachers were active in the Georgia public school system (Georgia Department of Education, 2019). For this study, the population consisted of all public high school WL teachers in Georgia who were teaching a WL during the spring of 2021. All Georgia high school WL teachers were invited to participate, and the sample included 96 teachers who voluntarily answered the survey, which was delivered via Qualtrics. Although the percentage of respondents among the total population of world language teachers in Georgia was low, there was still a large enough number of participants to conduct the statistical analyses that were used in this study.

While teachers from both urban and rural schools were included, teachers from the Georgia Virtual Schools or any virtual learning environments were excluded because teaching language communicatively online requires specific training in online language pedagogy, which most teacher education programs fail to include in the curriculum (Russell & Murphy-Judy, 2021). Therefore, the present study only focused on high school WL teachers in traditional, brick-and-mortar classrooms. Moreover, the teachers in the sample were either certified in the WL that they teach or teaching under a provisional certificate as they worked to complete state certification requirements. The sample included non-native speakers, native speakers, and heritage speakers of the languages that they teach; teachers of both commonly taught languages (e.g., Spanish, French) and less commonly taught languages (e.g., Mandarin, Portuguese) were also included in the sample.

There were 68 women, 26 men, and two respondents who preferred not to provide their sex in the sample. Their teaching experience varied from 0 to over 30 years, with 20.84% having 5 or fewer years of experience, 45.83% having 6 to 19 years of experience, 31.25% with 20 to 29 years of experience, and 2.08% with 30 or more years of experience. The languages taught included French, German, Japanese, Mandarin, Portuguese, and Spanish. The vast majority taught Spanish (43.62%) or French (43.62), with the other languages only comprising 12.77% of respondents. With respect to native versus non-native participants, 61.36% of participants did not consider themselves to be L1 speakers of the languages that they teach, 25% considered themselves to be L1 speakers, and 13.64% considered themselves to be heritage speakers of the languages that they teach.

Context

The study took place in Georgia where the lead researcher was completing her dissertation study. She was interested in the high school population of teachers because she had many years of teaching experience at this level in the state. Moreover, the Georgia WL supervisor assisted this study by supplying e-mail addresses and encouraging Georgia WL teachers to participate in the survey.

In Georgia, all high school graduates must have at least two consecutive years of WL credits to pursue a bachelor's degree at a four-year state college. A total of 288,054 high school students studied a WL in Georgia in 2019, with the following breakdown of students:183,634 (63.75%) Spanish, 35,961 (30.41%) French, 8,774 (3.05%) Latin, 6,171 (2.14%) German, 2,059 (0.72%) Chinese, 915 (0.32%) Japanese, 189 (0.07%) Portuguese, 167 (0.06%) Russian, 137 (0.05%) Arabic, 20 (< 0.001%) Korean, 15 (< 0.001%) Italian, and 12 (< 0.001%) Greek (Surin, 2019). According to Surin (2019), the less commonly taught languages were mainly accessible in the Atlanta metropolitan area of the state and included the following counties and districts: Atlanta Public Schools, Cherokee County, Cobb County, Hall County, and Gwinnett County. The majority of the survey respondents taught Spanish or French, which was reflective of the student body of WL students in the state.

Instruments and Measures

Survey

The three-part survey found in the Appendix included 46 items. Part I (Appendix A) was a teacher background questionnaire (TBQ), Part II (Appendix B) was Horwitz' (2008) Teacher Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (TFLAS), and Part III was a Professional Development Survey (PDS). All participants completed Part I and Part III; however, only teachers who considered themselves to be nonnative speakers of the languages that they teach completed Part II of the survey. Therefore, those that considered themselves to be heritage or first language (L1) speakers of the languages that they teach were asked not to complete the TFLAS because it was designed to measure "foreign" language anxiety. It should be noted that the word "foreign" has fallen out of favor because it may be offensive to L1 speakers of languages other than English in the US; therefore, most stakeholders prefer to use the term world language (WL). However, given the creator of the TFLAS used the term "foreign," this term is used in relation to the TFLAS instrument while the term WL is used in all other contexts. All three surveys were delivered at the same time, with TBQ appearing first, then the TFLAS, and finally the PDS.

TBQ. This instrument was comprised of 14 items, and it elicited demographic information, self-reported ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) scores, participants' perceptions of their current proficiency level on the ACTFL scale, highest educational level obtained, and current or former language teaching experience. Furthermore, the TBQ queried the number of years a Georgia teaching certificate was held, the type of certificate (free and clear v. provisional), the languages and levels taught, and the total number of years of experience teaching a WL, whether in Georgia or elsewhere. The TBQ is presented in Appendix A.

TFLAS. Horwitz's (2008) version of the TFLAS was employed in the present study. This instrument is based on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), which has been widely used in the field of WL education since it was developed in the mid-1980s (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). The FLCAS measures three types of related anxieties: communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety. To adapt this instrument for language teachers, items pertaining to test anxiety were removed and items measuring self-efficacy were added, as Horwitz claimed that self-efficacy and anxiety are inversely related (Horwitz, 1996, 2008).

The TFLAS contains 18 items rated on a 5-point Likert Scale, with total scores ranging from 18 to 90. Lower scores indicate lower perceived levels of language anxiety and higher scores indicate higher perceived language anxiety levels; therefore, according to the scale, the more anxious the teacher is, the higher the score. Horwitz (2008) advises dividing the total score by 18 to compute a raw score, claiming that raw scores of three or higher demonstrate that the teacher experiences at least some level of foreign language anxiety. The FLCAS, which is the foundation instrument for the TFLAS, has been shown to be valid and reliable by Horwitz (1986), Price (1991), and Aida (1994). Horwitz (1993, 1996) also found the TFLAS to be valid and reliable. The TFLAS is presented in Appendix B.

The PDS. The PDS contained 29 items and was adapted from Fraga-Canadas' (2008) teacher professional development survey, which she delivered in Ohio. The PDS was comprised of eight Likert or Rating Scale Items, fourteen multiple-choice items, and seven open-ended questions. This part of the survey queried teacher practices, including the amount of instruction that teachers deliver in the target language to teach grammatical concepts, cultural concepts, and vocabulary, as well as teachers' professional development activities to maintain or build proficiency in the languages they teach. The full results of the PDS were reported in another manuscript that focused on teachers' professional development activities; however, this article focuses specifically on Item 8 (level of teaching experience), Item 13 (perceived proficiency), and Items 15 to 18 of the PDS, which measured the amount of instruction delivered in the target language. More specifically, participants were asked to rate the amount of time that they deliver instruction in the target language for instructing grammar (Item 15), vocabulary (Item 16), culture (Item 17), and overall (Item 18). The responses from which they selected for Items 14 to 17 were on a sliding scale as follows: (1) 10% or less; (2) 11% to 24%; (3) 25% to 49%; (4) 50% to 89%; and (5) 90% to 100%.

According to Fraga-Cañadas (2008), two forms of validity strategies were completed; a preliminary field test, in which face validity was evaluated, and content validity. By testing the face validity of the survey, the degree to which the instrument appears valid to untrained readers was evaluated. In terms of content validity, Fraga-Cañadas (2008) engaged three experts in the field of WL education who examined each survey item to determine if it matched the construct that it was purported to measure. Any problematic items were either rephrased or deleted based on suggestions from the experts. Fraga-Cañadas also checked the internal consistency validity of the PDS and found the instrument to be valid and reliable.

Data Analysis

In order to measure and interpret the data for this study quantitatively, the following statistical tests were employed: (1) the Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficient (also known as Spearman's Rho) Analysis, and (2) the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Analysis. Moreover, the researchers analyzed the descriptive data by examining central tendencies such as the mean, median, mode, and standard deviation for each survey item.

A Spearman Rho (correlation) analysis was conducted to answer Research Question 1: *What is the relationship between teacher proficiency level in the target language and the amount of instruction delivered in the target language?* This analysis determined the strength of the relationship between teacher proficiency level, as measured by Item 13 of the TBQ, which queried teachers' perceived proficiency levels according to the ACTFL scale (2012), and the amount of instruction delivered in the target language, which was derived from four Likert-scale items from the PDS that queried the amount of instruction delivered in the target language (Items 15 - 18). Teachers' perceived proficiency level is a categorical variable, with scores ranging from a low of Intermediate Mid or lower to a high of Advanced High or higher (1—Intermediate Mid or Lower, 2—Intermediate High, 3—Advanced Low, 4—Advanced Mid, and 5—Advanced High or Higher). The mean score for the four Likert-scale items that measured the amount of instruction delivered in the target language is interval-level data, but because perceived proficiency level represents categorical data, a Spearman Rho correlation analysis was the most appropriate statistical test given that this data was nonparametric.

Regarding Research Question 2 (examining the relationship between level of experience and amount of instruction in the target language), a Spearman Rho (correlation) analysis was conducted to determine the strength of the relationship between level of experience, as measured by Item 8 of the TBQ (which measured level of experience), and Items 15 through 18 on the PDS, which measured delivery of instruction in the target language. Item 8 categorized instructors' experience into six levels as follows: 1—zero to three years, 2—four to five years, 3—six to nine years, 4—ten to nineteen, 5—twenty to twenty-nine, and 6—30 or more years of experience. Because level of experience was a categorical variable and nonparametric, a Spearman Rho correlation analysis was the most appropriate test to employ.

