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Spanish in Context: Foundations and New Ideas

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SPANISH IN CONTEXT:

FOUNDATIONS AND NEW IDEAS

by

Tempe Mabe Willey

A portfolio submitted in partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree

of

MASTER OF SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

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ABSTRACT

Spanish in Context:

Foundations and New Ideas

by

Tempe Mabe Willey: Master of Second Language Teaching

Utah State University, 2016

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This portfolio demonstrates the author's beliefs about Spanish language instruction and learning. The first section contains the author's teaching philosophy, comparing teaching and learning to construction work and the four resultant roles a teacher must be able to fulfill in the classroom. The following section contains three artifacts in which the author further elaborates on her views. The language artifact discusses the role that self-reflection and peer-assessment play in teacher observation and how the author has applied this in the language classroom. The literacy artifact addresses the role that students' first language has in teaching biliteracy in the Dual Language Immersion (DLI) context. The cultural artifact outlines the use of telecollaboration for developing students' intercultural competence through technological communication and collaboration between partner classrooms. The portfolio concludes with a section of annotated bibliographies to demonstrate the author's growth throughout the program.   (141 pages)

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He guided me to this program and has helped me achieve great success in the program. I

look forward to discover the future blessings He has prepared for me in my career.

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INTRODUCTION

This portfolio represents the work I have done over the course of the MSLT program. The teaching philosophy section is the heart of my portfolio and serves as a lens through which I see all other sections of the portfolio. It discusses my background in language teaching, what I believe effective language teaching looks like, and what my successes and struggles have been as I have worked toward that vision.

My teaching philosophy includes four main roles that I believe teachers must strive to master. In these four roles, I envision language learning to be like a construction project. Teachers must serve first as architects to help visualize the building through planning standards-based objectives according to students' needs. Teachers next play the role of project managers by designing a lesson plan with activities and assessments that will aid students in achieving the objectives. The third role is to be a project manager who supervises students as they complete lesson activities concluding with the final objective task. As the construction concludes, teachers demonstrate being reflective practitioners as they analyze their execution of the three roles and seek feedback on how to improve in them.

I next include artifacts that explore key subtopics of the four teaching roles. First I examine the Self-Assessment of Teaching Statement approach for teacher observation and show examples of how this approach has benefited my professional development. Next, I explore in the literacy artifact the variety of ways to use the LI in an immersion classroom to promote biliteracy. In my final artifact I address research on telecollaboration in the foreign language classroom and ways teachers can implement telecollaboration for the development of students' intercultural competence. The annotated bibliography covers the research I did to prepare for these artifacts, the sources that were key to my progress, and the insight I gained

from those sources. Finally, in the looking forward section, I give an explanation of my career plans.

TEACHING PHILOSOPHY

APPRENTICESHIP OF OBSERVATION

My first experience with language learning was as a high school Spanish student. My Spanish teachers were engaging, taught in a multisensory format, and did regular conversational exercises, and I earned A's for memorization and grammatical expertise; however, some of them rarely spoke in Spanish. As Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro and Mandell say, "students model the interaction in their pair and small-group work according to the types of interactions they have experienced during teach-fronted activities" (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001, p. 64). Because most of my teachers spoke in English, my fellow students felt justified in avoiding speaking Spanish. Thus, my Spanish communicative skills were minimal. Still, I enjoyed my Spanish classes and was grateful for having dedicated instructors.

As time went on I grew to love teaching and sought opportunities to tutor fellow students in many of my classes, especially math and English classes. In my freshman-year writing course we did an in-class peer reviews. At the end of one class, I hadn't finished with a student's paper, so I asked her to email the paper to me. I enjoyed reviewing her paper so much that I did the same for other students throughout the semester. I realized that I loved helping students reach their academic potential. The teacher recognized my contribution by offering me a TA position.

These combined factors led to my choosing English education as a major and Spanish education as a minor. After I chose to minor in Spanish, I regretted that my efforts towards learning Spanish in the past had only extended to what was required to get the grade. I tried my best in college to become proficient in Spanish; but, again, learning was difficult as the communicative teaching approach was rarely practiced by my instructors.

When we *were* required to speak in Spanish, I felt intimidated by the speaking abilities of others, and avoided speaking – even with my boyfriend from Mexico!

During my student teaching, I had the opportunity to teach two Spanish, level-one classes. My coordinating teacher, Mr. Bona, was the closest to a communicative high school teacher I had seen thus far. He spoke to his students in Spanish using gestures, tonality, visuals, etc., even during administrative duties, and encouraged me to do the same. It disturbed me that after over eight years of Spanish classes, I still felt nervous speaking in front of first-level Spanish students even though I realized that the students could understand the majority of what I said.

After my student teaching, I was fortunate to be a Spanish-speaking missionary for my church. I went to San Diego for a year and a half and taught, did service for, and socialized with the Hispanic population there. Before I began that experience, I made the commitment that I would speak Spanish as much as possible, even if other missionaries did not. I discovered it was better to make the mistakes early while speaking with an individual than to make a more public error later. Because I had a significant background in Spanish and I was speaking all the time, the language came fairly easily for me. Many of my fellow missionaries were too scared to speak, and did not progress to the degree they could have progressed. I did my best to teach them Spanish the way I was taught, (i.e., mostly grammar translation), but also attempted to apply Mr. B's multisensory input methods. I learned that more outgoing personality types tend to have more ease in learning languages, as they are more willing to make mistakes in social situations. I realized that as a teacher I should be aware of this and how to promote a desire to communicate in each personality type.

During my time as a missionary, I was able to teach a community English class for

several months. This class was a highlight of my time in San Diego. In the class I tried to apply the concepts of multisensory teaching and teaching in the target language. I also tried to teach pseudo task-based group activities based on real things that my students needed to communicate: how to talk to your children's teachers, get money from the bank, etc. However, my new Spanish skills betrayed me as I often slipped into Spanish as students were having difficulties.

When I returned from my volunteer trip, I came back both a competent teacher and Spanish speaker but unsure about the direction my teaching should take. I loved teaching in an ESL context but also enjoyed teaching Spanish. I also wasn't sure what age group I wanted to teach. I emailed a prior high school Spanish instructor, Mrs. C., and became her TA in order to find direction for my teaching career. I also worked as a TA for Mrs. S., an ESL instructor. During this time, I gained experience in multisensory teaching, tutoring, and grading. In the end, I felt a renewed desire to work as a language instructor in secondary education. I hoped to have an opportunity to teach in a school with a large ESL population as I felt my experiences have prepared me to meet their specific needs.

Finally, upon applying and receiving a job offer as a Spanish teacher in a school that turned out to have a non-existent ESL student population, I felt strongly that I should apply for the MSLT program instead. From the moment I began my coursework, my eyes were opened to a whole new way of teaching: the communicative approach. I realized that my earlier difficulties with Spanish had been because I had not been given the communicative opportunities necessary to be successful in language acquisition. My Spanish learning didn't accelerate until I had my immersion volunteer experience, then my brain began to piece things together.

I originally planned to teach ESL but soon realized through taking courses at USU that my passion lies in dual language immersion and Spanish foreign language education. I want to be able to teach content-based Spanish. Dual immersion and Spanish foreign language education allows me to benefit students in a linguistically and culturally immersive environment.

PROFESSIONAL ENVIRONMENT

When I graduate from the MSLT program, I will be qualified to teach in secondary, university, and college Spanish programs. As such, I plan on integrating all of these areas into my career path; however, my top goal as I graduate is to teach Spanish as a foreign language in universities or colleges in the United States. With this career I can combine my love of Spanish with my love of literature because I hope to teach Spanish writing, reading, and literary analysis. Discussions about literature will serve as task-based activities to develop my students' language and critical thinking skills. Within that career I will apply both ESL, bilingual education, and second language teaching methodology.

Because of these goals my portfolio focuses on task-based and content-based instruction in Spanish. I hope to be able to apply this methodology in all types of Spanish instruction.

TEACHING PHILOSOPHY STATEMENT

Acquiring a language can be compared to building a house. While the builders (students) are the ones who construct the building (learn the language), effective construction requires an architect to visualize, a general contractor to organize and plan, and a project manager to facilitate., All members of a construction project team must act as reflective practitioners in order to best use their skills for each new project. As both a teacher and student of Spanish, I have discovered that language teachers who sharpen their skills in these four roles promote language acquisition. I also have seen other teachers, including myself, turn towards less effective ways of teaching language, such as a lecture-based classroom. The only way to avoid such a waste of time, resources, and, most importantly, students' potential, is for teachers to exchange their center of the universe, all-knowing, "atlas-complex" role (Finkel & Monk, 1983) for the four roles of architect, general contractor, project manager, and reflective practitioner.

While I cannot control how prepared my students are when they arrive at the construction site, I can control how prepared I am in my four roles. Proficiency in these roles will enable me to lead and manage classroom activities effectively. When I finish a lesson, I can seek evaluative feedback from my students and colleagues and reflect personally on how to fine-tune my execution in the first three roles. I believe that as I use this data to reflect and improve my skills, I can provide the students with the best tools possible to become life-long language learners.

Role One: The Architect Teacher

The architect visualizes the final building and creates blueprints that show both how to build the building and what it will look like when finished. As an *architect teacher* I create a

vision, or learning objective, *i.e.*, a goal for what the outcome of the lesson will be for my students (Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2010). This is the precursor to designing the rest of the lesson plan. My lessons are not centered on a fun activity or a textbook sequence. I choose my activities based on my objective, i.e., some specific and measurable communicative act students will complete (Shrum & Glisan, 2010). Creating this kind of *top-down* lesson plan (Wiggins & Mctighe, 2005) requires me to determine the objective first, and then plan assessments and activities that will prepare my students to meet the objective.

Before I create my objective, I familiarize myself with the standards for teaching and learning foreign languages, standards that function as building codes to determine the expectations for construction. Professional organizations such as The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) provide guidelines that help me develop appropriate learning objectives for my students. In order to curb the "inadequate" state of foreign language education in the United States (Ingold & Wang, 2010, p. 1) ACTFL has recently published the updated World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages (NSFLEP, 2015) and the NCSSFL- ACTFL Can-Do Statements (ACTFL, 2015). I will refer to these as the ACTFL Standards and Can-Do statements. The ACTFL Standards describe communicative skills I should focus on when lesson planning, and the Can-Do statements give specific proficiency goals for my students to set, such as, "I can say or write something about the members of my family and ask about someone's family" (ACTFL, 2015). While the ACTFL standards provide general guidelines for language skills students must learn, the Can-Do statements give concrete examples of learning objectives.

Once I understand the established standards, I need to take into account the environment for construction. I have to consider what can and can't be achieved considering

the ground, materials, and equipment that I have been given. In other words, what resources can I provide for students and what resources do they already have? What are my students' interests? What are their cultural/ linguistic circumstances, "modes of learning", and other differentiating factors? (Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2010, p. 14) What is their current Spanish proficiency, content knowledge, and literacy level? (Danielson, 2007) What are the differentiation needs of the students on *that* day? What are my students' physical, mental, emotional, and academic challenges? (Hardman, Drew & Egan, 2008; Shrum and Glisan, 2010). What are their talents in these areas? And most importantly, how will I adjust my objectives, assessments, and activities so that each student "has a legitimate opportunity to grow as much as possible from his or her starting point"? (Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2010, p. xvii).

Now that I know the standards for and the environmental conditions for construction, I can create blueprints, *i.e.*, determine the objective for the lesson plan. Shrum and Glisan (2010) emphasize that an objective is "defined in terms of observable behavior" (p. 75) and should "[...] focus on learners' ability to [...] communicate real information" (p. 97). One objective statement I have used is the following: Students can act as career counselors by recommending 3-4 classes to other students that would prepare them for their chosen career and record the responses on the worksheet. I chose this objective because it is specific, is measurable (Frece, 2010), is in line with the ACTFL standards (NSFLEP, 2015), fits students' interest and proficiency level (Baecher, Farnsworth, & Ediger, 2014), requires an exchange of information, and represents a conversation about careers that might happen if the students were in a Spanish-speaking country (Danielson, 2007).

Just as blueprints show how each floor fits together to form a house, the objectives in daily lesson plans work together to form the overall objective for that unit,

and units fit together to build the objective for that semester or year. This is why an architect teacher always designs the objective with the perspective of overarching standards and measurable proficiency goals in mind. After I create effective objectives, or a vision for the building, they enable me to plan assessments and activities so that students are equipped for the task.

Role Two: The General Contractor

A general contractor does the rest of the planning and organizes the sequence of construction. As a *general contractor teacher*, I create a lesson plan by designing assessments, activities, and the sequence in which they will occur based on the objective. Each activity or instructional segment I plan enables the students to be prepared for the completion of the objective (the building.) Each of the activities in the lesson plan sequence can be compared to providing a new, custom-made tool for my students that they will use for construction.

With the objective in place, I decide which instrument I will use to assess the completion of the objective. I use assessments for many purposes before, during, and after a lesson (Danielson, 2007). I assess to determine if the day's objective is above or below the students' abilities, and if my teaching methods are interfering with or aiding student achievement. I use other assessments to measure students' proficiency level (strengths and weaknesses) before and after a unit and to determine what type of feedback will increase student achievement (Hattie, 2009). I strive to design assessments that have clear rubrics and models, that integrate the three modes of communication (interpersonal, presentational, and interpretative (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001)), that are an extension of class activities and homework, and that are relevant to real-life communication (Adair-Hauck,

Glisan, Koda, Swender, & Sandrock, 2006). The use of several forms of formative and summative assessment (Epperson & Rossman, 2012) such as evaluating students' verbal responses to questions, journal entries, group work, answers written on students' individual white boards, dynamic assessment, exams, etc. enable me to make adjustments to my lesson plans and hold me accountable for my role in the progress of *all* my students.

Having the objective and the assessment methods, I can now create tools, or activities, that enable students to achieve the objective. The material for such tools comes by way of input, or in other words, contextual "language that encodes meaning" (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993, p. 46; Wong & VanPatten, 2003, p. 408). Input is a communicative message in the language being taught, a message that isn't a grammatical explanation or feedback (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). Communicative messages *in the language* are to language acquisition what gas is to a car's engine; without them, it does not "work" (Lee & VanPatten, 2003, p. 26; Wong & VanPatten, 2003, p. 413). I provide input to my Spanish 1010 students by doing nearly all my communication with them (instruction, out-of-class interaction, classroom management, etc.) in Spanish (Crouse, 2012).

In order to shape the tools, or help beginning language learners understand Spanish input, I make my language comprehensible. I compare creating comprehensible input (CI) to specifically shaped tools tailored to students so that they have what they need to successfully build. CI is a message in Spanish that students "get" (Crouse, 2012, p. 24). While regular input can be compared to a basic form of gas, comprehensible input is like a refined gas with which acquisition occurs more effectively (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). I make what I say comprehensible by using body language, visuals, relatable topics, simplified speech, repetition, technological tools, clear enunciation, and checking for understanding (ACTFL,

2013; Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001; Brandl, 2008; Ellis, 2012; Lee and VanPatten, 2003; Scott, 2010).