A Pearson Product Moment Correlation Analysis was conducted to answer Research Question 3: *What is the relationship between perceived teacher foreign language anxiety levels and the amount of instruction delivered in the target language?* This test measured the strength of the linear association between the mean scores for Target Language Instruction Delivery (Items 15 – 18 of the PDS) and mean TFLAS scores. Because both of these variables are interval-level data, the Pearson Product Moment analysis was the most appropriate statistical test to employ.

Results

Findings for Research Question 1

To answer Research Question 1, five survey items were analyzed using a Spearman Rho test. Of the 96 survey respondents, 88 answered all of the relevant survey items needed for this analysis (Items 13, 15, 16, 17, and 18), while eight participants did not respond to these items and could not be included in the analysis. For Item 13 (perceived proficiency level), participants reported high levels of proficiency in the target language: $M = 4.07$, $SD = 1.13$. Most participants reported their proficiency to be Advanced Low or higher (see Table 1 for a breakdown of scores for Item 13), while only four respondents estimated that their target language proficiency was Intermediate High and five participants judged their own proficiency to be Advanced Mid or lower.

Table 1
Perceived Proficiency Level Scores – Item #13

	Response	*n*	%
1	Intermediate Mid or Lower	5	5.68
2	Intermediate High	4	4.54
3	Advanced Low	11	12.50
4	Advanced Mid	28	31.82
5	Advanced High or Higher	40	45.45
	Total	88	100.00

Note. $N = 88$. Responses for 8 participants in the total sample of 96 were not submitted.

Regarding delivery of instruction in the target language, the mean scores and standard deviations for Items 15 – 18 are reported in Table 2. It should be noted that these scores are low, as the expectation is that WL teachers deliver 90% or more of their instruction in the target language. Therefore, a score of five on these items means that teachers are meeting the expectation with respect to delivering instruction in the target language and scores below five signify that they are not.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations of "Target Language Delivery of Instruction" Scores
– Items 15–18

Item	M	SD
15 Grammar instruction	2.84	1.28
16 Vocabulary instruction	3.69	1.14
17 Culture instruction	3.19	1.30
18 Overall instruction	3.60	1.13

Note. $N = 88$. Responses for 8 participants in the total
sample of 96 were not submitted.

An examination of Table 2 reveals that the mean score for instructing grammar was the lowest and the mean score for instructing vocabulary was the highest. Item 18 queried teachers' overall use of the target language to deliver instruction and the results are presented in Table 3. A visual examination of Table 3 reveals that slightly over 20% of the teachers surveyed reported teaching in the target language 90% or more of the time, while the majority of the respondents (42.05%) reported using the target language to deliver instruction only 50% to 89% of the time. Surprisingly, over 15% of the participants reported using the target language less than 25% of the time to deliver their instruction.

Table 3

Breakdown of "Overall Delivery of Instruction in Target Language" Scores – Item 18

Response	n	%
1 10% or less	7	7.95
2 11% to 24%	7	7.95
3 25% to 49%	19	21.59
4 50% to 89%	37	42.05
5 90% to 100%	18	20.45
Total	88	100.00

Note. $N = 88$. Responses for 8 participants in the total
sample of 96 were not submitted.

When the four items that measured the construct instructional delivery in the target language were combined (Items 15, 16, 17, and 18), the results indicated that the overall mean score was low: $M = 3.31$, $SD = 0.97$.

In order to determine if there was a relationship between the two variables, data were subjected to a Spearman Rho analysis. The results revealed no correlation between perceived proficiency level and delivery of instruction in the target language, $r = 0.03$, $p > 0.05$.

Findings for Research Question 2

Five survey items were analyzed using a Spearman Rho test to answer Research Question 2. Eighty-eight of the 96 survey respondents answered all of the relevant survey items needed for this analysis (Items 8, 15, 16, 17, and 18). Item 8 queried participants' level of teaching experience, with scores categorized into the following levels: 1—zero to three years, 2—four to five years, 3—six to nine years, 4—ten to nineteen, 5—twenty to twenty-nine, and 6—30 or more years of experience. Items 15 – 18 measured the amount of instruction delivered in the target language. A breakdown of scores for Item 8 is presented in Table 4. It should be noted that 96 survey respondents answered Item 8, but only 88 of them answered Items 15 – 17 (target language delivery); therefore, eight of the respondents below were excluded from the analysis.

Table 4
Breakdown of "Level of Experience" Scores – Item 8

	Years of Experience	**n**	**%**
1	0 to 3	17	17.71
2	4 to 5	3	3.13
3	6 to 9	7	7.29
4	10 to 19	37	38.54
5	20 to 29	30	31.25
6	30 or more	2	2.08
	Total	96	100.00

Note. N = 96.

An examination of Table 4 reveals that well over half of the respondents (69.78%) had between ten and twenty-nine years of experience while only 28.13% of participants had zero to nine years of experience. Only a very small percentage of participants had over thirty years of experience (2.08%). Mean scores for Level of Experience (M = 3.72, SD = 1.40) and Target Language Delivery (M = 3.31, SD = 0.97) were subjected to a Spearman Rho analysis. The results revealed no correlation between level of experience and target language delivery of instruction: r = .16, p > .05.

Level of experience was then examined for nonnative speakers only, with fifty participants whose L1 was English included in the analysis. While 54 survey respondents identified themselves as nonnative speakers, only fifty of them completed Item 8. For Item 8 (level of experience), participants' responses ranged from low of 1 (zero years of experience) to high of 6 (over thirty years of experience): M = 3.54, SD = 1.50. The mean target language delivery score for these fifty respondents was somewhat low: M = 3.44, SD = 0.73.

When native and nonnatives were combined, experience did not correlate with instructional delivery in the target language. However, when only nonnative speakers were taken into account, there was a positive correlation between delivery

of instruction in the target language and years of experience that was statistically significant (r = .29, p < .05), meaning that the more years of experience, the more likely a nonnative teacher will deliver instruction in the target language.

Findings for Research Question 3

Research Question 3 examined the relationship between the amount of instruction delivered in the target language and perceived teacher foreign language anxiety levels, as measured by the TFLAS. For this analysis, only data from respondents who considered themselves to be nonnative speakers were examined. Participants who identified as L1 or heritage speakers of Spanish with near native proficiency were not asked to complete the TFLAS. While 54 respondents self-identified as nonnative speakers, only 51 of them completed Items 15 – 17, which measured the amount of instruction that they deliver in the target language, and Item 20, the TFLAS; therefore, scores from 51 participants were included in this analysis. Table 5 presents the responses for Item 19, which queried participants' native speaker status.

Table 5
Breakdown of "Native Speaker Status" Scores – Item 19

Response	*n*	%
1 No, I do not consider myself to be a native speaker of the WL that I teach.	54	61.36
2 Yes, I consider myself to be a native speaker of the WL that I teach.	22	25.00
3 No, I do not consider myself to be a native speaker, but I am a heritage speaker with near native proficiency.	12	13.64
Total	88	100.00

Note. N = 88. Eight participants did not respond to this item.

The TFLAS contains 18 items rated on a five-point Likert scale and scores ranged from 18 – 90, with lower scores indicating lower perceived levels of language anxiety and higher scores indicating higher perceived language anxiety levels. In the interest of space, a breakdown of select TFLAS responses is presented in Table 6.

For this analysis, 51 participants' target language instructional delivery scores (M = 3.42, SD = 0.74) and TFLAS scores (M = 45.88, SD = 11.47) were subjected to a Pearson Product Moment Correlation Analysis. The statistical test revealed a weak negative relationship between TFLAS scores and delivery of instruction in the target language: r = -0.21, p > .05. Although the p value was not significant, this finding indicates that when anxiety scores are higher, scores for instructional delivery in the target language tend to be lower.

Table 6

Breakdown of Select TFLAS Item Scores – Items 3, 5, 9, 12, and 15

	TFLAS item text	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly Agree	
		n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*N*	%
3	I am afraid that native speakers will notice every mistake I make.	7	13.21	13	24.53	6	11.32	21	39.62	6	11.32
5	I feel self-conscious speaking my foreign language in front of teachers of my foreign language.	9	16.98	13	24.53	6	11.32	18	33.96	7	13.21
9	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking my foreign language in front of native speakers.	6	11.32	14	26.42	15	28.30	13	24.53	5	9.43
12	I speak my language well enough to be a good foreign language teacher.	0	0.00	1	1.89	2	3.77	19	35.85	31	58.49
15	I always feel that other teachers speak the language better than I do.	7	13.21	17	32.08	10	18.87	14	26.42	5	9.43

Note. $N = 53$. Only participants identifying as non-native speakers completed the TFLAS. TFLAS = Teacher Foreign Language Anxiety Scale.

Summary of Findings

Perceived proficiency. The results of the present study indicate that there is no relationship between teachers' perceived proficiency level and delivery of instruction in the target language. The participants in this study rated their proficiency in the languages that they teach quite high (with a mean score of 4.07, corresponding to Advanced Mid on the ACTFL Proficiency Scale); however, only about half of graduates of teacher education programs who are nonnative speakers of the languages that they teach reach the minimum proficiency levels by graduation—Advanced Low for most languages taught in Georgia or Intermediate High for the less commonly taught languages such as Arabic and Mandarin—(Glisan et al., 2013). While 32 respondents identified as native or heritage speakers, 54 participants identified themselves as nonnative speakers, and eight participants did not reply to the item that queried native or heritage speaker status.

Moreover, despite participants rating themselves very high in target language proficiency, the mean score for delivering instruction in the target language was relatively low (with only 20.45% of participants reporting that they deliver 90% or more of their instruction in the target language). If participants' proficiency levels were indeed at the Advanced Mid-level, then it is unclear why the mean score for target language delivery is significantly lower than the 90% that is recommended by ACTFL (2010, 2021). Therefore, it is possible that participants overestimated

their target language proficiency, which could explain why there was no correlation between perceived proficiency level and delivery of instruction in the target language. Similarly, Moser et al (2013) found while teachers generally self-assessed their proficiency level as Advanced or Superior, they lacked confidence in using the TL in classroom instruction.

Level of experience. When level of teaching experience was examined among all respondents, there was no correlation found between instructional delivery in the target language and experience. However, when only nonnative speaker participants were examined, a weak positive correlation was found between these two constructs. The statistically significant positive correlation indicated that with more years of teaching experience, nonnative speaker high school WL teachers in Georgia delivered more of their instruction in the target language. Therefore, nonnative speakers delivered more instruction in the target language over time, but when native speakers and nonnative speakers were combined, then there was no correlation with level of experience and target language instruction. More research is needed to determine why there is a difference between native and nonnative speakers with respect to this finding; however, it is possible that with more years of classroom experience, teachers may have increased their proficiency levels and the amount of instruction that they delivered in the target language.

Language anxiety. With respect to teacher foreign language anxiety, only participants who self-identified as nonnative or nonheritage speakers of Spanish were included in this analysis. The mean TFLAS score was 45.88, indicating that most respondents perceived at least some level of teacher foreign language anxiety. The results of the Pearson analysis revealed a non-statistically significant weak negative correlation between the mean TFLAS score and the mean score for instructional delivery in the target language. In other words, higher anxiety scores tended to be correlated with lower scores for teaching in the target language.

Implications for Pedagogy

It appears that less experienced teachers who are nonnative speakers of the languages that they teach would benefit from professional development that focuses on delivering instruction in the target language. It is possible that these teachers are not as well versed on the strategies that are recommended by ACTFL (2010) for maximizing target language use in the classroom. Professional development workshops that focus on these strategies would be especially beneficial for less experienced teachers and for those who are nonnative speakers of the languages that they teach, this includes those teaching on temporary or provisional certificates, which is quite common in the state in which this survey took place.

With respect to teacher foreign language anxiety, the results of this study show that all respondents who identified as nonnative speakers of the languages that they teach experience at least some level of teacher foreign language anxiety, and the findings suggest that when teachers' anxiety levels are higher, their delivery of instruction in the target language is lower. Because nonnative speaker WL teachers are advanced language learners themselves, it is not unusual for them to experience significant levels of language anxiety (Horwitz, 1996). It should be noted, however, that regardless of native, heritage, or nonnative speaker status, all WL teachers bring

unique gifts and talents into the classroom and students benefit from all qualified WL teachers who engage in standards-based instruction while providing learners with rich, comprehensible input as well as opportunities to produce output and to engage in interaction with feedback and corrections (Krashen, 1982, 1985; Long, 1983, 1985, 1996; Swain, 1985, 19985, 1998).

However, for those WL instructors who do experience teacher foreign language anxiety, professional development workshops that provide strategies for reducing language anxiety could be helpful. Kim and Kim (2004) detailed a number of strategies that the teachers in their study found helpful; namely, spending more time preparing for class, using instructional technologies to provide activities that immerse students in the target language, and accepting that it is impossible to be a perfect speaker of any language. With respect to the use of instructional technologies, conversation platforms and virtual language exchanges are powerful ways to engage learners in target language communication with native speakers beyond the classroom walls (Russell & Murphy-Judy, 2021). Kim and Kim also found that a lack of proficiency was the most significant factor that contributed to teachers' perceptions of language anxiety. The researchers suggested that professional development activities that focused on increasing proficiency could also be beneficial for alleviating teachers' perceptions of language anxiety.

Implications for WL Teacher Education Programs

WL teacher education programs need to recognize that teacher candidates may experience significant levels of language anxiety. Moreover, nonnative speaker teacher candidates may feel additional pressure to meet the minimum proficiency level required to teach their language by graduation. WL teacher educators could provide opportunities for candidates to practice their language outside of class, they could encourage candidates to study abroad or to spend time immersed in a country where the target language is spoken, which was beneficial for the teacher candidates in Russell's 2013 study, as their level of language anxiety was significantly lower after completing a short-term study abroad program in Spain. WL teacher educators could also discuss the results of research on teacher foreign language anxiety in class, noting that it is common for advanced language learners to experience significant levels of language anxiety. They could also discuss strategies for reducing language anxiety.

In addition, teacher education programs should emphasize the strategies outlined by ACTFL (2010) for maximizing target language use in the classroom as well as the ACTFL (2010, 2021) recommendations for using the target language 90% or more of the time to deliver instruction (or 100% of the time within the context of dual language schools). Given that newer teachers who were nonnative speakers appeared to struggle more with delivering instruction in the target language, emphasizing strategies for teaching in the target language using comprehensible input should be of paramount importance in WL teacher education programs.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

Like all studies, the present study was not free from limitations; namely, the survey elicited self-reported data from a voluntary sample, respondents completed

the survey after the onset of the pandemic, and data were only analyzed quantitatively. The research design employed a survey methodology with a sampling of individuals from a population followed by quantitative analyses of data collected from the survey. While random sampling from the entire population of WL high school teachers from across the country is beyond the scope of this study, all high school WL teachers in Georgia public schools were invited to participate in the survey. Those WL language teachers who elected to participate were included in the study; therefore, this was a voluntary sample. It was customary for the participants in a voluntary sample to have a strong interest in the main topic of the survey. In addition, all of the data collected from the survey were self-reported; therefore, participants may not have been truthful or they may have had difficulty assessing themselves accurately. While the voluntary sample and self-reported data were limitations of the present study, the survey provided valuable information about Georgia WL teachers' practices with respect to instructing in the target language and their perceived levels of teacher foreign language anxiety.

Another limitation is the unknown impact of the global pandemic. The COVID-19 epidemic forced almost all Georgia WL teachers into the online teaching environment in March of 2020. However, by March of 2021—when the survey was delivered—most instructors had moved back into their classrooms with the addition of safety protocols such as masking and social distancing. It is presently unclear what impact the pandemic had on the delivery of instruction in the target language among Georgia high school WL educators as a result of these protocols. In particular, wearing a mask while attempting to teach a WL is especially problematic, as learners must not only hear but also see the manner and place of articulation to approximate the correct target language pronunciation, which can be hindered by masking. Although some creative teachers used masks with clear panels so that students could visualize their pronunciation, these types of masks still muffle sound and they likely impeded learners' ability to engage in interpretive listening to the input provided by their teachers.

Moreover, many Georgia public schools provided students with a HyFlex option, where some students could opt to receive instruction online while others attended class in person. This model necessitated instructors to teach while standing in front of their computer screens, which is not optimal for interacting with students in the classroom. Moreover, this delivery model splits the teachers' attention between two very different learning environments—instructors had to plan for two types of instruction (both in person and online), which added to their workload during the spring of 2021. Therefore, the heavier demands on their time may have precluded them from using the communicative techniques that they know to be pedagogically sound (Russell & Curtis, 2013).

Finally, this study only employed quantitative methods. Future studies could examine data qualitatively, employing focus groups and/or participant interviews to further uncover WL teachers' practices and use of the target language to deliver instruction. Moreover, the survey relied on self-reported data to determine teacher proficiency level, which may not have been accurate. Replicating this study with assessment data on OPI scores would be beneficial. Also, this study found that

most Georgia WL high teachers are not using the target language 90% or more of the time and qualitative studies could reveal why this is so. Moreover, examining differences between teachers on provisional certificates and certified teachers could help elucidate the findings of this study.

Conclusion

While the present study was conducted in Georgia, factors such as WL teacher proficiency level, level of experience, and teacher foreign language anxiety are relevant in all contexts where languages are taught and learned in classroom settings. The findings of this study indicate that all WL teachers would benefit from professional development that focuses specifically on instructional strategies for maximizing target language use in the classroom using comprehensible input, as the majority of the respondents in this study, regardless of native speaker status, did not follow ACTFL recommendations for delivering instruction in the target language 90% of the time. Moreover, newer teachers who are nonnative speakers of the languages that they teach should be equipped with strategies for alleviating their language anxiety, which should help them feel more comfortable engaging in communicative activities in the interpersonal mode of communication, which are essential for the language acquisition process to take place. Focused professional development in these areas for pre-and in-service teachers could have a beneficial impact on language teaching and learning in Georgia and beyond.

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Appendix A

Teacher Background Questionnaire (TBQ)

Please choose the best answer to the following questions:

1. Sex
   a. Male
   b. Female
   c. Prefer not to answer

2. Age
   a. 21–30
   b. 31–40
   c. 41–50
   d. 51+

3. Race/Ethnicity
   a. American Indian or Alaska Native
   b. Asian
   c. Black or African American
   d. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
   e. White
   f. Prefer not to answer

4. Are you Hispanic or Latino or Spanish Origin?
      Yes/No

5. Are you a Native or Heritage Speaker in the language that you teach?
      Yes/No

6. What world language(s) do you currently teach?
      One language_____

7. Select one option that best describes your educational level.
   a. Nondegreed
   b. Associate
   c. Bachelor's
   d. Master's
   e. Specialist
   f. Doctorate

8. Do you hold a Georgia teaching certificate in foreign language, such as in Spanish or French?
(Please circle all that apply)
   a. Yes
   b. No
   c. I am currently in the process of obtaining my Georgia teaching certificate.
   d. I am currently seeking to add another language to my certificate.