While it is essential for me to teach in Spanish, I have investigated the use of the L1 (the student's first language) to assist language learning. Researchers argue that to learn a second language (L2) we need to make connections with our background knowledge in our L1 (Horst, White & Bell, 2010; Tamati, 2012). Others argue that when students use both languages in the classroom, it results in better understanding of the material (Swain, 2006, 2012). For instance, some teachers require the first draft of a writing assignment in the L1, and the second draft in the L2. Researchers note that since students naturally make comparisons between the two languages in the classroom, (whether permitted or not), teachers can point out such connections in a more efficient and explicit manner (Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000; Horst, et al., 2010). I am still developing my personal application of using the L1 through methods such as comparing and contrasting the L1 and the L2 (NSFLEP, 2015), but I am open to trying anything to help my students learn, especially because 100% language separation has not yet been proved to be the most effective for language acquisition (Cummins, 2007).

To further shape the tools, I design activities that require students to recognize, process, and use the CI to communicate. I first plan an attention getter to introduce the objective of the lesson (a picture, video clip, etc.), then, I design recognition activities such as true/false, multiple choice, TPR ("listen to a command in a foreign language and immediately obey with a physical action" (Asher, 1969), etc. (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001). Recognition activities give students time to understand the input before producing output so that they don't just mimic the language without comprehension. After students

understand the meaning of the language, I plan teacher-facilitated communicative activities in order to prepare students for the final task, require the students to produce output (Swain, 1985), and foster critical thinking (Danielson, 2007). My role in each subsequent activity transitions from providing significant amounts of structure for student interactions to allowing students more freedom in what they say. The more freedom students have, the more they must negotiate meaning, *i.e.* and adjust their speech and body language to clarify information or show that they don't understand (Long, 1996). The final activity will require the most negotiation as it requires students to exchange information and create a product that represents that information (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001; Ellis, 2012; Lee & VanPatten, 2003).

In my activities I include only grammar instruction that supports communication (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001; Wong & VanPatten, 2003). While some may teach grammar through rule review and drills (Wong & VanPatten, 2003), in- text examples are more precise than "general rules" with numerous exceptions (Ahranjani & Shadi, 2012. p. 2). Others believe that students will learn without grammar instruction, but that has led to students who "lack grammatical accuracy" (Scott, 2010, p. 125; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993). I believe that students learn grammar by being given only the necessary grammatical tools to complete communicative tasks. I particularly prepare them using input enhancement, giving several examples of Spanish text that follow a similar grammatical pattern, and underlining or bolding where the patterns occur (Ahranjani & Shadi, 2012). When I use input enhancement, no matter the grammar principle, the students are almost always able to deduce the pattern without my explaining it in English or teaching explicit rules.

As the project manager teacher, I take the architect's vision and map out the details necessary to make that vision achievable. The resultant lesson plan enables me to be intentional with all my methods and techniques rather than going with educational fads. I can compare my lesson plan to the actual outcomes of the lesson: what outcome resulted from which activity or which activity clashed with a certain environmental factor. When it is time to execute my planned-out vision, I don my project manager cap.

Role Three: The Project Manager

A project manager aids individual workers and subcontractors as they construct the house. As a *project manager teacher*, I execute the lesson plan, playing less of an instructional role as the lesson unfolds and more of a facilitator role. Once I provide all the tools, it is time for the students to build their own knowledge by participating in the culminating task of the lesson plan. In this real-life task, students must exchange information and use it to complete something concrete (for example, a chart or graph that represents information obtained). As I facilitate this task, I must motivate my students to participate actively through differentiated instruction and effective feedback (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). I also must provide cultural context during language instruction so my students can transition from Spanish students to life-long Spanish learners and intercultural communicators (NSFLEP, 2015).

As a project manager teacher, I am in charge of carrying out the activities outlined in the task-based lesson plan. A task-based activity is a meaning-focused activity mirrored after real life and rooted in a communicative objective (O'Dowd & Ware, 2009). I previously gave an example of an objective for a task in which the students acted and wrote down their responses in a career counselor role-play. Before students can dive into such a task, they go

through a step-by- step sequence of activities to prepare for the task. They need to learn vocabulary and necessary phrases to tell someone which classes they should take. Each activity preceding the final task provides more and more tools until the students are ready to try to start building on their own. As a result, each activity requires more and more active participation from my students and less teacher talk (Ellis, 2012).

A task-based lesson plan includes three main components: being "learner centered", requiring a "meaningful exchange of information" and the completion of a final task that represents "the information shared and gathered" (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001, p. 76-77). Once the final task commences, my role is managerial, making sure my builders know their tools and are able to use them correctly. For the final task, I often do role-play, surveys, or information gap activities. An information gap activity is particularly useful as it requires students to negotiate meaning as they use "[..] different but complementary pieces of information that must be combined to successfully accomplish the goal of the activity" (Ballman et al., 2001, p. 74.) One information gap activity that I use is one for which students have two schedules that contain half the information, and they must communicate to fill-out the rest of the schedule.

When it is time to conclude the final task of any task-based lesson plan, I discuss with the class one or two common errors I noticed, focusing on errors that interfere with communication (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001). We then briefly discuss as a class how to improve in these areas, applying the changes to the homework and future class activities. Students also share what they learned from the activity, what they enjoyed, what they found confusing, etc. I also make sure to point out positive things I saw so that students recognize their successes and get a sense of closure to the activity. Such feedback is a key part of my role as project manager.

During the entire process, as a project manager teacher, I aim to motivate my

builders so that they see the need for construction, fulfill their potential in each build, and

want to continue in future builds. The foundation for motivating my students is creating a

task-based activity that creates a *need* to communicate the language meaningfully (Rubin,

1975). I also motivate by getting to know my students, adjusting lesson plans to meet their

learning style (Oxford & Burry- Stock, 1995) and interests, giving them the personal

attention they deserve, and both listening to and making changes based on their feedback

(Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998).

I also motivate my students by giving them specific, timely, and consistent feedback.

Feedback is important not just for the end of class but through all stages of instruction and

assessment. My purpose in giving feedback is to help students see what their end goal is,

where they are currently, and what they need to do next (Hattie, 2012). This applies to

responding to errors and complimenting students on effective work. When giving feedback on

errors, I point them out directly and then cue the class or individual students in such a way that

they can correct the error (e.g., The cat *runned?*) This direct form of feedback is more

effective than recasts (just repeating the correct form to them) because "the teacher clearly

indicates what the student said was incorrect" (Ellis 2012, p. 138) and requires students to take

an active role in correcting the error (Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000). When giving

positive feedback I give very specific comments on what they did well (instead of just saying,

"*good job*") and what they can do next. I do this so that students are motivated to continue

working instead of being content with what they have done (Hattie, 2009).

Another way I motivate students is through promoting student autonomy (Dörnyei &

Csizér, 1998). As I give my students the resources to learn on their own, particularly outside

of the classroom, they will be more likely to dedicate the time necessary to becoming

proficient in the language. They will even go from trying to achieve class objectives to setting

their own learning objectives independently (NSFLEP, 2015; Danielson, 2007). Technology is

a particularly useful tool to promote autonomous learning (Thorne, 2006). When I teach my

students how to use technology to learn Spanish, and when that technology is engaging and

user- friendly, many end up using it outside of class. Some free online Spanish learning

programs like *Duolingo* are designed like a social network, and participants receive online

currency for practicing Spanish (Duolingo, 2016). After showing this resource to my USU

students, I found one of them practicing with it every morning before class.

In addition to motivation, I am also responsible for helping builders understand and

interpret the cultural environment of construction. Students need to be aware of their own

culture and the culture/s connected with the language they are learning because culture and

language cannot be separated (ACTFL, 2013). In order to do this, I use activities such as

having them interview native guest speakers in class or having students bring cultural

artifacts which allow them to develop intercultural competence (ICC) or "the capacity to

recognize and use varied strategies in order to establish contact with people from another

culture" (Velescu, 2011, p. 286).

One of the cultural activities linked with technology that I hope to use with my

students is telecollaborative exchange (Guth & Helm, 2011). This will enable students in my

Spanish classroom to collaborate with a partner classroom from a Spanish-speaking country.

The students use a technological medium to get to know each other, write papers, or study

stories together about culture and create final projects that represent both of their cultures

(Belz, 2002; Thorne, 2006). This can occur through Skype, email, instant messenger, blogs,

etc. (O'Dowd, 2007). While such exchanges require significant preparation, there is no experience other than studying abroad that rivals the ICC the students (O'Dowd, 2013 and O'Dowd and Ware, 2009). I address the subject of telecollaboration more thoroughly in the culture artifact of this portfolio.

Once the students have finished constructing the house, I remove my project manager cap and have the opportunity to focus on the role of reflective practitioner. In preparation for the next construction project, I think about things that went well and what problems occurred. In order to convert these musings into action, I have developed several methods of reflection that enable me to put goals into action and better my performance in the three roles.

Role Four: Reflective Practitioner

Learning to successfully fulfill the roles of architect, general contractor, and project manager requires constant feedback and modification of teaching methods. As a reflective practitioner, I seek such feedback from personal reflection as well as input from peers and students. In order to receive feedback from students, I both informally and formally question them on ways the class can improve according to their needs. I also study and apply end-of-semester student evaluative feedback. In order to receive feedback from other teachers and compare it to my reflection, I make use of the Self-Assessment of Teaching Statement (SATS) approach developed by Spicer-Escalante (2015). This approach combines the benefits of self- and peer assessment (Dochy, Segers, & Sluijsmans, 1999). I address this approach in greater depth in my teaching artifact in this portfolio.

I believe it is important to seek feedback from students in both formal and informal ways. I seek formal feedback from students by giving a get-to-know-you survey at the beginning of class. I use this survey to not only understand my students better, but also to ask

them about their preferred learning style, why they are taking the class, etc. I also send a survey later in the semester to follow up on their goals and what changes that either they or I can make to get closer to those goals. I specifically require them to identify a learning strategy in class that I use that has or has not worked for them. This feedback helps me find problem areas that the students are aware of but might not express otherwise (Leckey & Neill, 2010).

In addition to applying feedback during the semester, I use end-of-semester student feedback to improve future students' learning experiences (Harvey, 2003). I particularly try to make changes based on problems encountered. In my first semester of teaching Spanish 1010 at USU, a few students felt that they did not receive their tests back quickly enough to be able to use the feedback I gave them. Consequently, the next time I taught, I set a deadline for getting tests back on time so students expected them by a certain date. This helped students understand the feedback while they still remembered the concepts covered on the test.

The SATS approach provides opportunity for peer and self-assessment through a specific protocol. First, I send my lesson plan and materials to my observer. Then, we have a pre- observation meeting to discuss specific aspects of the teaching roles on which I would like my observer to focus. While observing the class period, my observer writes feedback for me while a third person video records the class. After the class is over, I watch my video and write a reflection. Only after that can I request the notes from my observer and compare them to my thoughts. I use all of this information to write my SATS statement that summarizes what I have done well and how I could improve in my roles based on peer and self-assessment.

I believe the SATS approach is the most beneficial way to receive feedback because the feedback is specific to my needs, objective, and often innovative (Okas, van der Schaaf,

& Krull, 2014; Sheal, 1989). I also find watching and commenting on the video recording to be eye opening (Dinkelman, 2003; Dochy, Segers, & Sluijsmans, 1999). When I watch a video of my teaching, I feel free of my own biases and the biases of others (Bengtsson, 1995), and when I compare my notes with my observer's, I am able to broaden my perspective even more of what it means to be a good architect, general contractor, or project manager, and I see how I am doing in those roles and what my next step is to improve (Dochy et al., 1999; Kearney, 2013; Barber, 1990).

Conclusion

Through my roles of architect, general contractor, project manager, and reflective practitioner, I am able to aid my students in building their language proficiency. As my students are prepared for—and participate in—real-life communicative tasks in Spanish, they can find enjoyment and utility in learning a language. The more I improve in my four roles, the closer students get to that goal; thus I am dedicated to constant development in these roles from whatever source I may receive meaningful feedback. As I apply this feedback judiciously, I can experience the joy of watching students build their knowledge and see that knowledge open doors for them to opportunities for further joy, greater achievement, more meaningful relationships, and a broader perspective of the world.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGH TEACHING OBSERVATION

During my time in the MSLT program, I have had the privilege to observe many language classes. These classes have provided me with new ideas for my classroom. Most of all they have allowed me to analyze the way others teach through the lens of the four roles of architect, general contractor, project manager, and reflective practitioner. In this section I outline how the lessons I have observed have or haven't fallen in line with these four roles. I include my reflections on observations of two beginning Arabic classes, a Chinese 1010 class, two Spanish 1010 classes, and a Spanish DLI class.

I analyzed how effectively these teachers fulfilled their role as architects by whether or not they had created a communicative goal. Some teachers listed their objective at the beginning of class. Others didn't state their goal outright, but it was clear by the end. All of these teachers had a clear, communicative goal based on developing interpersonal communication skills around their lesson was centered.

Other lessons had a communicative goal, but some of the activities seemed to be completely unrelated to it. It became clear that the communicative goal, while important, was not the number one priority; covering the material from the textbook was the true objective of the lesson. Finally, another lesson felt like two or three lessons in one. Because of the variety of items being taught, the lesson did not feel unified by a communicative task but a string of information needed for a test.

I also focused on the role of general contractor. This role requires teachers to organize and plan lesson assessments based on the objective and design activities that prepare the students for the assessments. I tried to observe to what extent these key elements of lesson design were included in each language class.

I noticed that some teachers used a variety of both formative and summative assessment in their lessons that aligned well with their communicative goals. Such methods included using of students' whiteboards, writing sentences, interviewing in pairs, doing a PowerPoint quiz, doing a class interview, etc. One teacher assessed students' understanding of a pair activity by calling students up to present part of the activity to the class. While all of the teachers used some form of assessment, a few of the teachers lacked variety, focusing mainly on a teacher-centered question format.

One aspect of lesson planning and preparation that no teacher lacked was comprehensible input. Each teacher understood the importance of using a variety of methods to make input comprehensible. Such methods included using PowerPoint, changing the tone of voice, using gestures, writing and drawing on the board, etc. There were only two times when I thought that the teachers' attempt to make input comprehensible had not been sufficient. One phrase that was used seemed too difficult for the students to understand and the corresponding vocabulary slide contained too many objects in the picture to determine which meaning the image was supposed to convey.