9. How many years of teaching foreign language experience do you have in the State of Georgia?
   a. 0–3
   b. 3–5
   c. 5–10
   d. 10–20
   e. 20–30
   f. 30+

10. How many years of overall teaching experience do you have overall?
   a. 0–3
   b. 3–5
   c. 5–10
   d. 10–20
   e. 20–30
   f. 30+

11. Did you ever take an official ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) in the target language that you teach?
        Yes, or No

12. If yes, what was your level of proficiency at that time?
    a. Intermediate Mid or Lower
    b. Intermediate High
    c. Advanced Low
    d. Advanced Mid
    e. Advanced High or Higher

13. When was the last time you took the OPI?
    a. 0–3
    b. 3–5
    c. 5–10
    d. 10–20
    e. 20–30
    f. 30+

14. What is your estimated proficiency level in the target language that you teach according to the ACTFL Proficiency Scale? For the complete details on the levels click here: https://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/public/ACTFLProficiencyGuidelines2012_FINAL.pdf
    a. Intermediate Mid or Lower
    b. Intermediate High
    c. Advanced Low
    d. Advanced Mid
    e. Advanced High or Higher

Appendix B

Teacher Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (TFLAS)

TFLAS Directions: For each item, indicate whether you (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neither agree nor disagree, (4) agree, or (5) strongly agree.

1. It frightens me when I don't understand what someone is saying in my foreign language.

2. I would not worry about taking a course conducted entirely in my foreign language.

3. I am afraid that native speakers will notice every mistake I make.

4. I am pleased with the level of foreign language proficiency I have achieved.

5. I feel self-conscious speaking my foreign language in front of teachers of my foreign

        language.

6. When speaking my foreign language, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.

7. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn in order to speak a foreign

        language.

8. I feel comfortable around native speakers of my foreign language.

9. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking my foreign language in front of native

        speakers.

10. I am not nervous speaking my foreign language with students.

11. I don't worry about making mistakes in my foreign language.

12. I speak my language well enough to be a good foreign language teacher.

13. I get nervous when I don't understand every word a native speaker says.

14. I feel confident when I speak my foreign language.

15. I always feel that other teachers speak the language better than I do

16. I don't understand why some people think learning a foreign language is so hard.

17. I try to speak my foreign language with native speakers whenever I can.

18. I feel that my foreign language preparation was adequate to become a foreign language teacher.

7

Fostering Novice L2 Pleasure Reading: The Role of Comprehension, Text Difficulty, and Enjoyment

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Abstract

This study reviews the effect of comprehension and perceived text difficulty in promoting reading enjoyment and interest to read more among novice learners practicing extensive and pleasure reading. Sixty-seven college students in their first semester of Spanish were asked to read a children-like story picture book in Spanish and were then given both a comprehension test and a brief perception questionnaire about how much they had enjoyed the story, how difficult they thought the reading had been, and whether they had interest to read more. Descriptive and inferential statistical analyses show that (1) students' perception on the level of difficulty of a text align with their actual comprehension of the story, (2) the level of reading enjoyment is strongly related to how much the students understood and how difficult the text was perceived to be, and (3) reading enjoyment and interest to read more are highly correlated when novice learners find the text easy. Pedagogical implications are discussed.

Keywords: *Extensive and pleasure reading, novice learners, reading enjoyment, reading interest, reading comprehension, text difficulty, college level, Spanish as L2*

Background

Palmer (1977, as cited in Day & Bamford 1989) initially coined the term *extensive reading* to distinguish this holistic approach from *intensive reading*, characterized by a more analytical style. Over time, the concept of *extensive reading* has been recognized by various names in practice and the literature, such as *pleasure reading*, reading for pleasure, independent reading, sustained silent reading, free voluntary reading, leisure or recreational reading. Despite the diverse labels, they all refer to the same concept. In this paper, the term *extensive and pleasure reading* (EPR) will be used.

EPR is an instructional approach in which learners read numerous easy books with the purpose of enjoyment and general comprehension. It involves students self-selecting reading materials based on their interests and language proficiency. Suitable materials for pleasure reading include graded readers, short stories, comics, novels, and magazines. An effective method for implementing EPR at lower levels

of instruction incorporates the use of a reading aloud technique. Teachers read books aloud, actively engaging with students, introducing vocabulary, modeling pronunciation and intonation, and fostering discussions related to the content. This method has proven effective among English learners with novice and emerging levels of proficiency across various language instruction contexts, including second language learning, children developing their first language, and low-literate adults (Krashen, 2015; Rodrigo et al., 2014).

Literature Review

Krashen is a prominent advocate for EPR, which he terms Pleasure Reading or Free Voluntary Reading. He has played a crucial role in explaining the theoretical foundations of EPR, which are based on the Input-Comprehension Hypothesis, the Reading Hypothesis, the Pleasure Hypothesis, and the notion that we learn to read by reading (Eskey, 1986; Goodman, 1982). The Input Hypothesis (1982, 1985) states that we acquire language when we understand messages, that is, when we understand what we hear and what we read, when we receive *comprehensible input*. The input hypothesis suggests that language acquisition happens when learners are exposed to input that is slightly above their current proficiency level, but still understandable with the help of context and other linguistic clues. This is referred to as the "i+1" metaphor, where "i" represents the learner's current level of linguistic competence, and "+1" represents language input that is slightly above it. If the input is too easy, below the learner's current level ("i-1"), it may lack the necessary linguistic challenge for language acquisition to occur. However, i-1 can have positive outcomes in terms of boosting learners' confidence and fostering positive attitudes toward reading, aligning with the principles of EPR (Day & Bamford, 1998).

The Reading Hypothesis (Krashen, 2004), based on the Input Hypothesis, claims that reading in large amounts for content and information is the source of language acquisition and literacy in a first language (L1) and a second language (L2). Reading results in the acquisition of literacy-related aspects of language: reading comprehension, spelling, vocabulary, writing style, grammar, reading fluency. The Pleasure Hypothesis (Krashen, 1994) states that the pedagogical activities that promote language acquisition are enjoyable. This observation may explain why students often express enjoyment in reading simple and 'silly' stories, particularly at the beginner level; however, enjoyment does not guarantee language acquisition.

There is a substantial body of research supporting reading as an effective tool for accelerating language acquisition and promoting language literacy in both first and second languages (Day & Bamford, 1998; Krashen, 2004; Lichtman & VanPatten, 2021). Specifically, EPR has emerged as one of the most effective ways to acquire a language while deriving enjoyment from the reading experience. EPR modality complements the more traditional intensive reading practices where students read short texts, often difficult, with the purpose of practicing grammar and vocabulary. Research advocates for the integration of both reading modalities, intensive and extensive, as integral parts of any language curriculum (Grabe, 2009; Jeon et al., 2015; Nation, 2009).

Despite the evidence demonstrating that EPR contributes to the development of literacy and language proficiency in a L1 (Krashen, 2004) as well as English as a L2

(Day & Bamford, 1998; Krashen, 2011; Nation & Waring, 2020), its adoption in the context of Spanish as a second or foreign language has been limited. Studies on EPR in English as a L2, consistently show improvements in reading speed, vocabulary acquisition, spelling accuracy, grammar proficiency, writing style, listening comprehension, and speaking skills (Jeon & Day, 2016; Jeon & Yamashita, 2014; Krashen, 2007; Liu & Zhang, 2018; Mol & Bos, 2011; Nakanishi, 2015). Longitudinal studies further emphasize the importance of time, with extended programs yielding more robust benefits, although some short-term programs have also proven effective (Pilgreen & Krashen, 1993; Suk, 2017). In essence, the more language learners read, the more proficient they become in reading, fostering faster development of literacy in both first and second languages.

Affective Benefits and Extensive and Pleasure Reading

EPR can operate optimally as a catalyst for language acquisition in L1 and L2, a crucial factor in enhancing students' success as learners. To transform EPR into a language acquisition pathway, it is crucial to understand and interconnect two key conditions:

1.   Readers must understand what they are reading.
2.   Readers must read a lot.

Reading at the appropriate level can serve as an optimal source of comprehensible input. For linguistic gains to happen through reading, condition 1 must be met, as language acquisition occurs when we understand the messages exposed to us (Krashen, 1982). To fulfill this condition, learners must be provided with a diverse range of reading materials concerning different topics and levels of difficulty, allowing them to choose what is interesting and comprehensible to them. However, reading and understanding a few books is not sufficient for language acquisition to occur through reading. Learners must be exposed to a significant amount of input (condition 2); in other words, they must understand and read a lot (Krashen 2004). Consequently, the primary aspect to consider when promoting EPR as a learning tool for language acquisition through reading is at the affective level: learners must want to read.

Research indicates that EPR positively impacts affective variables such as attitude towards reading, motivation to read, and reading habits (Day & Bamford, 1998). Developing a reading habit is a fundamental goal of an EPR program, aiming to help learners become independent readers who continue to enhance their language skills through reading beyond the classroom. To initiate this sequence of events, a positive reading experience is crucial.