A general contractor also plans ways to help students utilize their first language to learn the new language. Some teachers used techniques while remaining in the target language such as drawing attention to cognates, teaching new figures of speech, and writing words in the first language on the board to help students grasp the second language better. They helped students compare and contrast the two languages, as the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages advocate under the "comparison" rubric (NSFLEP, 2014). When the students spoke too much English, all teachers responded back to them in the target language in order

to encourage their students to speak in that language.

Most teachers planned communicative lessons. These lessons included input to which the students had to attend in order to be able to complete a language task. Afterwards they did an activity in which they negotiated meaning with a partner or several partners. The information exchanged was personal information that the student wouldn't know unless they asked another student, so they had to make an effort to understand and communicate. Most often this activity was an interview activity. There was only one lesson in which the students did not have to negotiate meaning and there seemed to be no culminating communicative activity.

Doing grammar in support of communication was a challenge for some teachers. One teacher taught a section of vocabulary without it being connected to a final communicative activity. Another did a communicative interview activity that paralleled real life, but still had an additional interview question that didn't fit with the real-life situation. Teaching a lesson with the same chapter content, I observed another teacher who found a way to include the vocabulary in the book without disrupting the communicative focus of the final task. This taught me that perhaps teaching required content and doing grammar in support of communication is more possible than we think.

To evaluate the third role of project manager I focused on teachers' role as facilitators. A facilitator must carry out activities in a way in which students gain more and more independence and tools to construct their own learning. The first aspect of facilitating is carrying out activities that build on one other, providing students with the necessary instruments to complete the final task. These activities become increasingly challenging and complex. Some of the teachers I observed designed each activity to build upon the prior one.

Others, due to textbook-following tendencies, designed activities around the structure of the textbook rather than what students needed to learn. The level of difficulty of these activities did not following a steadily increasing pattern, and the activities were not always directly related to each other.

Some teachers designed activities so that students would interact more and the teacher would talk less. This helped the students to become more autonomous. Such activities were designed with increasing flexibility so that students had more freedom with what they said. When students made mistakes, the teachers would require the class to come up with the correct answer, instead of just feeding it to them. Other teachers had moments of less teacher talk, but later the teacher talk increased. Instead of a gradual transition to more student control, the activity sequence felt sporadic. It seemed like the teacher remained "in control" for the majority of the lesson and still was the primary source of knowledge.

Another key part of being a facilitator is seeking student feedback by checking for understanding. Because some teachers used frequent forms of assessment, this assessment gave them the evidence necessary to know whether the students were grasping the concept, or if they needed something about the activity adjusted. Other teachers frequently asked their students if they understood or had questions. While this can be helpful, few students are willing to admit if they don't understand something. Often students will sit in silence if they don't understand, as I observed in one lesson. Teachers who depended more on frequent and specific assessment were better able to assess the understanding of students.

Facilitating a language also involves teaching intercultural competence. Most teachers included some aspect of cultural information that would be helpful to students if they were traveling to a certain country where those cultural practices and beliefs are common. The

Chinese instructor explained that a certain greeting that includes the word old is not disrespectful in China because the elderly are highly revered. Another teacher showed a map of the Spanish-speaking country she was from and made references to that country. Another compared cultural meaning behind a phrase in Spanish and its direct translation into English.

As I observed these teachers that had been trained in communicative language teaching (an approach that is manifest in the three teaching roles I describe,) I discovered that it requires constant diligence and self-reflection to develop the habits of communicative teaching, particularly when the required textbook given promotes a different methodology altogether; yet it is possible to progress towards that goal.

While I initially was sometimes harsh in my judgment of these lessons, I soon realized that I have made all of these mistakes at some point in my teaching career. I often am wrapped up in the textbook requirements and forget basic elements of communicative language teaching. I also have not always planned assessments sufficiently. The hope for teacher performance is not that teachers will apply communicative teaching principles instantaneously, but that they will continue reflecting on their teaching practice and improving their implementation of the four teaching roles.

SELF ASSESSMENT OF TEACHING STATEMENT

Introduction

This piece is a reflection based on a lesson I taught as a Spanish graduate instructor in my first semester at Utah State University. I offer an analysis of the extent to which I was able to put into practice the roles of teaching as outlined in my teaching philosophy. This Self-Assessment of Teaching Statement, following the design proposed by Dr. Spicer-Escalante (2015), includes a combination of my reflection after watching a video recording of my lesson and reading the feedback from the professor who observed the lesson. I outline the main points of the lesson plan, positive moments in the lesson, things that didn't go as planned, and how I plan to improve in the future based on my teaching philosophy.

The class in which I was observed was a Spanish 1010 class towards the beginning of the semester. The main objective of my lesson for the day was for students to pretend to be school counselors and advise each other on at least three classes necessary for their degree. In order to accomplish this interview task, the students participated in activities to learn vocabulary for classes, the forms of the verb "to have", and some vocabulary for occupations. The activities that built up to the final task included a presentation of comprehensible input, a review of vocabulary using recognition questions, a TPR activity, etc. Then the students performed the culminating interview activity in which they walked around and interviewed several other students pretending to be a school counselor, asking what career they are interested in, and then telling them three classes that they should take.

Positive Moments

My observer noted several positive practices that I implemented in the classroom. She noticed my practice of playing music as students come into class. I like to start each day with a

Spanish YouTube video. I play music from bands that rewrite English songs with Spanish lyrics. The lyrics are translated for meaning so that they make sense in Spanish and are set to the tune of popular songs on the radio. The songs show the lyrics written on the screen so that students are provided with both spoken and written input. I use music to set up the environment of the classroom so that students start to get in Spanish mode just as a good project manager must create an environment conducive to construction.

The observer also noticed that I have good classroom rapport with my students. She observed that I loved what I was doing and that students could tell. She was also impressed by how willing they were to speak the target language. I agree that one of my strengths is being able to get along well with students and to demonstrate that I really care about them. Because they know I care about them they are more willing to participate. This is part of the reason why my students were willing to speak in the target language so early in the language learning process. My ability to develop rapport with students relates to my role as an architect, as teachers must develop relationships with their students in order to plan an appropriate objective for them. A project manager must also connect with students in order to encourage and collaborate with them throughout the the lesson.

Shared Observations

My observer noted that I still needed to work on my Spanish fluency. She particularly noted some grammatical issues with capitalization in my PowerPoints. She also observed that I sometimes lacked the ability to make the jokes I wanted to in Spanish, and I just would laugh nervously instead. I agreed with this assessment as I had become aware of my need to increase my level of proficiency. For this purpose, I took a Spanish linguistic course this last summer and did a semester exchange in Logrono, Spain. I have returned with higher fluency, increasing my

capability to effectively model language use to my students. As a result, I am also able to design more effective lesson plans as a general contractor.

An additional issue that we both noticed was grammar correction. She observed that I corrected one student indirectly (providing the right answer through a recast.) In another case, she noted that when a student asked how a word was spelled, I showed him the slide so that he could read it and write down the spelling. She commented that there were several other ways I could have done this in a more effective manner such as spell it out for him in Spanish.

I agreed with both comments and realized that it was hard to know how to correct in a clear way without overcorrecting to the point that students became embarrassed and too nervous to speak. I realized that my corrective techniques were sometimes too subtle. I have since become more efficient at directly correcting grammatical errors. I now focus on either identifying the error outright or cueing the student to respond again. In efforts to avoid over-correction, I try to limit myself to calling attention to only one error in a students' verbal response. I focus on correcting the error associated with the grammatical concept needed to accomplish the final communicative task. Corrective feedback is a crucial in my role as a project manager to help students become increasingly independent as they learn to recognize and correct their own errors.

New Opportunities for Improvement

The observer also noticed a few things that I hadn't realized I was doing. She noticed that in one activity I taught more grammar forms than were necessary for the communicative goal. It is easy to over-teach grammar due to institutional expectations for tests and homework. Students are expected to know and understand a lot about grammatical forms in their exams. I want the students to succeed on their tests and homework as well, so I am still finding a balance between

the communicative approach and the set expectations for Spanish classes. However, I have learned that over-teaching grammar can be confusing for students and distract them from their final task. The role of a general contractor is to design activities which serve as tools to help achieve the final goal. Providing students with the wrong type of tools isn't doing them any favors.

My professor also noted that I display excessive energy at times in the classroom, being too loud and moving around a lot. I had never realized that this could be a distraction. I chose to move around a lot because I liked to keep students alert and attentive. It has since been hard to find a balance between being true to my personality and being the best teacher I can, but I have become slightly calmer, particularly in group activities, so that students will not consider me a distraction. (Though my energy does have its positive side. Some students have told me they would not have survived a class at 8:30 AM without my energy.)

Summary of Goals

While I have made improvements to my teaching since I conducted this lesson, I still have work left to do. I continue to increase my Spanish fluency daily through reading in Spanish, watching Spanish television, and staying in contact with Spanish-speaking friends. Now that I have achieved an advanced mid on the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI), my next goal is to achieve an advanced high. I plan on watching the news in Spanish and reading Spanish literature in order to increase my proficiency.

I am going to improve my correction techniques by doing further research on the best correction methods and how to apply them in the classroom. I also will avoid using recasts, focusing on giving limited but explicit feedback. When I am observed, I will ask my observer to note what type of correction I use most. I will also experiment with having a calmer demeanor in

the classroom by paying attention to the speed and volume of my teacher talk.

In addition to my goals for improvement, I will continue to develop my strengths by letting my love from my students show through my teaching. I will emphasize that they are important and seek to make Spanish exciting for them. These efforts will enable me to fulfill my four teaching roles because I will be constantly motivated to design and implement lesson plans that enrich my students' lives.

SELF ASSESSMENT OF TEACHING STATEMENT FILE

Introduction and Context

This file is a review of my experience being evaluated three times using the SATS, or the Self-Assessment of Teaching Statement. This approach, which uses a combination of self- peer assessment, was developed by Spicer-Escalante (2015). I utilize the main steps of her approach, which I will outline below. I particularly focused on the protocol for the pre-observation meeting. The purpose of the pre-observation meeting is both to decide specific teaching standards on which to focus and to prepare observers to give effective feedback. In the pre-observation meeting observers unacquainted with the SATS approach learn to take specific and objective notes so that the teacher can apply the suggestions directly to the classroom.

I was observed teaching hour-long, second grade English classes in Bretón de Los Herreros, an elementary school located in Logroño, Spain. I taught second grade English classes on Wednesdays and Thursdays with an average of 25 students in attendance. (In Spain, English classes are taught as a foreign language starting in preschool.) I was able to teach in this school as part of an internship experience through Utah State University.

Guide and Protocol

The protocol of the SATS approach begins long before the lesson is taught. First I send my lesson plan and materials to the observer. The observer and I meet to determine which 2 or 3 teaching standards will be the focus of the feedback I am given. These standards are based primarily on the World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages (NSFLEP, 2014), commonly known as the ACTFL standards. The observer will refer to these standards in his/her comments during the observation. We also use the meeting to review ways to take notes that are objective, specific, and applicable.

During the class the observer writes feedback on the SATS observation form. This form requires one to talk about what he/she liked, things he/she would have done differently, and other general comments. Meanwhile another person video records the lesson. After the class is over, I first watch the video and take reflective notes on a separate observation form. Then I read the notes of the observer and compare them to my reflections. I use this information to write either a SATS report, or, in this case, a SATS file.

A SATS report is an essay that discusses aspects of a specific lesson that was taught and observed. The report summarizes the reflections of the teacher and the comments of the observer. A SATS file reviews the same content, but the file often summarizes more than one lesson and presents information with more graphics/images. The SATS file also demonstrates the teacher's growth between lessons as a result of applying observer feedback.

Appendices A, B, and C present information on three lessons I taught in Spain. They show the objective of each lesson, my observers' comments on on what they liked and what they would have done differently, and recommendations I make to myself. I next write a reflection that demonstrates my growth across the three lessons. I specifically discuss my improvement in the areas of managing the classroom, following the pace of the class, and keeping the students engaged, and I outline how I plan to continue improving.

Reflection Based on Goals

Improvement on classroom management

In the second lesson both the observer and I noticed that I should get quiet in order to cue the students to be quiet before moving to the next activity. I also commented that I needed a better quiet signal.

In the third lesson both the observer and I noticed the improvement. I used a hand-clapping

signal to get students' attention after a lot of noise, or after doing group work. I clap a pattern and the students must replicate that pattern in perfect unison. It is fun for the students, gets their immediate attention, and doesn't require me to raise my voice.

I used the other "get quiet" cue when most students were looking at me, but a few were talking. This caused students to shush each other until everyone was looking at me in silence. Then I knew it was time to move to the next activity. Absolute silence is not conducive to learning, but it is essential that students be aware and attentive during transitions, and that they know that excessive noise in the classroom is not acceptable.

Improvement on Following the Pace of the Class

In the first observation it was clear to both my observer and me that I was unsure of how to help the 2nd graders learn at their pace. (I was accustomed to teaching university students.) Once during a lesson, I had already started the class activity even though some students were still not on the right page of the activity book. In other lessons I introduced task-based activities that were too advanced for the students.

By the second lesson I had improved my design of age-appropriate lesson activities, but I still struggled to know how much time to spend on activities. My observer pointed out that I had spent too long on one activity she observed; however, most often, my observer would slow down my pace during activities.

With continued practice and aid from my observers I was able to make major strides in my understanding of the students' level and pace. My observer and I noticed that I was able to explain things better and that I made sure to help all students stay with the pace of the class.

I recognize that teaching according to the students' pace is a continual growth process. My next goal is to understand what types of activities are appropriate for which age levels. My

observer pointed out some alternative activities that she might have used for the final lesson. I realize that certain activities are more engaging to some age groups than others.

Improvement on Keeping Students Engaged

In the first lesson the observer encouraged me to engage students more effectively. She said that I should get more students involved and use more images. The second observer also noted this need. While she recognized that I had used engaging images and activities, she thought I should switch between activities more frequently. She also said that I tended to call on people in front of the class.

These comments inspired me to be more creative and come up with new ideas to engage all the students at the same time. One such idea was the "123 head" cue. I remembered that I had seen a prior colleague do this. First I would ask the class a question. Rather than calling on only one student to answer, I would say "123" while pointing at my head. Only after counting to three and lifting my arm in the air could everyone shout out the answer. This allowed students more time to think about the answer, gave more students the opportunity to participate, and slightly delayed students who otherwise would shout out the answer immediately.

I used another method to help more students participate in spelling out-loud by developing a "cheerleader spelling" chant. I would start with "give me ..." (i.e., "give me a P" "P!") and then have them do a fun action for each letter. After chanting all of the letters I would say, "What does that spell?" and they would shout out the word. I did a lot with other chants and songs. I also had students practice pronunciation by clapping on the syllable while saying the word. This required all students to actively participate.

In order to engage students further, I used a variety of materials, such as video clips (which I would sometimes turn the sound off and explain the video with more comprehensible

L1 input), fun images, true or false questions, drawing activities, TPR activities, computer games, skits, comics, etc. I specifically realized that music, art, and movement are powerful tools for younger language learners. I also became better at modeling activities on the board so that they didn't become disengaged during unnecessary long explanations.

My observers both noted improvement, especially in the third lesson. One noted that I made students laugh and had a dynamic classroom environment. I agreed, though I realized that I still needed to figure out a better system for calling on students. I tried my best to call on students equally, but I was never quite confident in that. I may try a popsicle stick system in the future. I will write the names of students on popsicle sticks and draw sticks from the jar when I want to call on students. Once I have drawn that person, I put their popsicle stick in a different pile so they don't get called on more than others.

Conclusion

Some of the main themes addressed in my observations were designing engaging lesson plans, encouraging equal student participation, following an age-appropriate pace, and using a variety of teaching methods. While I am pleased with my improvement, I am committed to continue fine-tuning these areas. The SATS approach has helped me not only improve my teaching, but also become committed to the practice of self-reflection and accountability in my teaching. No matter my teaching position, I will seek for opportunities to be observed in this manner, even if they are not required of me. Refining my teaching goals through the SATS approach will enable me to become more expert in my field.

LANGUAGE ARTIFACT

Self-Assessment of Teaching: Benefits and Possibilities

LANGUAGE ARTIFACT INTRODUCTION & REFLECTION

I wrote this artifact for an independent study course on the Self-Assessment of Teaching Statement (Spicer-Escalante, 2015). It reviews literature on the benefits and difficulties encountered with typical assessment methods used in teaching observation. Next a review is presented of the SATS approach as a combination of peer and self-assessment and the benefits derived from this approach. I present my recommendations for the pre-observation meeting that is part of the SATS protocol, its benefits, and my personal application of the SATS approach as an English-teaching intern in Spain.

I decided to write this paper because I have experienced the challenges that occur when teacher observation and evaluation are done ineffectively. I have often come away from my observations with comments either too vague to be useful or too rude to inspire positive change. Above all I was not required to do personal reflection as a part of these observations. My evaluation was simply handed to me. When I began the MSLT program and was introduced to the SATS approach, I discovered a procedure that was both objective and effective. I knew I wanted to study this method further and make it a part of my pedagogy.

After writing this artifact, I realized that there are more factors involved in the SATS approach than just the protocol. The observer's personality has greatly affected the feedback I have been given, in spite of both evaluators receiving the same instruction on SATS protocol. I also discovered that the more SATS observations one does, the more specific goals he/she is able to set. I have benefited from this approach by learning about specific practices I can improve. While it is still difficult to become aware of my weaknesses, I feel privileged to use an observational approach that empowers me to overcome those weaknesses.

Abstract

This paper is a literature review on self-assessment and peer assessment through observation. I specifically focus on the Self-Assessment of Teaching Statement (SATS) approach to observation. My review begins by defining key terms related to the field such as reflection, self-, and peer assessment. I next introduce the benefits of effective observation and the potential problems that can occur. This is followed by research that shows how the pre-observation meeting, a part of the SATS protocol, is particularly beneficial. I provide a suggested protocol for this meeting. This protocol includes choosing two or three teaching standards to focus on, setting corresponding teaching goals, providing basic guidelines for writing feedback, reading a sample observation form with models of positive and negative feedback, and reviewing the SATS protocol. Finally, I share personal experiences and reflections I have made while implementing this protocol. I conclude with a summary of my findings and suggestions for future research.

Key words: reflection, self-assessment, peer assessment, Self-Assessment of Teaching Statement (SATS)

Introduction

Teacher observation is a prominent practice in education for the purposes of both teaching evaluation and development (Okas, van der Schaaf, & Krull, 2014; Sheal, 1989). Observation is used to assess teacher performance for the purposes of quality control (Natriello, 1990) and promotion of continual growth to prevent complacency (Bengtsson, 1995; Dinkelman, 2003). Studies show that teachers believe observations are necessary and feel undervalued when they are not frequently evaluated (Natriello, 1990).

Because teacher observation is common, it is essential to develop the most effective

observational system possible. To meet this need, Spicer-Escalante (2015) developed the Self-Assessment of Teaching Statement (SATS). The SATS approach has a series of specific steps, including a combination of peer assessment, self-assessment, and reflection. This approach has greatly benefited both novice and experienced teachers (deJonge-Kannan & Spicer-Escalante, 2016). I examine the SATS approach more fully by outlining key definitions and reviewing both the benefits of teacher observation and key problems with less-effective observational systems. I offer recommendations on how to utilize the SATS pre-observation meeting based on research and share my personal experience applying these recommendations in the classroom. I conclude with ideas for future research.

Defining Concepts

Reflection

Reflection is a type of "self-research" that occurs before, during, and/or after teaching (Bengtsson, 1995, p. 25). This practice enlightens and informs teachers, helping them develop their knowledge to the point where they can act independently (Bengtsson, 1995). Researchers consider reflection to be a prerequisite to a change in "understanding that can [then] lead to [a] change in thought or behavior" (Gay & Kirkland, 2003, p. 182). It often occurs as a reaction to a problem experienced during instruction (Okas, van der Schaaf, & Krull, 2014). While most teachers are reflective to some extent, deeper reflection requires teachers to distance themselves from their direct classroom experience and analyze objectively (Dinkelman, 2003). Such analysis enables teachers to learn things that they might not naturally learn (Dinkelman, 2003).

Self-Assessment, Peer Assessment, and Co-assessment

When teachers participate in self-assessment they are involved in *both* deciding

the criteria of assessment and judging if they have met those criteria (Kearney, 2013).

This involves "being more self-conscious, critical, and analytical of one's own teaching

beliefs and behaviors" (Gay & Kirkland, 2003, p. 181). As teachers assess their actions

they will begin to discover the beliefs that lie behind those actions. This is essential as

"[t]eachers' knowledge and beliefs about teaching, students and the subject matter [...]

[all] function as interpretative lenses through which teachers make sense of the situation"

(Okas, van der Schaaf, & Krull, 2014, p. 330). Self-assessment helps teachers modify

pedagogy, understand the beliefs underlying their pedagogy, and decide whether those

beliefs require modification.

Peer assessment is similar to self-assessment in that it requires peer observers to take

part in developing assessment criteria and use that to assess colleagues (Kearney, 2013). In

fact, Dochy, Segers, and Sluijsmans say "[p]eer assessment can be seen as a part of the self-

assessment process and as informing self-assessment" (Dochy, Segers, & Sluijsmans, 1999, p.

338); however, observers must analyze and comment on teachers' actions in such a way as to

help *them* make the necessary modifications. Peer assessment can also provide guidance and

structure to self-assessment (Dochy, et al., 1999). This is why a combination of peer and self-

assessment is often used in observations. Dochy et al. (1999) refer to this combination of peer

and self-assessment as co-assessment.

Benefits and Challenges of Observation

In Appendix A, I summarize the potential benefits of observation for both observers

and teachers. Such benefits include an increase in teacher development, teacher autonomy,

motivation for life-long learning, critical thinking skills, and the mutual exchange of new teaching ideas and strategies. These benefits enable teachers to have a more accurate perspective of their teaching, evaluate it, improve it, and even teach about it (Bengtsson, 1995).

Appendix B lists three common challenges of observational systems. Problems arise when the observer is an administrator instead of peer; the administrator is often untrained and evaluates for summative purposes rather than for teacher development. It also is problematic when observers either lack investment in the observation or training on how to give objective and specific feedback. Finally, when teachers being observed are not required to reflect sufficiently or play an active role in the observation process the observation can be ineffective. Many of these challenges are addressed through the implementation of the SATS approach (Spicer-Escalante, 2015).

The Steps of the Self-Assessment of Teaching Statement Approach

The SATS system follows a specific protocol. First the teacher sends the lesson plan and materials to the observer. Then they meet to discuss specific pedagogical aspects on which the teacher would like the observer to focus. While observing the class period, the observer writes feedback on the SATS observation form (Spicer-Escalante, 2015). Meanwhile a third person video records the class. After the class is over, the teacher first must watch the video and write a reflection. Then the teacher can request feedback from the observer and compare it to his/ her own thoughts. The teacher uses the observer's feedback to write the SATS, a statement which summarizes what the teacher has done well and how he/she can improve based on self-reflection and observer feedback.

Benefits of the SATS Approach for Teachers and Observers

The protocol of the SATS approach increases the likelihood of experiencing

benefits from observation and decreases the occurrence of the challenges typical to

observation. For example, teachers being observed with the SATS approach take an active

role in their own evaluation. They must send the lesson plan and materials ahead of time,

meet with the observer before teaching the lesson, observe a video of their class, write a

reflection, read the observer's feedback, and then write the SATS, blending self-reflection

and observer feedback. Because the teachers are required to take an active role, they are

invested in the process. Consequently, the SATS approach, which does not require the

observer to write a formal letter, has the additional benefit of making observations "less

time- consuming" for observers (Kearney, 2013, p. 336).

The modified role of observers under the SATS approach has unique benefits.

Observers in the SATS approach are often peers, which further motivates teachers being

observed to do their best (Topping, 2009). The peer observers concentrate their feedback on

"what they liked" and "what they would do differently" (Spicer-Escalante, 2015). Giving

feedback regarding these two areas allows observers to hone in on both positive and

problematic aspects of the lesson, giving specific ideas for techniques to help improve that

lesson (Kearney, 2013; Ho & Kane, 2013; Topping, 2009). Teachers who are observed can

apply this feedback both to that day's lesson and future lessons (Topping, 2009). Thus rather

than the observers being there to judge the lesson, the observer and the teacher are working

together to improve instruction (Dinkelman, 2003).

The Pre-Observation Meeting: An Essential Part of the SATS Protocol

While the SATS system is an effective observational system, teachers still may

experience problems with feedback if the pre-observation meeting is not included in the protocol. When it isn't included, if peers give me feedback, it is sometimes not specific enough or is written as a value statement without any evidence to back it up (i.e., "good at engaging students" or "could work on creating more engaging activities"). When observers utilize the pre-observation meeting they are prepared to give effective feedback. I present research on specific things that can be done in that meeting to enable observers to write feedback that is more specific, objective, and applicable.

Possible Components of the Pre-Observation Meeting

The pre-observation meeting is a one-on-one meeting between the teacher and observer with the purpose of preparing observers to give feedback (Topping, 2009) and promoting mutual understanding through interpersonal communication (Sheal, 1989). The potential meeting protocol I recommend begins as teachers show observers a model observation sheet (see, for example, Sheal, 1989) to demonstrate how to write effective feedback. This model is a filled-out observation form in which an observer has written 1) what has occurred in the class and 2) connects it to either an encouraging compliment or a recommendation based on set teaching standards. Next teachers provide observers with specific teaching standards they want to work on and set standards-based goals that will give observers a focus for their feedback (Natriello, 1990; Okas, van der Schaaf, & Krull, 2014; Topping, 2009; Van Tassel-Bask, Quek, & Feng, 2006). Finally, teachers use the meeting to make sure that observers understand each step of the SATS process.

Choosing teaching standards and goals.

The pre-observation meeting starts with the teacher presenting the lesson materials and plan, choosing appropriate teaching standards on which to focus, and setting goals based

on those standards. This is meant to combat challenges encountered with standard teacher observations. Many of the challenges typically associated with observation are due to a lack of specific standards of measurement (Hill, Charalambous, & Kraft, 2012; Kearney, 2013; Sheal, 1989). Teachers often feel unsure what they will be judged on and worry about being assessed based on factors beyond their control, such as favoritism. Observers also feel unsure of how to evaluate teachers without more guidance; thus, they may hesitate to give specific feedback as they don't know what the teachers expect (Natriello, 1990).

To avoid these problems, teachers meet with observers to decide which standards will form the basis of their observation. In foreign language education, the first resource for standards is the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages (ACTFL, 2015); teachers can also use other reputable sources on general teaching standards such as those presented in *Enhancing professional practice: A framework for teaching* (Danielson, 2011). Teachers should choose two to three total standards on which to focus (Spicer-Escalante, 2015).

After choosing standards, observers and teachers discuss appropriate goals based on these standards. For example, a teacher might want to work on an ACTFL standard related to interpersonal communication (ACTFL, 2015); consequently, he/she will set a goal to resist the temptation to lecture so that students have time to focus on the interview activity. Other teachers might already do well with designing activities that require students to "exchange information" but want to carry out an activity that also requires students to exchange "feelings" and "opinions" (ACTFL, 2015). Once goals are decided, observers can write them at the top of the observation sheet so that they will focus on these goals in their feedback. They might even number the goals and refer to the goal number in each comment.

Models and reminders.

Teachers also use the pre-observation meeting to show observers that are new to the SATS system how to write effective feedback. Observers have a tendency to be critical, subjective, and vague in their feedback (Barber, 1990; Sheal, 1989). Research has shown the benefits of preparing observers by sharing models of observation feedback and practicing observation as part of a training workshop (Dochy, Segers and Sluijsmans, 1999; Kearney, 2013; Topping, 2009; Natriello, 1990; Sheal, 1989). While the concept of a training workshop is out of the scope of this paper, I have adapted the practice of modeling observation feedback to the meeting protocol by showing observers examples of effective and ineffective feedback on a sample observation form.

The teachers and observers carry out this preparation by reading brief instructions on writing feedback as well as positive examples of feedback. In the *first step* of writing feedback, observers write down what happened (Okas, van der Schaaf, & Krull, 2014; Sheal, 1989). For example, "Teacher used TPR to teach new vocabulary. All students participated actively and were then able to remember and reproduce the vocabulary meaningfully in the next speaking activity". In the *second step* the observer writes a comment to show the connection between what happened in class to one of the goals (Okas, van der Schaaf, & Krull, 2014) and whether the event did or didn't lead to the achievement of that goal. For example, "This contributed to goal three (I can use engaging activities to help students remember vocabulary and be able to use it in meaningful communication.) Keep on using TPR. It engages this class well!"

For times when observers want to comment on something they would do differently, the form provides an example like this:

Towards the end of the PowerPoint, some of the students were looking around the room, doodling, and not paying attention. This set you back on goal two (I can engage the students through fun, exciting images of the vocabulary.) I might have limited the PowerPoint activity to five minutes and then done another type of activity, like a true or false, or circle the answer activity. This would help the students stay focused and require them to start recognizing the forms they have learned without reproducing them yet.

Such comments provide specific ideas for improvement that relate to the teacher's previously selected goals. Teachers and observers could also use the meeting to read and discuss examples of unhelpful feedback, as presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Examples of Unhelpful Feedback

Statement type	Examples
Value judgments (Sheal, 1989)	"Teacher is good or bad at classroom management"
Feedback on factors that are beyond teachers' control (Natriello, 1990)	"You should use the L1 more! The students don't understand!" (when the school has a strict no L1 policy.)
Feedback that doesn't relate to the teachers' goals (Okas, van der Schaaf, & Krull, 2014)	Commenting on setting measurable objectives when the teacher didn't state any goals related to this.
Feedback that is biased or objective (Barber, 1990)	"You still struggle with connecting with students" (Based more on a prior observation rather than the current classroom experience).