Unlike the long-term benefits of reading in terms of linguistic improvements, affective gains such as attitude, reading motivation, and self-confidence as a reader have been observed in Spanish short-duration programs and the effects are immediate (Hardy, 2013, 2016; Liburd & Rodrigo, 2012). It is noteworthy that a positive reading experience with just *one* book has been shown to be sufficient in developing a positive attitude towards reading and motivation to read (Rodrigo, 2011). Additionally, there are no time or age limits to start enjoying reading and taking advantage of its benefits (Rodrigo et al., 2014). Despite the positive results at the linguistic and affective levels of language learning, the implementation of EPR

in beginning levels of Spanish language instruction is not a common practice at the college level and little is known about what makes novice Spanish college students enjoy the reading experience.

Learners Must Be Willing to Read. Reading Enjoyment in Novice Reader

The Affective Filter hypothesis (Krashen, 1982) explains how our feelings and attitudes affect how we learn a second language and why positive feelings (high motivation, good self-image as a learner, and low anxiety) facilitate language acquisition, while negative feelings (lack of motivation and self-confidence, and high anxiety) hinder language acquisition. The Affective Filter is defined as a psychological barrier that varies among language learners, influencing the reception and processing of input for language acquisition.

This hypothesis helps explain why learners with a positive attitude towards reading are more likely to willingly engage in reading. When texts are easy, readers experience lower levels of anxiety and frustration, thereby reducing the affective filter and fostering a positive attitude towards L2 reading (Day & Bamford, 1998; Yamashita, 2004, 2013). Moreover, a sense of accomplishment and satisfaction derived from reading and understanding also cultivates a positive reading attitude and motivation to read (Cho & Krashen, 2001; Day & Bamford, 1989; Ro, 2013; Rodrigo et al., 2014; Takase, 2007). On the contrary, reading becomes a source of frustration and is often abandoned when learners' anxiety is high (Rodrigo, 2011; Seller, 2000), frequently associated with the perceived difficulty of the material.

It is undeniable that learners may be more inclined to read when the input is compelling for them (Krashen et al., 2018)–when the input becomes so interesting that learners forget they are reading in a second language, focusing solely on the message. This flow experience (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) of getting lost in the message and forgetting the *form* when reading in a foreign language is difficult to achieve for students who find reading a challenge and struggle accessing the message. My experience is that novice readers have not yet reached the language competence needed to be lost in the flow of the message since they cannot easily process the text. What makes novice readers enjoy the reading experience to the extent that they are willing to read more has not been fully investigated. In a descriptive study, Rodrigo (2011) reported that exposing novice students to easy reading material resulted in reading enjoyment and a sense of accomplishment. Although the data was purely descriptive, and generalization of the results could not be made, this was a first attempt to understand what makes novice learners enjoy reading.

Based on Anderson's (2008) reading continuum (learners first learn to read and eventually read to learn) and what learners do and report when reading at different stages of the continuum, Rodrigo (2019) has suggested that the affective needs of beginners and advanced learners differ when it comes to reading enjoyment. According to Rodrigo (2019), what makes reading a positive experience will vary for these two groups of readers. Inexperienced readers may enjoy reading when they understand and feel a sense of accomplishment. Novice learners may find enjoyment in a reading experience if they feel they have overcome the challenge of understanding a text in the target language and it is not a frustrating experience. At the beginning level, reading about a topic that interests learners is not as crucial

if they feel good and satisfied because they have understood in a language that is new to them. However, for experienced readers, understanding a text in the target language is likely no longer a challenge. This learner may find enjoyment in reading when they explore topics that are appealing, interesting, and compelling to them. Figure 1, adapted from Rodrigo (2019) illustrates the idea of reading enjoyment for inexperienced and experienced readers as a continuum between comprehension and a sense of accomplishment and compelling input with learner interest in the topic.
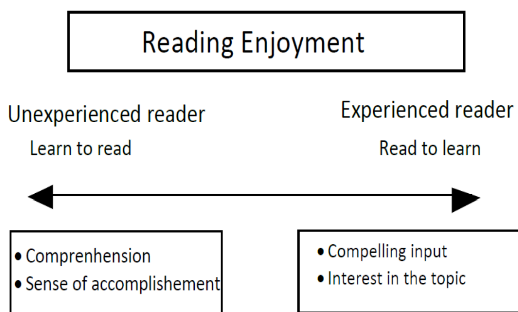
Figure 1. Reading enjoyment and reader's experience.

There is no universal definition of text difficulty thus, the perception of how easy or difficult a text is for a reader should be considered a subjective experience, influenced by lexical coverage, syntactic complexity, and readers' background knowledge (Arai, 2022). Therefore, we suggest that a text could be perceived as easy when the vocabulary and grammar in the story are known to the reader or can be inferred from the context, and the topic is familiar.

Numerous studies underscore the importance of text difficulty in shaping students' affective variables and comprehension (Chiang, 2016; Day & Bamford, 1998; Rodrigo, 2011, 2019; Wan-a-rom, 2012). Text difficulty is also crucial in reducing the affective filter and anxiety (Bahmani & Farvardin, 2017; Brantmeier, 2005; Cho & Krashen, 2001; Day & Bamford, 1998; Krashen, 1994; Samuels, 1994). Conversely, presenting material above the student's proficiency level tends to result in frustration, anxiety, and a failure to instill a positive attitude towards reading (Wan-a-rom, 2012). It is clear that text difficulty and reading anxiety are interconnected concepts that jointly influence reading comprehension (Bahmani & Farvardin, 2017; Lai, 1993; Rama, 2021; Sellers, 2000; Yang et al., 2021).

The relationship between automaticity (Samuels, 1994) and cognitive load (Sweller, 2010) significantly influences the affective filter (Krashen, 1981) and explains why difficult reading does not favor comprehension. Automaticity, defined as the ability to perform tasks effortlessly, lowers the affective filter associated with language acquisition by allowing learners to engage with language more comfortably, minimizing stress and anxiety. Conversely, high cognitive load, associated with complex tasks, may raise the affective filter, making language acquisition more

challenging. A difficult text imposes low automaticity and high cognitive load on readers, forcing them to make excessive efforts to decode the text rather than processing it by assigning meaning more easily. In other words, the anxiety and frustration caused by a text beyond the reader's language competence negatively impacts a student's reading experience and heightens the affective filter.

To the best of my knowledge, there are no studies to date exploring the effect of text difficulty on promoting EPR in first-semester Spanish students at the college level. This exploratory study is an attempt to shed some light on the topic. It aims to investigate how comprehension and perception of text difficulty may affect reading enjoyment and interest to read in novice learners attending the first semester of Spanish at the college level. Specifically, this study explores whether reading enjoyment can be attempted and achieved by low proficiency students learning Spanish at the college level using an EPR modality. Additionally, the study analyzes if college level students enjoy reading children-like stories in a second language, how much students understand when they perceive the text as easy, at the right level, or difficult, and if their perceived level of difficulty affects learners' enjoyment and interest in reading.

Research Questions

The research questions (RQ) of this study are as follows:

RQ1. What is the perception of reading a children-like story using an EPR approach on college beginners?

RQ1.1 Did participants enjoy reading the story?

RQ1.2 Are participants interested in reading similar stories?

RQ1.3 How difficult did participants find the story?

RQ2. How much do novice readers understand when they perceive the text as easy, difficult or at their right level?

RQ2.1 Is there any difference in the students' perception of reading enjoyment and interest to read based on how difficult they perceived the story?

RQ3. What is the relationship between reading enjoyment, interest in reading, and text difficulty in novice readers?

RQ3.1 Does this relationship vary according to how much learners understood and how difficult they perceived the text? If so, how?

Methodology

Participants

The participants in this study were students enrolled in the first semester of Spanish at an urban college in a major city in the U.S. Southeast. The institution did not require a placement test for registration, allowing students with varying levels of Spanish proficiency, ranging from true beginners to those with prior high school exposure. The study involved three classes, totaling 67 participants, who participated voluntarily and anonymously. Most participants were in their early twenties (95%), with a higher representation of women (87%). Additionally, 97% of the participants indicated they were taking Spanish to meet their university's language requirement,

and none reported a history of ever reading for pleasure in Spanish.

Material and Data Collection

The reading material for this study was *El gatito solo* [The Lonely Kitten], a children-like picture book from Serie Leamos (n.d.), a free digital library of engaging stories written and illustrated by Georgia State University students. The purpose of this library is to provide comprehensible and interesting reading material that allows language learners to practice EPR from the beginning (Rodrigo, 2023). *El gatito solo* tells the story of Valentín and his kitten who accidentally was left behind by the family when they went to visit their grandmother. Lonely and hungry, the kitten discovers a box of cat food on the table, causing a mess while trying to reach it. When Valentín returns and finds the chaos, he expresses regret for forgetting the kitten and promises never to leave him alone again. This title was selected because it was a short 200-word story with a simple plot, linear storyline, short sentences, present tense, and illustrations that contextualize the story and give readers clues to aid comprehension. The book incorporates ten keywords introduced before the text to guide readers while reading.

Data collection involved a Likert-scale questionnaire on students' perceptions (see Appendix A) and a multiple-choice reading comprehension test (see Appendix B). The comprehension test included seven questions, all in English, so that incorrect answers due to lack of language proficiency could be prevented. The comprehension test showed a high reliability, indicated by a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.84, confirming its effectiveness in assessing readers' comprehension of the story.