In addition, teachers should also emphasize that observers are not obligated to write a lot of comments. The goal is not to write as many comments as possible but to provide feedback that is objective, based on a specific occurrence in the classroom, and connected to the teacher's goals.

Aspects of the SATS protocol that must be understood.

Finally, the last crucial component of the pre-observation meeting protocol is that both teachers and observers understand and follow the steps of the SATS process *in order*. One of the difficult steps can be waiting to receive feedback. The SATS approach requires that teachers first observe their video and write a reflection before reading observer feedback. This step can be difficult to follow, as teachers may be eager to receive feedback immediately after the lesson; nonetheless, following the steps in order is a critical part of the system's effectiveness. As teachers first observe their own video and then assess it, they are able to critique themselves without the influence of the observer's opinion (Dinkelman, 2003; Dochy, Segers, & Sluijsmans, 1999). This step, followed by the feedback of observers, allows teachers to gain the benefits of both self-assessment and peer assessment (Dochy, Segers, & Sluijsmans, 1999).

The pre-observation meeting prepares teachers for self-assessment and peer observation. The meeting enables observers to know what kind of feedback to give, and it requires teachers to play an active role in asking for specific feedback. The meeting also serves as a reminder to follow the SATS protocol precisely for maximum effectiveness.

My Experience Using the Pre-Observation Meeting with the SATS System

In order to put my suggested pre-observation meeting protocol into practice, I was observed three times using this protocol in conjunction with the SATS system. These

observations were done during my semester-long internship in the elementary school Breton de Los Herreros in Logroño, Spain. I was observed in a 2nd grade, hour-long EFL class. I taught EFL classes Wednesdays and Thursdays with an average of 25 students in attendance. (In Spain, EFL classes are taught from preschool on.)

In my *first observation* my observer was the students' regular ESL teacher. I initially felt that the feedback this teacher gave me was too vague (e.g., "It's obvious that you have prepared the lesson".) She based her comments on the goals we discussed, but I expected them to be more specific due to our pre-observation discussion. I later realized that even the term "specific" is very objective. She may have written, according to her perspective, more specific notes than she would have otherwise (e.g., "You have to try to get all of the students to participate in the class. Make sure all of the students have the right book.") I realized that if I feel it is important to have a certain amount of feedback, or a certain level of specificity, I need to point that out more explicitly while I review models of feedback with my observer. I also need to recognize that the type of feedback I receive can depend on the observer's personality type.

I also noted the importance of the pre-observation meeting for reserved personalities. I got the impression that my observer was someone who would be reluctant to give critical feedback, especially if she were unsure of how it would be received. The pre- observation meeting helped her be more expressive and is a tool that could enable all observers to be more honest with their feedback because they know that is what the teacher wants. It allows teachers to demonstrate that they are more invested in their development as a teacher than in protecting their ego.

Before I received my feedback from the teacher, I had set some teaching goals on

which she could base her comments. While she did address those, she also helped me understand what some of my goals should be. This opened my eyes to issues that hadn't occurred to me, including my need to follow the pace of my students, be more engaging, and include all of the students in activities.

In my *second observation* my observer was the students' regular education teacher. She had a more outgoing personality than the first observer. She was very expressive in the pre-observation meeting, gave me more feedback, and wrote about more specific details. After this observation I continued to ponder how personality type influences observation feedback. I also had many questions regarding the observer feedback I received. I wondered if a post-observation meeting might be a helpful addition to the SATS protocol to provide a way for observers to answer teachers' questions.

I also realized that the goal setting aspect of the pre-observation meeting protocol is particularly beneficial. Now that I had set goals based on what the previous observer had said, the new observer was able to focus on and expand on those goals. She gave me specific feedback related to the new goals I had set, such as pointing out how I call on people mostly in the front, how the activity was engaging but it became less engaging as it went too long, etc. She also gave me a suggestion (related to my goal of better classroom management) to wait till the students are quiet before moving on to the next activity. Each comment aided me to set new, more specific goals for the next observation.

For my *third observation* the main EFL teacher observed me again. Initially in terms of what she would do differently in my lesson, she wrote that everything went perfectly. Our pre-observation meeting had been brief because I thought I wouldn't need to review the full protocol again (such as that giving feedback on how to improve is required). I discovered that

a full pre-observation meeting is still important even if a teacher has met with the observer once before.

However, what we reviewed in the first pre-observation meeting must still have been helpful for her as she was able to observe me a third time and write more detailed feedback. Initially I think she felt like a cooperating teacher who was giving a final evaluation of a student teacher at the end of a teacher training program. Perhaps she didn't feel it was appropriate to mention areas in which I could still improve. After she realized that I wanted her to write such feedback, it's possible that she felt more comfortable and was able to give more critical feedback.

Conclusion

This paper has shown how the SATS approach enables teachers to experience benefits and avoid problems typically associated with observation. It highlights the advantages of the pre-observation meeting and a possible protocol that can be followed during the meeting. As teachers are observed in this manner, they can apply observers' feedback to a variety of future teaching situations (Dinkelman, 2003). Such observations can help create changes "in programs as well as changes in pedagogy" (Dinkelman, 2003).

From my three observation experiences, I have discovered that the pre-observation meeting helps people less inclined to give specific feedback to write more, and those who already do it to excel at it. Personality differences between observers adds an interesting component to observation. As teachers take the time to interact with their observers in the pre- observation meeting, they may get a glimpse of their observer's personality type. This could prove useful so that teachers can seek to be observed by many personality types, as each may have a unique perspective. Gaining multiple perspectives by receiving observation

feedback from a variety of peer observers may have unexplored benefits.

Because of the feedback from my three observations, I have learned new strategies and have fine-tuned my abilities to match my activity design to the age level of students. I have also successfully modified my classroom management methods. As I have gone through the process of setting goals and receiving feedback, this feedback has led to a change in my goals, which has been followed by receiving more specific feedback, causing me to set more specific goals, etc. Through this process I have a gained deeper understanding of where I am as a teacher and where I want to go next.

While the SATS approach is supported by research, additional research remains to be done. Studies should be done to show the possible benefits of having a variety of observers vs. the same observer several times (Ho & Kane, 2013; Topping, 2009). Additionally, the use of a post-observation meeting and its potential benefits should be studied (Sheal, 1989; Topping, 2009). The long term benefits of the SATS system (Natriello, 1990), the length of classroom observations (Ho & Kane, 2013), and the effect of bias in observation (Flanders, 1970) are other subjects for future research. As observation protocol is continually researched, the necessary improvements in the educational system will be within teachers' grasps.

LITERACY ARTIFACT

First Language Use for Biliteracy Instruction in the Immersion Classroom

INTRODUCTION & REFLECTION

I originally wrote this paper with Elizabeth Abell as an assignment for the Foundations of Dual Language and Immersion Education class. I have since revised the paper significantly and changed its focus. This paper begins by defining immersion education, its benefits, and its history. It presents types of L1 use observed in the immersion classroom and how the L1 is used as a tool to help students develop biliteracy. To conclude I give a list of recommendations for using L1-use strategies depending on one's preferences regarding L1 use in the classroom.

I chose this topic based on my experience observing dual immersion classes in Utah. While the target language is spoken almost 100% of the time, English is still spoken in the target language classroom. After recognizing that discrepancy, I wondered what L1 use looked like in immersion programs outside of Utah. I began to question whether 100% target language use was even the most beneficial policy for immersion programs. Through my research I discovered that there are several approaches to L1 use in the immersion classroom, particularly when it comes to biliteracy development. This paper helped me gain perspective on the varying strategies in which the L1 is used as an aide for L2 biliteracy development.

After writing this artifact, I realized how important educational research is. The multitude of opinions regarding L1 use in the immersion classroom can leave teachers unsure of which method will be most effective; however, the more research is done to compare L1-use methods, the closer teachers will come to being able to confidently pick the right approach for their context.

Abstract

In this paper I focus on the use of the first language (L1) in the dual language immersion (DLI) classroom to help students develop biliteracy in their L1 and the non-native language (L2). I start with an overview of bilingual and DLI education, a brief history of DLI education and its implementation, as well as a summary of its current state. This is followed by a description of the four models of DLI and the Utah model of DLI. Next I review literature on L1 use when spoken or encouraged by the target language classroom teacher. I show how teacher-directed L1 use falls on a spectrum between language separation and language integration. The specific forms of teacher-directed L1 use presented on this spectrum are cross-linguistic analysis, translation, code switching, and translanguaging. Finally, I present research on how some of these forms of teacher-directed L1 use have been shown to be effective for building biliteracy. I conclude with a list of suggestions on how teachers can use the L1 to promote biliteracy.

Key words: dual language immersion, L1, code-switching, translanguaging

Introduction

Immersion education stands at the forefront of our most viable education models for the multilingual, globalized future of our society. One of its most striking features and most attractive selling points to skeptics is the exclusive use of the target language (language being taught, often referred to as the L2) by both the teacher and students for half of the school day. Unfortunately, this ideal immersion classroom is, strictly speaking, a chimera. The non-target language (or native language, the L1) will, in one way or another, frequently manifest itself in the target language classroom.

In this paper I first provide an overview of dual language immersion (DLI) education to use as a foundation to frame my discussion of immersion classroom L1 use. Then I identify different types of teacher-directed L1 use in the DLI classroom to promote biliteracy. I conclude by giving my recommendations on the variety of ways teachers can use the L1 to promote biliteracy.

DLI in Utah

DLI in Utah is unique as Utah was the first state in the United States to put in place a state-wide framework and curriculum for DLI programs as well as to provide state funding for public-school DLI programs. This state-wide model for DLI, which provided funding and professional development support, was put into place by State Senate Bill 41, which passed in 2008. Then-Governor Jon Huntsman and State Senator Howard Stephenson were instrumental in passing this bill. The Utah Model of DLI is a 50-50 model in which students spend 50% of their school day in the target language and 50% in English with two different teachers, each teacher giving instruction exclusively in one language (Wade & Roberts, 2012). Utah's DLI programs have grown more rapidly than was originally expected when they were launched in 2009 (Leite, 2013), and for the 2016-2017 school year, Utah boasted 162 DLI programs in five languages (G. Roberts, personal communication, June 8, 2016).

Bilingualism, biliteracy, and the benefits of DLI.

DLI aims for bilingualism and biliteracy. Bilingualism refers to the ability to speak in two languages and biliteracy refers to the ability to read and write in two languages (Hornberger, 1989). The benefits of developing bilingualism and biliteracy are educational, cognitive, sociocultural, and economic. See Appendix C for a brief outline of these benefits and further resources. In order to further extend these benefits, researchers continue to debate
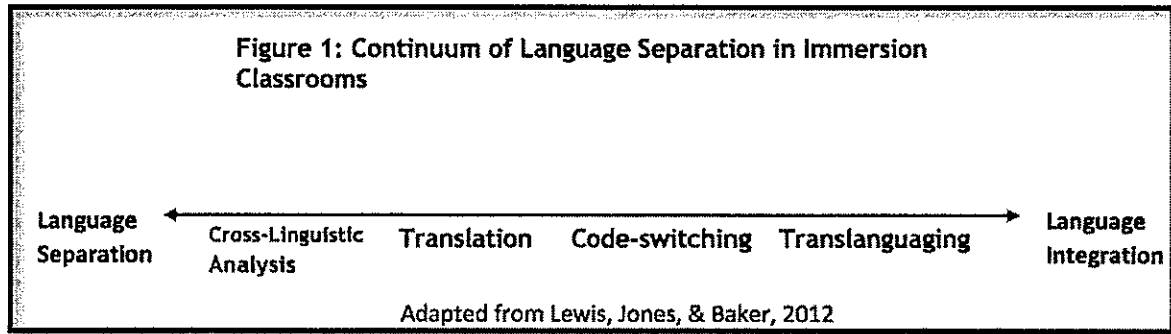
to what extent the L1 should be used by DLI teachers in the target language classroom.

Teacher-directed L1 Use in the DLI Classroom

DLI teachers are already confronted daily with the challenge of how to negotiate and

handle the use of the L1 (or non-target language) in the immersion classroom. Through my

reading and from my observations of Utah DLI classrooms, I know that exclusive use of the

target language is virtually impossible to achieve and that the degree to which the L1 is used

in DLI greatly varies. In the sections that follow, I will investigate L1 use by teachers in

various immersion settings in the United States and Canada. I will define the types of teacher-

directed L1 use and how each are used in biliteracy instruction.

Motivations behind teacher-directed L1 use.

Research shows that the motivation behind teacher-directed use of the L1 to facilitate

L2 acquisition fall somewhere on an ideological continuum between language separation and

integration (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011). This continuum (see Figure 1) features the practice of

language separation at the very left (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Lewis, Jones, & Baker,

2012). Language separatists believe that if students are immersed in the program languages

separately, the students will become more proficient in both languages (Cenoz & Gorter,

2011; Beeman & Urow, n.d.; Edstrom, 2006). Promoters of language separation believe that

language mixing results in either negative transfer (the misapplication of linguistic features

from one language to another) or hegemony, i.e., an unequal emphasis given to one language

over the other (Hamayan, Genesee & Cloud, 2013; Horst, White & Bell, 2010).

Figure 1: Continuum of Language Separation in Immersion Classrooms

| Language Separation | | Cross-Linguistic Analysis | Translation | Code-switching | Translanguaging | Language Integration |

Adapted from Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012

On the right side of the continuum is language integration. Integrationists believe that learning both languages together in the classroom is most effective and allows for "reciprocal language transfer" (or making connections between languages in a way that aides language acquisition) (Tamati, 2012, 01:03:58). Integrationists support Scott's claim that language information is stored in "subsystems that interact with each other and influence each other..." (Scott, 2010, p. 16); thus, using both languages together enables students to fully demonstrate their knowledge and develop their cognitive "languaging" or processing skills (Swain, 2006, 2012.) For example, students might use English to brainstorm for a paper and then write the paper in Spanish. They benefit from utilizing both languages for cognitive tasks and begin to develop multilingual behaviors and identities (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Scott, 2010). Integrationists consider language separation, on the other hand, to be unnatural and limiting to students' multilingual development (Turnbull, 2012).

While many separationist and integrationist educators may claim to be fully supportive of their respective ideologies, the teacher-directed L1 use practices that researchers have identified are classified as being somewhere between the two extremes. Total separation between the L1 and the L2 is claimed to be impossible (Beeman & Urow, n.d.; Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000; Edstrom, 2006; Horst, White & Bell, 2010; Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012; Scott, 2010; Swain, 2012; Turnbull, 2012). Additionally, due to the uneven status of one

language over the other, and subsequent attempts to equalize the value of both languages, full

language integration is also not practiced (Hamayan, Genesee & Cloud, 2013; Palmer, 2012).