The perception questionnaire employed a Likert scale for its three questions. Students reported their levels of enjoyment, interest in reading, and perceived difficulty of the text, using a three-point scale: 1 (negative perception), 2 (neutral), and 3 (positive perception). Each question provided space for students to elaborate on their responses, though this qualitative data will not be analyzed here. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the perception questionnaire was $\alpha = 0.75$, indicating reasonable internal consistency for a questionnaire with fewer than ten questions (Pallant, 2005).

Procedures

The study employed the reading aloud technique to present the story to students in a storytelling setting during weeks 10 to 12 of a 14-week semester. The instructor began by presenting the book cover and title, followed by reading aloud while directing students' attention to story illustrations projected on the classroom board. After completing the story, students anonymously and voluntarily filled out the perception questionnaire and the reading comprehension test.

Data Analysis and Results

The analysis of the research questions involved utilizing various methods, including descriptive data analysis, One-way ANOVA, and correlations. A preliminary examination of the data indicated a normal distribution. Table 1 provides a comprehensive overview of the affective questionnaire and reading comprehension test, presenting frequencies, mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum values.

Table 1

Descriptive Data for Students' Perception of Reading Enjoyment, Interest in Reading More, and Text Difficulty.

N=67	Likert Scale	Frequency	Percentage	M	SD	Min.	Max.
Reading Enjoyment	1- A Little-No	22	32.8				
	2- Sometimes	11	16.4	2.17	0.90	1	3
	3- Always-Yes	34	50.7				
Interest to Read	1- A Little-No	11	16.4				
	2- Maybe	25	37.3	2.30	0.74	1	3
	3. Always-Yes	31	46.3				
Text Difficulty	1- Difficult	7	10.5				
	2-At the right level	44	65.6	2.13	0.57	1	3
	3- Easy	16	23.9				
Reading comprehension	6 Questions		1-100	87.7	18.2	14.2	100

An inspection of the descriptive data in Table 1 shows sixty-seven (N=67) respondents used a three-point Likert scale to rate their perception about the variables of the study. For "Reading Enjoyment," the mean (M) was 2.17 (Sometimes) with a standard deviation (SD) of 0.90, ranging from 1 (A little-No) to 3 (Always-Yes). The variable "Interest to Read" displayed a mean of 2.30 and SD of 0.74, indicating a moderate level (Sometimes). Regarding "Text Difficulty," the participants generally perceived the text as being at the right level (M = 2.13, SD = 0.57). The last row of Table 1 displays the students' overall score on the reading comprehension test, which includes six questions. The score is in percentage with a mean of 87.7, a standard deviation of 18.2, and a range from 14.2 to 100.

Figures 2-4 below visually present the descriptive data. In general, participant perceptions of the three affective variables—reading enjoyment, interest in reading, and text difficulty—present average values on the three-point Likert Scale within the ranges from negative (1-No-a little, No, Difficult), neutral (2- Sometimes, Maybe, Right level) to a positive perception (3- Most-always, Yes, Easy). The standard deviation is slightly higher in perceptions of enjoyment (0.90) than in interest to read (0.74) and text difficulty (0.57).
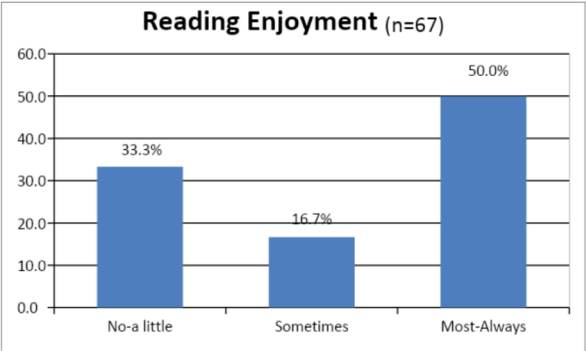

Figure 2. Perceived enjoyment when reading the story.

Figure 2 illustrates the distribution of reading enjoyment frequencies. Exactly half of the participants (50%) reported experiencing enjoyment while reading, 16% found it enjoyable sometimes, and 33.3% expressed limited or no enjoyment of the story.

Figure 3 showcases the frequencies of interest in reading more. Here, 46.4% of students expressed a willingness to read more similar stories, 37.3% remained uncertain but open to the idea, and 16.4% declared their unwillingness to continue to read children-like stories.
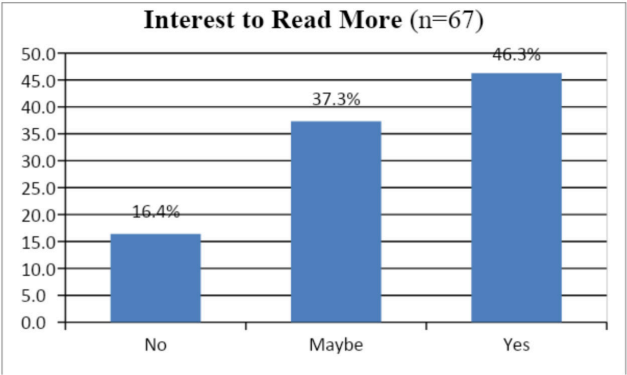
Figure 3. Students' interest in reading similar stories.

The analysis of the descriptive data in Table 1 addresses RQ1. In summary, the perception of adult college novice learners reading a children-like story within an EPR approach leans towards a positive experience. A majority (66.7%–always or sometimes) enjoyed the story, expressed interest in reading more stories (83.6%–yes and maybe), and believed the text was at their appropriate level (89.5%–right level-easy). These results suggest that a children-like picture book, similar to the one utilized in this study, could serve as an optimal source of input for our adult novice participants.
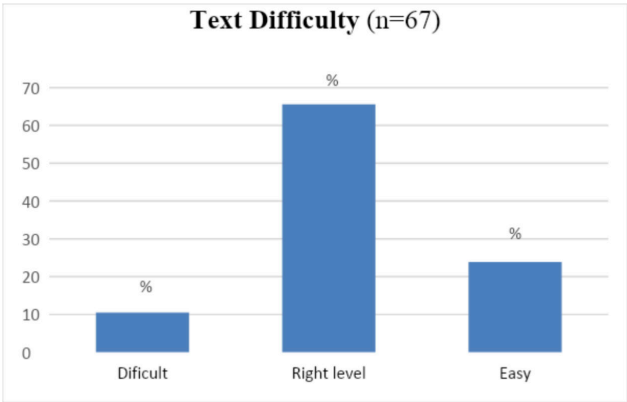

Figure 4. Perceived Text Difficult of the story.

To address RQ2.1, which investigates how much beginners understand when they perceive the text as easy, difficult, or at their right level, I utilized data from both the reading comprehension test scores in Table 1 and students' self-reported perceptions of text difficulty. I organized participants into three groups based on their perceived text difficulty—Easy, Right level, and Difficult—and examined the corresponding reading comprehension scores for each group. Table 2 provides descriptive data on the reading comprehension scores of students categorized by their perception of text difficulty. The breakdown into three groups—Easy, Right level, and Difficult—reveals distinct patterns.

Table 2

Descriptive data. Reading comprehension scores according to text difficulty perceptions

Reading comprehension	N	M (%)	SD	Min.	Max.
Easy	16	97.3	5.8	85.7	100
Right level	44	88.8	14.8	42.8	100
Difficult	7	48.5	21.6	14.2	71.4
TOTAL	67	87.7	18.2	14.2	100

Across all 67 participants, the overall mean score was 87.7%, demonstrating a generally high level of comprehension. The total scores ranged from 14.2 to 100, with a standard deviation of 18.2. The 16 students who perceived the text as easy achieved an impressive mean score of 97.3%, indicating a high level of comprehension. The scores ranged from 85.7 to a perfect 100, with minimal variability (SD=5.8). These students have demonstrated a complete understanding of the story. The 44 students who felt the text was at the right level attained a mean score of 88.8%. While the range of scores was wider (42.8 to 100), indicating some variability (SD= 14.8), the overall performance was still solid. . These students appear to have followed the story without major difficulty, although there might be some portions that they missed or did not fully grasp. For the seven students who perceived the text as difficult, the mean score was 48.5, suggesting a lower level of comprehension. The scores in this group varied more widely, ranging from 14.2 to 71.4, with a higher standard deviation of 21.6. These students encountered difficulty understanding the story.

These findings illustrate the varying impact of perceived text difficulty on reading comprehension. Students who found the text easy or at the right level tended to perform well, while those perceiving it as difficult had more diverse comprehension outcomes, with some struggling to understand the text. Figure 5 illustrates the percentage of comprehension among students when they perceived the text as easy, at the right level, or difficult.
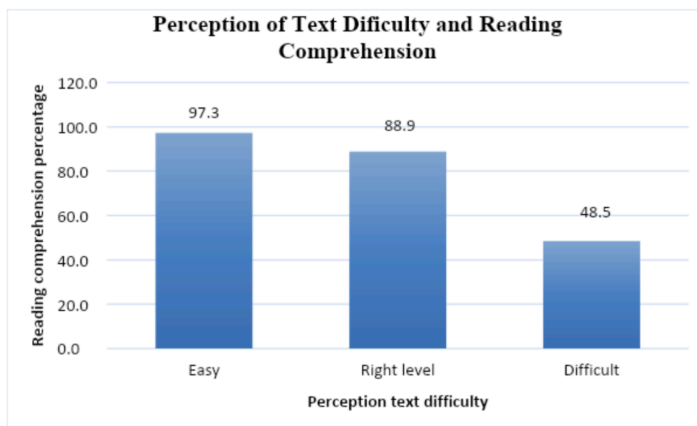
Figure 5. Perception of text difficulty and percentage of reading comprehension.