With this in mind I next outline the main patterns of teacher-directed L1 use and where these

practices fall on the continuum, starting with the practices most in line with language

separation, and ending with practices most in line with the principles of language integration. I

will show how each practice is used to promote biliteracy.

Types of teacher-directed L1 use and biliteracy development.

The first teacher-directed L1 practice that falls closest to language separation is cross-

linguistic analysis or CLA (Hamayan, Genesee & Cloud, 2013; Horst, White & Bell, 2010;

Swain, 2012). CLA is a metalinguistic exercise that compares linguistic features of the two

languages in order to promote positive language transfer and build on prior knowledge (Cloud,

Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000). Teachers who use this approach are aware that students are

already making these connections in their minds and use classroom time to do so overtly

(Cummins, 2007; Horst et al., 2010). For example, as a teaching assistant in a DLI classroom,

I often observed the teacher say things like *"es como inglés"* (it's like English) when

comparing linguistic features.

Teachers who initiate CLA in the DLI context to promote biliteracy can do this

without speaking in the L1, though they might provide written L1 input (such as writing a

word in the L1 on the white board). They can also point out cognates in an L2 text that are

similar to the L1 (or that appear to be similar but are actually false cognates). Other

techniques include comparison and contrast of pronunciation, definitions, punctuation, syntax,

pragmatics represented in the text, abstract vocabulary, etc. (NSFLEP, 2015; Hamayan,

Genesee & Cloud, 2013; Horst, White & Bell, 2010; Swain, 2012). Teachers make

comparisons by making a comment to the class or extending the analysis into a class activity. However, as this practice is still rooted in separationist ideals, activities are kept brief and executed in the target language, sometimes with L1 components given as homework (Horst et al., 2010).

The next level of teacher-directed L1 use is translation. While traditional translation (simply repeating the L1 equivalent to students) is generally considered to be an unacceptable practice in DLI education (Cummins, 2007), less direct forms of translation are used more often. An example is when teachers speak in the L2 but cue a response in the L1 (i.e., translation). The teacher might write a word on the board and ask *How do you say this in English, class?* in the L2. Teachers' motivation to translate or let students translate comes from a desire to scaffold the students' knowledge, define vocabulary, make content comprehensible, and increase the self-concept of English language learners through demonstrating their translation skills (Cummins, 2007; Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012); however, the strict way that such translation is generally executed demonstrates hesitation to bring the L1 into the L2 classroom, a hesitation that may originate in separationist ideals (Lewis et al., 2012).

Teacher translation practices to promote biliteracy also include the use of parallel texts and annotated texts, which are texts that include either a complete or partial translation (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012). Teachers sometimes provide a synopsis of the reading in the L1 before they begin to read in the L2 (Garcia & Kleifgen, 2010). Researchers have also seen the benefit of translation as students are writing their own bilingual books. This practice can raise their L2 proficiency as well as increase the value of bilingualism in the eyes of the students (Cummins, 2007). While translation is practiced in some bilingual education classrooms (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012), in my observations teachers only went as far as occasionally using the L2 to trigger a L1 response from students when teaching abstract

vocabulary.

Moving a step further towards language integration, the teacher-directed use of code- switching between the L1 and L2 is promoted in some bilingual education classrooms (Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000). Code-switching is "a highly skilled [...] activity in which both L1 and L2 are used simultaneously, including intrasentential and intersentential switches" (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012, p. 657). For example, a student who code-switches goes back and forth between languages during class time, using phrases such as 'we should walk *el perro*.' Many teachers consider code-switching to be a natural bilingual function that enables students to make full use of the knowledge they have in both languages (Ballinger, 2012; Beeman & Urow, 2013; Scott, 2010; Swain, 2012; Tamati, 2012; Turnbull, 2012). Educators who support code- switching sometimes do it themselves to explain meaning, clarify grammatical concepts, organize tasks, discipline students, and develop teacher-student relationships (Ballinger, 2012).

Teachers who direct students to code-switch for biliteracy promotion often will encourage them to collaborate and "language" in the L1(or use the L1 to brainstorm/plan) through pre-writing assignments or group discussion (Swain, 2006, 2012). Sometimes teachers organize a pre-writing and research phase in one language and require a final draft or presentation in the other language, utilizing the students' resources in both languages (Swain & Lapkin, 2005). This enables students to process and develop their ideas before they worry about the technical parts of writing. However, supporters of code-switching advocate limits to this practice; teachers must be able to justify use of the L1 after the fact (Swain, 2012).

The final form of teacher-directed L1 use, which falls closest to language integration on the continuum, is *translanguaging*. Translanguaging includes all previously mentioned

forms of L1 use and goes "beyond" (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012, p. 656). It has no "clear

boundaries, which places the speaker at the heart of the interaction" (Creese & Blackledge,

2010, p. 1197). Translanguaging means to mix languages freely and even create new forms in

an effort to be understood and express meaning adequately as a bilingual (Gunnarson, n.d.).

Teachers of translanguaging believe that switching frequently between languages motivates

students, maximizes their comprehension and performance, and is a part of full bilingual

functioning (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Lewis et al., 2012).

Translanguaging practices that promote biliteracy are very similar to those of code-

switching, but teachers who implement them are less concerned about having limits to the

switching because these limits advocate language separation (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012).

Even teachers can participate in the translanguaging output (Creese & Blackledge, 2010).

Teachers often give translanguaging students access to more multilingual literacy resources

such as "multilingual books" and "dictionaries" (Gunnarson, n.d.). Translanguaging students

also develop biliteracy through "brainstorming on the board using different languages" and

having "bilingual writing partners" (Gunnarson, n.d.). Finally, teachers also encourage

students to write compositions that are directed towards a bilingual audience (Gunnarson,

n.d.).

However, as limitless as translanguaging practices might seem, teachers who

translanguage will still take measures to make sure that the minority language is given equal

status. Experts advocate preserving the minority language and making needed adjustments

according to the "sociopolitical environment" (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012, p. 664). This

becomes especially important in light of research on student minority language use, which

often already falls well below the desired 100% during minority language class time (Broner

& Tedick, 2011; Potowski, 2004; Tarone & Swain, 1995).

My Recommendations for L1 use in the Classroom to Promote Literacy

As teachers consider their L1 use in DLI, they should first understand the beliefs behind each form of L1 use and how these practices manifest themselves in the classroom. Then, teachers can make choices about which strategies to apply in their specific circumstances. In this section I provide a list of recommendations for each type of L1 use from which teachers can easily draw their ideas. I make recommendations with the expectation that teachers will apply them as far as the language policy of their institution will allow. I stress that advocating a change of language policy in an immersion program (e.g., requesting that one's school change from a strict language separation policy to a more integrationist policy) is not within the scope of this paper.

1. Cross Linguistic Analysis (CLA). Comparing and contrasting features of the L1 and L2 are considered crucial skills in all language learning settings (NSFLEP, 2015). Based on my observations in the DLI setting, every DLI teacher, regardless of their program, may incorporate this practice in their classroom. This can range from simply calling attention to a cognate by writing it on the blackboard, having students guess the definition, or listening to and reading music lyrics to a Spanish version of an English song. As teachers guide students in CLA, they will train their students to recognize and guess the meaning of new words as they read without having to constantly look them up.

2. Translation. Teaching translation is a useful practice to help students understand that the act of translation is not as simple as a word-for-word substitution. Using exercises such as comparing what a movie/TV subtitle says (which is often incorrect) versus a translation for meaning can help students understand that translation is a complex process. While not all will

be professional translators, many DLI students will likely be required to translate in their lives due to their unique set of skills. As students learn early on that their skills are better than those of google translate, they will begin to write with the intention of transferring meaning instead of trying to mirror the word choice and structure of the original utterance.

3. Code switching. Giving students an opportunity to brainstorm in their first language is a powerful tool for code switchers (Swain, 2012). Students already brainstorm naturally in their first language, at least initially (Swain, 2012). Planning an activity in which students write a rough draft in the first language or predict a story's plot helps them to develop their critical thinking skills and be able to express themselves better in the target language. Eventually they will transition to brainstorming mostly in the target language (Swain, 2012).

If code-switching teachers are not full integrationists, they should set clear limits on when and where the L1 will be used. They might consider their justification, asking themselves *What do I believe about teaching and how does this motivate my L1 use?* This question can be used both to prevent teachers from overusing and underusing the L1. They can also ask *How motivated is my amount of L1 use (or lack thereof) by rules and how much by student learning? Is my L1 use justifiable?*

4. Translanguaging. Within the realm of translanguaging, I particularly promote the practice of writing for both bilingual and monolingual audiences. Students learn the skill of tailoring their writing to different audiences. A bilingual audience, for example, might relate more to an advertisement that contains a mix of both languages (such as both English and Spanish). However other audiences might be confused and make unfair or prejudiced assumptions about the writer's intelligence or language proficiency. As students learn how to

intentionally blend languages and how to separate them, they will be able to navigate between audiences to improve their persuasive writing. They also will also be skilled in identifying their audience first and then tailoring their writing to that audience.

Conclusion and Suggestions for Further Research

My literature review demonstrates that a variety of opinions exist on which is the most effective way to implement teacher-directed L1 use within the DLI context, particularly for the development of biliteracy; however, no single approach has proven to be most effective. Thus future research in teacher-directed L1 use should work towards determining which is most effective so as to facilitate the fulfillment of one of the three main goals of dual immersion education: biliteracy (Spicer-Escalante, Leite, & Wade, 2015). Immersion schools should acknowledge the inevitability of L1 use in their classrooms so that determining the best method can be an open topic for discussion in staff meetings and teacher trainings.

Future research conducted on teacher L1 use could determine which, if any, of the different types of L1 is the most effective for achieving biliteracy. Research should be done to determine if different types of L1 use are more plausible in certain cultural and political climates than others, particularly in cases of language hegemony. As immersion programs continue to launch and flourish across the globe, research on every aspect of DLI will become increasingly necessary. Intentional or not, L1 use is an integral part of the DLI classroom and the more the effect of the L1 on biliteracy development is understood, the better L1 use can be harnessed to achieve the goals of dual language immersion education.

CULTURE ARTIFACT

Telecollaboration and the Teacher's Role: Cultural Benefits, Tasks, and Challenges

INTRODUCTION & REFLECTION

I originally wrote this paper with Nadia Gifford and Mohammed Hussein as an assignment for the Technology for Language Teaching class. I have revised and made the paper my own. This paper is a literature review on telecollaboration for the development of intercultural competence (ICC). Research is presented on cultural benefits of telecollaboration, task design, possible difficulties, and ways to overcome those difficulties. To conclude I provide a potential telecollaborative teaching plan.

I decided to write this paper because of how passionate I am about study abroad programs. I have always believed it was important that language students be in a situation where they must speak the language. Conversing with a native speaker helps students gain much higher proficiency. Unfortunately study abroad programs are often expensive and intimidating to a lot of students. When I learned about telecollaboration in the Technology for Language Teaching class, I realized that not only would the students be able to communicate with native speakers, but telecollaboration could be a bridge that would help many more students be open to studying abroad.

After writing this artifact I realized that while telecollaboration projects require a lot of preparation and coordination, they can open doors to innovative pedagogic practices. When I presented on the subject of telecollaboration at the Utah Foreign Language Association Conference, an audience member told me about her school's current telecollaborative project in which she had the students give their international partners a tour of the school using video conferencing technology. I am so impressed by the ways that intercultural experiences can be shared and intercultural relationships can be built through telecollaboration. I believe that this practice can change perspectives and build connections across nations.

Abstract

In this paper I review literature on using telecollaboration to raise learners' intercultural competence (ICC). I start with defining key terms related to the field such as telecollaboration, culture, and ICC. This is followed by the cultural benefits of telecollaboration which go beyond gaining knowledge about the target culture (C2) to raising learners' ICC. I then highlight the crucial role that teachers have in coordinating and monitoring telecollaborative projects and elaborate on task-design strategies they may adopt. The next section is an explanation of common challenges that occur during telecollaboration, how to avoid them, and how these challenges can be seen as learning opportunities. I end my paper with a description of a suggested teaching plan that can be adapted for various target languages (L2s).

Key words: culture, computer-mediated communication (CMC,) intercultural competence (ICC,) computer assisted language learning (CALL,) tandem learning, telecollaboration

Introduction

The majority of research on computer-mediated communication (CMC) (e.g., Abrams, 2011; Ducate & Lomicka, 2008; Hampel & Hauck, 2006; Lee, 2008; Youngs, Ducate, & Arnold, 2011) shows how CMC can be used in the classroom to foster language acquisition. The basis for this approach is Long's *interaction hypothesis* which states that learners acquire language as they receive feedback from interlocutors during interaction (Long, 1996). While communicating with more advanced speakers, learners receive negative evidence such as a request for clarification which alerts them to their mistakes (Long, 1996). Research shows that CMC can provide learners with frequent opportunities to negotiate

meaning as they receive authentic feedback from fluent speakers (Lord & Lomicka, 2014).

Due to these linguistic benefits research has been carried out on the use of CMC tasks in the language classroom with a focus on linguistic gains; however, sometimes the potential of learning culture while using CMC is ignored or downplayed (O'Dowd & Ware, 2009). Yet teaching the target language culture or *C2* (Scott & Huntington, 2002) has become an indisputable requirement in the language classroom. The updated World-Readiness Standards for Foreign Language Learning (NSFLEP, 2015) are standards that establish the foundation of foreign language teaching and require learners to have an understanding of practices, products, and perspectives of the C2 (standards 2.1 and 2.2) (NSFLEP, 2015). They also state that learners should be able to compare the C2 to their own culture (standard 4.2) (NSFLEP, 2015).

Several studies support the use of CMC to teach culture (e.g., Belz, 2002; Clouet, 2013; Müller-Hartmann, 2007; Thorne, 2006; Young, Ducate, & Arnold, 2011), an approach that Thorne refers to as Internet-mediated Intercultural Foreign Language Education (ICFLE). Thorne explains that ICFLE not only enhances learners' linguistic development but also increases their knowledge of pragmatics in the target language and cultural sensitivity, as the process usually includes "extended, productive, and ultimately meaningful intercultural dialogue" (Thorne, 2006, p. 3). In ICFLE learners communicate with fluent speakers of the target language with the aim of raising their cultural awareness. Thorne outlines various methods for using ICFLE in the classroom. An effective, yet under-used, application of ICFLE is telecollaboration, a method that emphasizes the use of class-to-class interaction within an institutionalized setting (Belz, 2003).