The findings in response to RQ2. suggest that novice students describe a text as easy when they comprehend almost all of it (97.3%), consider it at the right level when they understand an average of 88.9%, and label the text as difficult when comprehending at an average of 48.5%. The One-Way ANOVA confirms that the level of comprehension significantly differs among the three groups, $F_{(2,65)} = 24.30$, $p < .001$. These results indicate that students' perceptions align with actual comprehension levels. Additionally, Pearson correlation analysis reveals a highly significant and moderate-high relationship between perceived text difficulty and comprehension ($r = .59$, $p < .001$).

The analysis to assess whether the perception of text difficulty influences students' reading enjoyment and interest in reading more (RQ2.1) involved conducting inferential statistics through One-Way ANOVA. This statistical method was employed to examine the potential impact of perceived text difficulty, categorized into three groups (Easy, Right level, and Difficult), on students' reported levels of reading enjoyment and interest to read more. The results from this analysis are essential for addressing RQ2.1 and gaining insights into how students' perceptions of text difficulty correlate with their affective responses to reading. The independent variable in this analysis is the students' perception of text difficulty, which is divided into three groups based on comprehension levels: Easy (with a 97.3% average comprehension), Right level (with an 88.9% average comprehension), and Difficult (with a 48.5% average comprehension). The dependent variables are reading enjoyment and interest to read more. Table 3 provides descriptive data for each of the three text difficulty groups, outlining the reported levels of enjoyment and interest in reading for each group. This information is crucial for understanding the potential impact of perceived text difficulty on students' affective responses during the reading experience. Visual inspection of the data in Table 3 shows that participants generally reported higher enjoyment and interest in reading when they perceived the text as easy or at the right level, with lower scores for those who found the text difficult. These findings suggest a connection between perceived text difficulty and participants' enjoyment and interest to read more.

Table 3

Reading Enjoyment and Motivation to Read across Perception of Text Difficulty

N=67	Text Difficulty	N	Mean	SD	Min.	Max.
	Easy	16	2.50	0.82	1	3
Enjoyment	Right level	44	2.16	0.90	1	3
	Difficult	7	1.43	0.79	1	3
	TOTAL	67	2.17	0.90	1	3
	Easy	16	2.31	0.70	1	3
Interest to Read More	Right level	44	2.38	0.75	1	3
	Difficult	7	1.86	0.69	1	2
	TOTAL	67	2.3	0.74	1	3

The results of the One-Way ANOVA demonstrate a statistically significant difference among the three groups concerning the variable of enjoyment (F (2, 65) = 3.70, p < .05. Post hoc analysis using the LSD Test reveals that the group perceiving the text as difficult (M=1.43) significantly differs in enjoyment compared to the group perceiving the text at the right level (M=2.16, p < .05, d= .67) and the easy group (M= 2.50, p < .05, d= .92). According to Cohen (1988), the effect size suggests a large actual difference in mean scores between these groups, indicating that participants reported significantly more enjoyment when perceiving the text as less difficult. There was no difference in the level of enjoyment between the easy and right level groups. The ANOVA results for the variable "interest to read" do not indicate a statistically significant difference among the mean scores of the three groups, as the p-value exceeds .05 (F (2, 65) = 1.44, p = .24). This suggests that, for our participants, the perception of text difficulty did not have a significant impact on their interest to read more.

To examine the relationship among reading enjoyment, interest to read, and text difficulty (RQ3), we used Pearson Correlations. Table 4 displays the Pearson Correlation results for the 67 participants.

Table 4

Pearson Correlation for Reading Enjoyment, Interest to Read, and Text Difficulty.

	All N=67		
Variables	**1**	**2**	**3**
1. Reading enjoyment	--	.49**	-.36**
2. Interest to read more	--	--	.16 ns
3. Text difficulty	--	--	--

**p< .01; *p< .05

The data in Table 4 reveals that the relationship between reading enjoyment and interest to read is positive, moderate-high, and highly significant (2-tailed), with a correlation coefficient of r= .49, n = 67, p <.001. This indicates that students who experienced higher enjoyment in reading also expressed a greater desire to read more. The shared variance between these two variables is 24%, suggesting a substantial overlap in their influence.

The correlation between reading enjoyment and text difficulty is negative, moderate, and highly significant (2-tailed), with a correlation coefficient of r= -.36, n = 67, p <.001. This implies that students showing greater enjoyment are the ones who perceived the text as less challenging. However, the practical significance of this correlation is low, as only 13% of the variance is shared between these two variables. The correlation between interest to read and text difficulty is not statistically significant (2-tailed), with r = -.16, n=67, ns., indicating no relationship between these two variables.

To explore RQ3.2 (whether the relationship between reading enjoyment and interest to read changes across student perceptions of text difficulty), we used the variable perception of text difficulty (easy, right level, and difficult) as the independent variable and conducted Pearson Correlations for the variables of reading enjoyment and interest to read (see Table 5).

Table 5

Pearson Correlation between Reading Enjoyment and Interest to Read Across Perceived Level of Difficulty.

Difficulty	Enjoyment & Interest
Easy	.76**
Right level	.37*
Difficult	.44 ns

*p< .05; **p< .01; ns. = not significant

As shown in Table 5, students who perceived the text as easy and understood an average of 97% of the story show a very strong, positive, and highly significant relationship between reading enjoyment and interest to read more (r = .76, n = 16, p< .001). These two variables share a substantial 58% of the variance, signifying a robust association. The correlation for the students who perceived the story at the right level and understood an average of 88% of the story, is moderate, positive and significant (r= .37, n= 44, p<.05); they share 14% of the variance. When the students perceived the text as difficult and understood an average of 44% and the story, the correlation is not statistically significant (r= .44, n= 7, ns), suggesting no relationship between enjoyment and interest to read in this group.

The data suggests that novice readers' interest to read more is connected to how much they enjoy the text, which is affected by how difficult they perceive it to be. Those who found the text easy to read and understood most of it had the highest levels of enjoyment. Therefore, it seems that considering a text as easy not only contributes directly to reading enjoyment, but also indirectly to the interest to read among novice readers. On the other hand, exposing students to a difficult text that they cannot understand does not seem to trigger high levels of enjoyment and interest in reading. It is important to consider these results in the specific context of this study and the population under investigation, as interpretations may vary based on the characteristics of the participants and the nature of the texts involved, yet these findings suggest the need for additional research.

Discussion and Conclusions

This exploratory study combines self-reported data (students' perceptions of text difficulty, reading enjoyment, and interest to read more) and objective assessment (reading comprehension test) to investigate whether students' perception of text difficulty plays a role in increasing reading enjoyment and interest to read in 67 novices' learners attending a first-semester Spanish at college level. The study found that participants' reading enjoyment and interest to read were strongly related to their perception of text difficulty and their comprehension of the text. Specifically, students who perceived the story as easy and had a better understanding of the text reported higher levels of reading enjoyment and interest to read (r=.76, p< .001). On the other hand, those who perceived the text as difficult and had lower comprehension scores reported lower levels of enjoyment and interest, but the correlation did not reach a statistically significant result (r=.44, ns). These results suggest that level of comprehension and perceiving the text as easy play a key role in fostering reading enjoyment among beginners. This finding underscores the significance of matching text difficulty and the proficiency level of novice readers. It could be claimed that providing texts that are accessible and comprehensible to beginners can enhance the reading experience and promote reading.

These results yield valuable insights into the factors that foster reading enjoyment among novice readers and the crucial role of reading in language acquisition and instruction. A discussion of the findings of the RQs follows.

1. *Feasibility to implement extensive and pleasure reading from the beginning of a language program* is supported by our data for RQ1, indicating that novice language learners can experience enjoyment and interest to read more from pleasure reading.

Children-like picture books emerge as a promising resource to implement extensive and pleasure reading among novice college learners. However, it is important to note that these findings should be validated through a larger sample size and a broader selection of titles.

2. *Students' perception on the level of difficulty of the text align with their actual comprehension of the story* as revealed by the results for RQ2, which support the idea that the perception of text difficulty can serve as a reliable predictor of comprehension. The students who perceived the text as easy understood an average of 97% of the story while those who perceived the story as difficult reached a reading comprehension score of 47%. Consequently, instructors should consider how students feel about the difficulty of the reading material they are using.

This finding can be considered an attempt to answer the question if perception of text difficulty matches actual difficulty and provides an answer to Arai's (2022) invitation to review the relationship between perception of text difficulty and comprehension. This relationship among our participants was r= .58, p<.001. This adds valuable information to the findings by Holster et al. (2017), who identified anxiety, text length, fatigue, and time pressure as factors related to text difficulty.