In this paper I explore telecollaboration as an effective way to use CMC to teach

intercultural competence in the foreign language classroom. I begin by defining key terms such as culture, intercultural competence, tandem learning, telecollaboration, failed communication, and missed communication. This is followed by the main cultural benefits of telecollaborative exchanges. Then I provide research-based recommendations on the types of telecollaborative tasks teachers can utilize and an effective order in which they can be carried out. Next an explanation is given of factors that lead to challenges in telecollaboration, how they can be avoided, and benefits that can be derived from challenges that do occur. I conclude with a suggested telecollaborative teaching plan which implements the previous sections' content.

Defining Concepts

Culture

Defining culture is not an easy task; Parker (2011) states that "we may not be able to define it, but we know it when we see it" (p. 147). For the purposes of this paper, I base my definition of culture on Moran (2001), a scholar who defines culture based on the people who are a part of that culture and aspects of their lives. He specifically describes components that are included in the National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project (1996). These components include products (clothing, tools, music, family, education, etc.); practices (language, communication in social situations, and self-expression); perspectives (perceptions, beliefs, values, and attitudes); communities that represent groups of people which carry out cultural practices; and, a person's dimensions (race, gender, age, etc.). Foreign language teachers are expected to design tasks that use these aspects of culture to increase students' knowledge of the C2 (NSFLEP, 2015).

Intercultural Competence (ICC)

It is important that students learn not only cultural facts, but develop intercultural competence (ICC) in the L2 classroom. According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages issued by the European Council (Velescu, 2011), ICC is "the ability to establish a relationship between the native culture and a foreign culture" and "the capacity to recognize and use varied strategies in order to establish contact with people from another culture" (p. 286). ICC enables a person to handle situations where cultural misunderstanding may occur (O'Dowd, 2007).

Byram's model of ICC (1996) also includes five specific dimensions: "skills [to] interpret and relate", "skills [to] discover and/or interact", "knowledge", "attitudes", and "education" (p. 34). Both Byram (1996) and O'Dowd (2007) emphasize the complex and time-intensive process involved in helping students develop ICC. The dimensions of ICC can be developed particularly through student-to-student interactions. Students learn about culture by sharing their cultural knowledge with each other (LoCastro, 2012).

Tandem Learning

Tandem learning, a method which precedes telecollaboration, indicates pairing students with speakers of the target language through synchronous or asynchronous communication (Kabata & Edasawa, 2011). Thorne (2006) explains that tandem learning enhances learners' autonomy, promotes risk-taking and creativity, and provides opportunities for negotiation of meaning; however, tandem learning may include some challenges. For example, it is difficult to find partners who are fluent speakers. If fluent speakers are found, they are often not committed to the classroom activities and do not have the required background for dealing with L2 speakers. As a result, the partners do not correct significant

errors, and, even if they correct them, they are not able to explain their corrections (Thorne, 2006). That is why I recommend the model that Thorne introduces for *telecollaborative* learning.

Telecollaboration

Belz defines telecollaboration in the language classroom as "internationally-dispersed learners in parallel language classes using Internet communication tools such as e-mail, synchronous chat, and threaded discussion, (as well as other forms of electronically mediated communication), in order to support social interaction, dialogue, debate, and intercultural exchange" (Belz, 2003, p. 2). What distinguishes telecollaboration from other approaches of ICFLE is its "institutionalized settings" or the support provided from the educational institution (O'Dowd, 2013; Thorne, 2006, p. 7). Even though telecollaboration has potential challenges (O'Dowd & Ritter, 2006), it is recommended because it is usually well-structured, supported, and commitment is almost guaranteed by partners (Thorne, 2006).

O'Dowd (2013) explains that telecollaboration should be done through collaborative *tasks* and project work" (p. 1, emphasis added). Telecollaborative syllabi are usually designed around a sequence of *tasks*. The term task refers to a classroom activity or exercise that provides a mechanism for interaction between learners (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001). Tasks are usually meaning exchange activities, a language learning activity that requires comprehension and/or production of the target language (Ballman, et al., 2001). O'Dowd and Ware (2009) explain that a task should be meaning-centered, accommodate the communicative needs of the learners, and be "related to the real world" (p. 174). These characteristics of tasks are central to telecollaboration and its goal of helping students develop ICC.

Cultural Benefits of Telecollaborative Exchanges

Research supports the use of telecollaboration in the language classroom to gain

ICC and other potential cultural benefits. Table 2 outlines the benefits of telecollaboration

and provides research that supports those benefits.

Table 2 *Cultural Benefits of Telecollaboration*

Promotes the development of cultural awareness as partners use dialogue to compare the two cultures and exchange reactions	(Belz, 2002; Guth & Helm, 2011; O'Dowd, 2007; Thorne, 2006)
Helps students develop ICC	(O'Dowd, 2007; Schenker, 2012; Ware & Kramsch, 2005)
Uses online tools to assist students in acquiring knowledge about cultural behaviors, beliefs, and concepts	(Liaw, 2006; O'Dowd & Ware, 2009; Vinagre, 2005)
Teaches students to recognize differences between interaction styles and pragmatics in order to communicate effectively with the C2	(Chun, 2010; Liu, Liu, Lee, & Magjuka, 2010)
Increases desire for cultural learning	(Gonglewski, Meloni, & Brant, 2001)

These benefits include the development of cultural awareness, ICC, knowledge of

behaviors, beliefs, and concepts, pragmatics skills, and a desire for cultural learning.

These benefits are contingent upon teachers' dedication to structuring, monitoring, and

assessing the telecollaborative project (Müller-Hartmann, 2007; O'Dowd & Ware, 2009).

The Teachers' Role in Telecollaboration

New technology in the classroom indicates new roles for language teachers. Müller-Hartmann (2007) says, "technology did not replace the teacher, but put him in the middle of designing the new learning environment" (p. 168). In telecollaborative classes, in addition to the pedagogical role, teachers are assigned social, managerial, and technical roles (Müller-Hartmann, 2007).

The telecollaborative teacher has a variety of responsibilities. Apart from technical skills, (which are outside the scope of this paper), Müller-Hartmann explains that in order to raise learners' ICC, teachers should provide factual information about the C2 and help learners understand and analyze correspondence from the partner class. This includes understanding the values that the C2 attributes to certain products and key practices. Specific procedures also must be established for the telecollaborative class. For example, intensive coordination between both teachers is required in order to align the syllabi between the two classes (Thorne, 2006). Teachers should also be qualified to prepare learners for the potential cultural challenges. Belz (2003) explains that "the teacher in telecollaboration must be educated to discern, identify, explain, and model culturally contingent patterns of interaction" (p. 92). Teachers must be prepared to demonstrate these abilities before the project begins.

Apart from these requirements the telecollaborative teacher must know how to design and carry out an effective task sequence and assess the results. In this next section of the paper, I will focus on three basic areas of telecollaborative task management: how teachers design tasks (O'Dowd & Ware, 2009), structure the task sequence (Belz, 2003; Müller-Hartmann, 2007; Thorne, 2006), and assess learners (Clouet, 2013; O'Dowd, 2010).

Designing Tasks for the Telecollaborative Classroom

O'Dowd and Ware (2009) provide the general foundation for designing a task that aims at developing students' ICC. They say that "tasks need to take into account a wide range of 'non-linguistic' aspects such as sociocultural knowledge, intercultural awareness, and intercultural skills, and an ability to learn and study [these] skills" (p. 175). Furthermore, they state that in order to maximize the benefits of telecollaborative tasks, tasks should be meaning-centered; in other words, they should serve a communication need, and they should be related to the real world.

O'Dowd and Ware (2009) highlight three basic types of tasks: exchange of information, comparison, and collaboration. In the first type of task, learners are involved in an *exchange-of-information* process. Exchange of information tasks can be used as an introductory phase for a sequence of tasks within a syllabus. For example, students can exchange information about themselves and their family as a form of rapport building (Thorne, 2006).

However, exchange of information tasks can delve deeper. For example, learners can write cultural biographies about their partners. Learners can also hold virtual interviews about specific cultural themes which can raise their ICC through examining their attitudes about cultural practices and developing communication skills (Byram, 1997). According to Vinagre (2005), students involved in information-exchange tasks through sustained efforts over time gain a firm knowledge of the C2.

The second type of task introduced by O'Dowd and Ware (2009) is a comparison and analysis task. An example of a comparison task is analyzing parallel texts. Learners compare two texts with parallel themes such as two stories from different cultures that focus on

unrequited love (Belz, 2002; Thorne, 2006). Another is a comparison questionnaire, such as in the *Cultura* project (Cultura Exchanges Site, 2014), in which students fill out questionnaires in their L1 and compare their results with foreign peers (Guth & Helm, 2011). Other comparison tasks have included analyzing cultural products or translating a text (O'Dowd & Ware, 2009).

The third and final type of task is a *collaborative task* (O'Dowd and Ware 2009). In collaborative tasks learners are required to work with their international partners in order to create a shared product, such as a document, web page, presentation, cultural adaptation, etc. (O'Dowd & Ware, 2009). Students can also create an individual project based on the prior collaboration they have done with their partner. An example of such a project is taking a traditional play from Spain and adapting it according to the cultural values of the United States.

Müller-Hartmann (2007) explains the importance of following a task sequence in order to maximize the benefits of telecollaboration. He provides a general framework for developing such a task sequence. This framework begins with establishing contact, which he calls the "getting-to-know phase" (p. 173). In this phase students participate in information-exchange tasks in order to build rapport and facilitate communication. The second phase is discussion and analysis of a cultural aspect/product. The third phase involves discussion of and reflection on the task. Similar formats are suggested by Thorne (2006) and Belz (2002).

Assessment of Telecollaborative Tasks

Clouet (2013) explains that assessing ICC is a challenging task. One can more easily assess knowledge and skills, but it is difficult to assess attitude and awareness. Clouet explains, "when assessing ICC, one cannot be concerned with traditional grades, but rather

with creative techniques to determine progress towards the development of competencies and with the use of both quantitative and qualitative approaches" (p. 152). Clouet suggests the use of the four or five point Likert scale in order to evaluate these seven dimensions of ICC: "display of respect, interaction posture, orientation to knowledge, empathy, self-oriented role behavior, interaction management, and tolerance for ambiguity" (p. 154). O'Dowd (2010) explains that teachers should detect if learners are expressing their ideas thoughtfully and responding to their partner with both cultural sensitivity and awareness of the practices and attitudes of the C2. This information can be used in designing rubrics to evaluate various tasks in a telecollaborative project; however, scholars such as Clouet (2013) and O'Dowd (2010) indicate there is still room for research in assessment of telecollaborative tasks.

Dealing with Challenges of Telecollaboration

Teachers who plan telecollaborative exchanges need to be aware that these exchanges involve inevitable challenges. Researchers use different terms to refer to these challenges. For example, O'Dowd and Ritter (2006) coined the term "failed communication" (FC). They explain FC as "telecollaborative interaction which ends in low levels of participation, indifference, tension between participants, or negative evaluation of the partner group or their culture" (O'Dowd & Ritter, 2006, p. 624).

When telecollaborative exchanges experience FC, students can experience negative consequences such as the reinforcement of stereotypes (O'Dowd & Ritter, 2006). When teachers design the elements of a telecollaborative project, they need to anticipate potential challenges by being aware of factors that contribute to FC. Once teachers understand these factors, they can use them to predict possible conflicts with the C2, particularly in teacher-to-teacher interaction and student-to student-interaction. If teachers evaluate such contributing

factors and anticipate resulting conflicts, they can avoid many potential challenges; however, certain inevitable instances of FC can still positively affect the ICC of students. As long as the teacher provides scaffolding, or "teaching that […] supports […] construction of knowledge by the learner […] and […] future independent learning" (Holton & Clarke, 2004), students can develop ICC through experiences with FC.

Factors that Could Contribute to Conflict

Many factors need to be borne in mind when engaging in a telecollaborative exchange. Before potential telecollaborative conflicts with the C2 classroom can be addressed, teachers first should promote awareness of the C1. This starts by learning about factors related to the "self", both for teachers and for their students. Teachers should evaluate their own ICC (O'Dowd, 2011), professional commitments, prior experience with electronic tools, time constraints, and their teaching philosophy (Belz & Müller-Hartmann, 2003; O'Dowd, 2013). When teachers are aware of their habits and preferences, they will be better able to see how these might pose a conflict with the partner teacher and his/her respective habits and preferences.

Teachers also must help their students examine personal factors that may influence their ICC such as "motivations and expectations" for the exchange (O'Dowd & Ritter, 2006, p. 630), "psychobiological and educational background" (O'Dowd & Ritter, 2006, p. 628), experience with electronics/electronic medium of preference (Roggenkamp, 2009), etc. Before the exchange begins teachers can give out a survey to students with questions regarding these topics. Then they can analyze the surveys and find overlying themes which can serve as the basis for in-class discussion topics before the project commences. Such discussions promote student awareness of their own cultural and social conditions (Ware,

2005).

Potential Conflicts and Conflict Resolution

As teachers determine factors of the C1 that might affect an exchange, the next task is to anticipate how these factors might clash with the C2. The previously outlined cultural factors of a teacher's classroom contribute to FC when they clash with other teachers, students, and their corresponding social and institutional environment (Ware, 2005).

Conflicts between cultures in teacher-to-teacher relationships often include professional commitments and the academic calendar. In planning one exchange between a German and a North American classroom, the instructors did not anticipate their differences in schedule and were unable to respond to each other's emails in time (Belz & Müller-Hartmann, 2003). As a result, many "specific student tasks were [left] somewhat under defined even several weeks" into the semester (Belz & Müller-Hartmann, 2003, p. 76). Such a lack of communication at the beginning of the exchange can decrease the effectiveness of the entire project.

Conflicts between teachers also arise due to institutional factors such as assessment or education goals (O'Dowd, 2013). One instructor remarks that, due to a lack of awareness of cultural assessment differences, she unintentionally tried to move the project "toward American ideas about student workloads and [...] assessment" (Belz & Müller-Hartmann, 2003, p. 79). Additionally, partner teachers often neglect to be open about and merge their different educational goals (O'Dowd & Ritter, 2006). These issues can be avoided as instructors work together with their institution to ensure that sufficient time is allotted for telecollaborative planning (O'Dowd, 2013) and creating "reliable and steady partnerships" (O'Dowd, 2013, p. 50).

Teachers must be aware of potential conflict between students of the C1 and C2 and what preventative scaffolding is required. Conflict can occur if motivation in one classroom varies from the partner classroom due to a difference in grading systems (some students being motivated only by grades, others by developing personal connections). Other challenges arise because of the novelty (or lack thereof) of telecollaborative technology (Ware, 2005), political tension between countries (O'Dowd & Ritter, 2006), and institutional requirements (O'Dowd, 2011). To anticipate these challenges, teachers can discuss possible problems with students before the exchange by showing them excerpts of prior exchanges, including examples of FC. Once the exchange has begun they can also go over the students' correspondences with them before they send them to discover potential misinterpretations or prejudices (O'Dowd & Ritter, 2006).