3. *The participants' reading enjoyment is linked to their perception of the story's difficulty and comprehension.* The perception of text difficulty significantly relates to the reported level of enjoyment, as indicated by the ANOVA results for RQ2.1 and RQ3. ANOVA results point out a real difference in the amount of enjoyment reported by participants with different levels of comprehension and perceived text difficulty. The data also suggest that language beginners who believe they can undertake a reading task because they perceive it as easy (with an actual comprehension rate of M= 98%) are more likely to enjoy the reading experience and may be more inclined to continue to read in the target language. This finding is corroborated by the results for RQ3, which reveal a moderate yet highly significant correlation between reading enjoyment and text difficulty. It is important to note that correlations do not indicate causation but only indicate the degree of association between variables. However, given the nature of the variables in our study—text difficulty (easy text = comprehension) and enjoyment— a directional relationship can be hypothesized. In other words, understanding a text appears to be a prerequisite for enjoying it. The perceptions of success or failure triggered by students have significant implications for reading enjoyment among novice learners. Findings support previous research by Lai (1993), Wan-a-rom (2012), and Yang et al. (2021), who found that reading at the i-1 level promotes reading enjoyment and lowers the affective filter, creating a more conducive environment for language acquisition.

Perceiving a text as easy instills a sense of success and confidence, generating the 'I can do it' feeling (Rodrigo, 2019), lowering the affective filter, and enabling readers to enjoy the reading experience. Consequently, providing novice readers with texts they believe they can successfully read and texts that foster their confidence as language learners is crucial. On the contrary, providing texts that are difficult will trigger anxiety and frustration, which defeat enjoyment and interest to read.

4. *There is a high and strong correlation between reading enjoyment and interest in reading when beginners find the text easy* as shown in RQ3, specifically RQ3.1. This relationship is very strong and highly significant when the reader finds the text easy

and comprehends almost all (r=.76, p.< .001), and it is moderate and significant when participants perceive the text at their right level (r = .37, p.< .05). When participants consider the story difficult and comprehension is limited, no significant relationship exists between reading enjoyment and interest to read. These results clearly indicate that the more participants enjoy the reading experience, the more they want to read. 5. *The participants' interest in reading is strongly linked to reading enjoyment of a specific text* but it appears unaffected by their perception of text difficulty. The ANOVA results for RQ2.1 indicate that participants' perception of the story's difficulty did not yield any significant difference in the interest to read they reported. Additionally, there is no significant relationship between text difficulty and interest to read more, as reported in RQ3.This suggests that, while text difficulty may influence reading enjoyment, it may not exert the same impact on students' willingness to continue reading. Other factors or variables may play a role in shaping the interest to read in novice readers, and future studies should delve into these aspects.

In conclusion, these findings underscore the importance of a successful reading experience in promoting reading enjoyment at novice level. The reported reading enjoyment by participants in this study is likely attributed to a sense of accomplishment and confidence for understanding the story. On the contrary, an unsuccessful reading experience, exemplified by difficulties in understanding the reading, anxiety, and frustration, may lead to a lack of desire to read more.

I hypothesize that, in situations of success and reading enjoyment, readers will be inclined to repeat the experience and engage in more reading as shown in Figure 6. This supports the idea that a positive reading experience for beginning readers is likely to happen when novice readers feel accomplished, proud, and confident for understanding a story in a language they are learning. The sense of having a positive reading experience will fuel their desire to read more.
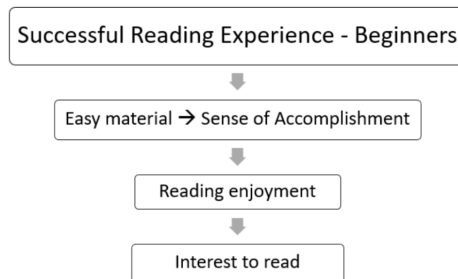

Figure 6. The importance of a successful reading experience among beginners to promote reading.

Consequently, this study suggests that comprehension in language instruction at the novice level is not only a necessary component for acquiring a foreign language (Krashen, 1981) but also a critical affective factor in promoting EPR during the initial stages of language instruction. It is well-established that reading about topics that are highly interesting and comprehensible to the reader not only promotes reading as a pleasure activity (Krashen et al., 2018) but also should be considered an ultimate goal when practicing EPR. However, until novice readers can easily

immerse themselves in content and forget they are reading in a foreign language, easy readings play a crucial role in cultivating self-confidence in their L2 ability. Easy readings offer beginners a joyful reading experience—an optimal way to start their reading journey. When students overcome the natural anxiety that every learner feels upon reading their first story in the target language and realize they can indeed read, enjoy, and understand, reading will become a pleasurable activity that may foster a genuine willingness to explore reading more in a foreign language.

Pedagogical Implications

If our goal is to provide a positive reading experience for novice and inexperienced readers, the key is to offer books, stories, and reading material that evoke an *'I can do it'* sentiment, lower the affective filter, and create a sense of accomplishment as readers. Free access to a healthy library, containing a variety of topics and levels, where readers can select texts according to their interest, has been shown to be key in promoting reading, creating a positive reading attitude, and developing a reading habit among adult low-literate readers in L1 (Rodrigo et al., 2014). This study proposes that the same conditions should be met for L2. For Spanish, the *Serie Leamos* free online library is an excellent reading resource to practice pleasure reading from the beginning. To promote extensive and pleasure reading at beginning levels, the following features should be considered:

Easy access to a variety of reading material that allows self-selection. Beginning readers following an EPR approach should be able to select reading material that interests them and that can be read comfortably. This way, they can experience success, a sense of accomplishment, enjoyment, and interest in reading more. This is supported by the Pleasure Hypothesis (Krashen, 2004), which maintains that comprehensible, interesting, and self-selected material promotes reading. Additionally, self-selection has been claimed to be a factor that contributes to readers' pleasurable experiences (Arai, 2022; Macalister, 2015).

Vocabulary and illustrations as comprehension aids. Reading materials for beginners should include frequent vocabulary and visuals to aid comprehension. These features facilitate understanding and promote a successful reading experience. Vocabulary is a main factor to help or hinder comprehension, but providing simple or predictable vocabulary together with a brief glossary of keywords can be a good way of facilitating comprehension. Illustrations are another key component that has proved to be an excellent tool to aid comprehension (Mason & Krashen, 2020). Consequently, texts supplemented by illustrations that retell the story through images are another requirement for beginners because it eases the cognitive load. This is supported by Paivio's Dual-coding theory (Paivio, 1991) based on the benefits of visual information –or mental images—as a meaning-assigning tool. In the text we used for our study, illustrations portrayed several key parts of the story.

Length of the reading. The length of the reading should prevent beginners from feeling overwhelmed when reading in the target language. Short stories, ranging from 200 to 400 words, ensure a reading experience that can be completed within

two to four minutes. Short readings do not present a big challenge and can foster accomplishment. In fact, Holster et al. (2017) and Ayra (2022) found that book length was related to how difficult or easy a student perceives a text.

Storyline Clarity. A straightforward storyline with a few characters promotes plot clarity and ease of understanding. This is a desirable feature for novice readers. Furthermore, stories with a coherent storyline appear to foster stronger engagement better than the short passages found in traditional language textbooks using intensive reading (Paivio, 1991). A coherent storyline involves characters presented in a specific context, with a plot that includes an introduction, a problem or situation, and concludes with a resolution.

Limitations of the study and further research

While the present study shows important implications for the use of EPR in the language curriculum and provides valuable insights into the relationship between text difficulty/comprehension, reading enjoyment and interest to read among novice readers, it is important to acknowledge its limitations. The study focused on the comprehension and perception of a single text *El gatito solo,* which may not capture the full range of reading experiences and preferences among beginning learners. To achieve a more comprehensive understanding, future research could involve multiple texts with varying difficulty levels and genres. Moreover, a more extensive and diverse participant pool, reflecting various proficiency levels, would provide a broader perspective on the relationship between the variables of the study. Consequently, further research should replicate this study with a larger number of students and incorporate more than one book to explore the feasibility of implementing an extensive reading program in the language curriculum and analyze the roles that text difficulty, reading enjoyment, and interest in the story play at both beginning and intermediate levels.

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Appendix A

Student's perception questionnaire

This questionnaire is anonymous and voluntary. We would like to know what you think about the story you just read (*El gatito solo*). Please select the best option for you. Be honest, there are not good or bad answers.

1. Did you enjoy the story *El gatito solo*?	A little-No	Sometimes	Always-Yes

 Why?

2. Would you like to read more stories like this?	A little-No	Sometimes	Always-Yes

 Why?

3. How difficult was the story?	Difficult	At the right level	Easy

 Why?

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR FEEDBACK!

Appendix B

Reading Comprehension Test

Mark the answer that is correct according to the story you read. If you do not know the answer, check the third option (I do not know). Please, DO NOT GUESS. Gracias.

El gatito solo

1. This story is about…
a. what happens when a little kitten is alone at home and he is hungry.
b. a lesson that Valentin gives his kitten when the kitten behaves badly.
c. I do not know.

2. The kitten…
a. is considered a member of the family.
b. is a gift from Valentín's parents.
c. I do not know.

3. Valentín and the little kitten…
a. don't get along well.
b. love each other.
c. I do not know.

4. Valentín left the little kitten alone…
a. because the kitten behaved badly.
b. by accident when they go visit grandma.
c. I do not know.

5. The little kitten makes a mess in the kitchen because…
a. he is hungry.
b. he is mad at Valentín for leaving him alone.
c. I do not know.

6. When Valentín arrives home…
a. he is upset because the kitten spilled food and milk on the floor.
b. he is happy to see his little kitten again.
c. I do not know.

7. Valentín tells the kitten…
a. to eat all the food on the floor.
b. that he will never leave him alone again.
c. I do not know.

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