Another potential challenge related to student-to-student relationships is task design. Students may interact less with each other when they are frustrated by the topic choices, the technology/lack of preferred technological mediums, and the lack of feedback given (O'Dowd, 2011). Other students prefer to have time to build the relationship before answering questions about culture (O'Dowd & Ritter, 2006). If they feel they are not given that time, they are less satisfied with the exchange. Teachers can address these issues by handing out "pre-exchange questionnaires" so that students can indicate their preferences on topics, technology, etc. (O'Dowd & Ritter, 2006, p. 631).

Deriving Benefits from Telecollaborative Challenges

Teachers can prevent many unnecessary difficulties by addressing factors that contribute to conflict; yet, preventative measures must be made with the knowledge that problems will most likely still occur. Teachers should seek to prevent such "missed

communication", but it can be made instructive and useful when it does occur (Ware, 2005, p. 76). They can provide the scaffolding necessary so that such break-downs in communication actually serve as a "'jump-off' point" for the mutual development of ICC (O'Dowd, 2011, p. 352). Studies show that intercultural awareness of both students and teachers increases as they reflect on difficulties in exchanges (O'Dowd, 2011; Roggenkamp, 2009; Ware, 2005). As teachers both seek to prevent communicative break-downs and utilize those that do occur to develop students' ICC, students will more likely be motivated to participate in future telecollaborative endeavors.

Example of a Telecollaborative Teaching Plan

Researchers have provided sample teaching plans that teachers can follow to structure telecollaborative exchanges. O'Dowd and Ware (2009) recommend that educators follow a sequence of tasks in order to maximize the benefits of telecollaboration. The use of a combination of tasks exposes students to different aspects of ICC. Belz (2002) proposes a four- phase syllabus. Phase one begins with an information-exchange task, an activity in which learners prepare a collection of "biographical sketches and university information" (p. 63) to share with their telecollaborative partners. In the first phase students also read *parallel texts.* Parallel texts are "linguistically different renditions of a particular story or topic; crucially, they are not literal translations of the same text, since it is the culturally-conditioned varying representations ... of a single story or topic that are at issue as a prompt for intercultural learning" (Belz, 2002, p. 63). Reading parallel texts prepares students for the phases that follow.

Phase two, three, and four, as outlined by Belz (2002), consist of a comparison and analysis task, a production task, and then a final discussion task. In phase two the

transnational pairs discuss the parallel texts they have read through email. In phase three learners are asked to write a bilingual essay about a cultural theme from the text such as family, racism, etc. Finally phase four includes group discussions about the benefits that learners achieved during the project for self-assessment purposes, as well as for research.

Thorne (2006) proposes a similar structure but without the last phase (phase four), ending with a three-phase syllabus. In phase one learners exchange introduction letters and/or links and images about their home country. Learners then read a set of parallel texts. Thorne emphasizes the role of the teacher to elaborate the cultural themes in the texts. In order to maintain an informative discussion, learners should keep a reading journal in which they record their questions and insights for the discussion (Thorne, 2006). Phase three is similar to Belz's; learners collaborate in order to create a website/blog in which they post written reactions in the L1 or L2.

I recommend that teachers use an adaption of Thorne's and Belz's models in designing a telecollaborative task sequence with the use of parallel texts. The syllabus I recommend consists of three phases. Teachers coordinate to find a partner class in another institution within the L2 community. Once the telecollaborative project begins, teachers ask learners to write biographical emails about themselves, their university campus, and their hometown. They encourage students to support this information with pictures, hyperlinks, and multimedia. In addition, the teachers assign learners a set of parallel texts to read. For example, Thorne (2006) proposes the use of Cinderella and Aschenputtel in a German/English telecollaborative project. Teachers can also use movies that treat the same theme from a different cultural perspective.

In phase two teachers assign discussion groups with transnational partners. Students

are required to ask their partners previously planned questions that reveal the differences between the cultures. For example, *how does the major character in text X view his/her family? How is that different from the character in text Y?* Teachers then have students report to them on the discussion such as through writing a blog entry. In the final phase teachers assign partnerships to work collaboratively to write an essay using both the L1 and L2 about a previously discussed cultural theme. One such way this is accomplished is requiring students to write the rough draft in one language and the final draft in the other language.

Further Research and Conclusion

Telecollaboration enables students to establish contact with members of the C2 and learn to communicate interculturally. As teachers who plan telecollaborative exchanges follow the three phases of telecollaborative task design, students will have the potential to be exposed to more of the benefits of ICC development. When teachers scaffold the process carefully to avoid unnecessary friction, this ICC development will be further enhanced and the full benefits of telecollaboration may be realized. The ICC these students develop may serve as a springboard for better relationships between people of different L1 backgrounds.

While this paper reviews important research on the cultural benefits of telecollaboration and effective ways to implement a telecollaborative project, additional research is needed; particularly, regarding more recent web technologies and the additional benefits/ challenges they bring for teachers and students. More studies should be done to find the best blend of synchronous and asynchronous technologies for telecollaborative exchanges. Assessment of telecollaborative projects also requires further research because of the difficulty in grading students' ICC. As further research is conducted, the practice of telecollaboration will be fine-tuned and more widely used in foreign language classrooms.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHIES

INTRODUCTION

This section contains annotated bibliographies which demonstrate my progress in learning about the four teaching roles of my teaching philosophy: architect, general contractor, project manager, and reflective practitioner. These papers show my research on the Self-Assessment of Teaching Statement, the role of the L1 in biliteracy instruction, and the Communicative Language Teaching approach. For each book or article, I write the main points of the article and how that information has informed my beliefs about language learning and teaching.

COMMUNITATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

On my first day in the MSLT program, I was introduced to the communicative language teaching approach (CLT). This approach woke me up to the fact that I didn't have a firm theory to back up my teaching. Though I had written teaching philosophy statements before, they were based more on techniques than on a unifying theory. My journey to find such a theory started and ended with CLT, but only after I explored many other theories and picked up extra techniques along the way.

I learned the basics of CLT from *The Communicative Classroom* by **Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, and Mandell (2001)**. I discovered that in a CLT lesson students participate in task-based activities (TBA), i.e., meaning-focused activities mirrored after real life and rooted in a communicative goal (O'Dowd and Ware, 2009). An example of a TBA I use is when my students do a role play of making a hotel reservation in Spanish. Such TBAs have a step-by-step preparation process for completing the final task, including three main components: being "learner centered", requiring a "meaningful exchange of information", and the completion of a task that represents "the information shared and gathered" (Ballman et al., 2001, p. 76-77). During these activities, teachers give feedback based on whether or not the student communicated their intended message, rather than the grammatical accuracy.

Such focus on meaning instead of form doesn't eliminate the need for grammatical instruction, however. Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, and Mandell emphasize that grammar should be taught in "support of communication", teaching only the grammatical *tools* needed to achieve the communicative goal (2001, p. 32-33). This perspective on grammar instruction struck me as the perfect blend of grammatical instruction and communicative application.

Finally, Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, and Mandell also touch on the importance of teaching in the target language (L2). Though this concept was new to me, it seemed common sense that when I didn't speak in the L2, I was "depriving" students' growing language system of necessary food (Ballman et al., 2001, p. 63). Although many instructors teach in English for what they feel are legitimate reasons, the book reveals that these teachers are sending a message to students that the first language (L1) is the most important language (Ballman et al., 2001).

I chose to read *Making Communicative Language Teaching Happen,* a text by **Lee and Van Patten (2003),** as a complement to *The Communicative Classroom.* This book gives an in- depth review of the history of second language teaching, second language acquisition (SLA) research, and how the CLT approach was founded.

The main concept I gained from Lee and VanPatten was that SLA research is the foundation for effective CLT. SLA is basically the way our brain learns languages. SLA involves the gradual construction of an "implicit" language system by way of comprehensible input, communication, negotiation of meaning, and passing through "stages of development" (Lee & VanPatten, 2003, p. 16). When my students make particular errors, it is a sign they are passing through one of these stages of learning the language (Shrum & Glisan, 2010). As a teacher I can facilitate acquisition by providing comprehensible input such as visuals to clarify the meaning of something I say in the second language (L2) (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). I can also design activities that promote negotiation of meaning, i.e., cause students to "listen, speak up, repeat, rephrase, and maybe even show each other information that they have written down, to get a message across" (Brandl, 2008, p. 190). Most importantly, I can be selective with feedback, accepting errors as part of the acquisition

process and choosing to correct students only when errors interfere with meaning.

Once I had read these two texts, I felt I had found the golden ticket to language teaching; however, each subsequent text began to raise more questions. First, chapter two of **Shrum and Glisan's** *Teacher's Handbook: Contextualized Language Instruction* **(2010)** emphasized sociocultural theory as an alternative theory to CLT.

In Shrum and Glisan's (2010) review of different language learning theories, they consider CLT to be a "cognitive" method and sociocultural theory to be a "collaborative" or social method (Shrum & Glisan, 2010, p. 23). Based on what I knew about sociocultural theory, I did not see them as being different enough to be put in separate categories; both emphasize students completing tasks with guidance from teachers that is tailored to their needs (Shrum & Glisan, 2010).

I was particularly confused when I read that Shrum and Glisan perceive CLT learning as an "individual" process, while sociocultural theorists believe that learning occurs through "interaction and collaboration" (Shrum & Glisan, 2010, p. 27). I doubted this claim as I had spent all of my class time learning collaborative activities that are typical of CLT. I finally decided that sociocultural theory fit together so well with CLT that in my mind they could be blended together and all conflicts would be resolved. I was convinced they were just different ways of describing the same theoretical principles.

While I was temporarily satisfied with the idea of sociocultural theory being a different way of describing CLT, I was taken aback when I discovered **Scott's (2010)** *Double Talk: Deconstructing Monolingualism in Classroom Second Language Learning.* This book primarily discusses the concept of monolingualism as being a myth, argues for L1 use in the L2 classroom, and advocates a more text-based communicative approach (Scott, 2010).

This book turned my world upside down, as Scott suggests that teachers "must allow" students "to use [...] [the L1] in the classroom" and points out holes in the *excessive* target language use of CLT (Scott, 2010, p. 27). She emphasizes that learners must develop an identity in the space between their L1 and L2 (Scott, 2010). Additionally, she claims that the idea of "communicative competence" has been diminished "to its spoken modality" and authentic text analysis needs to be included more in CLT (Scott, 2010, p. 130). While I saw no specific problem with incorporating more texts in my language teaching, I had never considered that CLT wasn't emphasizing literacy sufficiently. I was also nervous about allowing English in my classroom when I had just barely discovered CLT's emphasis on L2 use.

After my idealistic perception of CLT had been altered, I decided to research L1 use in foreign language education and text-based CLT and see if I could reach some conclusions. To address Scott's proposal to use the L1 as a vehicle for learning the L2, I read the article "First and Second Language Knowledge in the Classroom" by **Horst, White, and Bell (2010).** Horst et al. defend the claim that "learners will benefit from activities that draw their attention to features of their L1" (Horst, White, & Bell, 2010, p. 332).

Horst, White, and Bell present a study about an English teacher who incorporates grammatical and cultural connections between English and the L1 (in this case, French) and sees an increase in students' motivation and understanding of linguistic content (Horst, White, & Bell, 2010). Such connections include comparisons of pronunciation, literature, syntax, etc. (Horst et al., 2010). The article claims that making such connections to prior knowledge is "the hallmark of effective teaching", –and making connections and comparisons is part of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

(ACTFL) World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages (NSFLEP, 2014);–yet, this

essential practice is usually considered "detrimental" in the "second language classroom"

because it includes the L1 (Horst et al., 2010, p. 347). However, the English teacher claims

that students did not use the L1 comparisons as an excuse to switch to French "when not

permitted" (Horst et al., 2010, p. 344).

My reaction to this article was mixed. I, like "other teachers", didn't know if I was

"comfortable" allowing extra L1 use in my classroom (Horst, White, & Bell, 2010, p. 344).

Though Scott (2010) and Horst, White, and Bell (2010) talk about setting firm limits on

English use, I was worried that my students would push the limits until speaking Spanish in

my classroom became the exception instead of the rule. However, the emphasis put on finding

connections between the L1 and L2 did strike a chord, as I remembered the positive

experience I had comparing my L1 to my L2 as both student and instructor. I also noted that

such comparisons are made in CLT frequently, but the teacher remains in the L2 while

pointing them out.

Coming away with more questions than answers, I continued my research of Scott's

claims by examining her point on text analysis through an article entitled "Input Enhancement

and EFL Learners' Acquisition" by **Ahranjani and Shadi (2012)**. This article discusses the

benefit of input enhancement through "underlining, bolding, or highlighting the intended

forms" (Ahranjani & Shadi, 2012, p. 96). Particularly the study of "collocations", i.e., word

groups or phrases, is more effective and accurate than typical grammar instruction that "only

provides the most general rules of the language" (Ahranjani & Shadi, 2012, p. 98). While

results vary on how effective such enhancement is (Ahranjani & Shadi, 2012), I agree that

looking for grammatical patterns among different language examples could be much more

beneficial than learning generalized grammar rules that have numerous exceptions.

The position that Ahranjani and Shadi pose is not at all in opposition to Scott's, who also claims that "teaching grammar must avoid [...] a focus on learning to use prescribed grammar rules" (Scott, 2010, p. 132). Yet it also does not contradict the CLT approach that has more recently advocated a focus on form, including using text enhancement to teach grammar (Scott, 2010; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993). In fact, I began to wonder if Scott's advocacy for more text-based instruction was not against CLT as a whole, but rather the CLT teachers who emphasize spoken input to the neglect of text-based input. Perhaps some CLT teachers, in response to a lack of oral proficiency, had taken it to an extreme.

Resolved to use an equal balance of spoken and written communication in my classroom, I again focused my attention on L1 use. In **Crouse's (2012)** "Going for 90% Plus: How to Stay in the Target Language," I was presented with a typical CLT viewpoint, but one that emphasizes individual perspectives from teachers and gives hints on using "90% plus" L2 instruction (Crouse, 2012, p. 24).

While this article favors L2 use, it also says that there are times when it isn't plausible to use the L2 (Crouse, 2012). Thus the article recommends arranging everything—classroom setup, desks, pictures, comprehensible input, etc.--to support speaking the L2 as much as possible. Duncan suggests that teachers reflect on why a student would choose to speak the L1 and take measures to prevent that (Crouse, 2012). Shager also notes that "if students don't know what's going on they will keep asking questions in English until they understand" (Crouse, 2012, p. 25). These perspectives helped me realize that the teachers' efforts to support students' L2 use might affect the target language goal more than a lack of willingness on the students' part.

An additional point of interest in Crouse's article is that many teachers are still not teaching in the L2 although the "90% plus" recommendation was given in 2010 (Crouse, 2012, p. 23). I agreed with this observation because to the present I almost never see secondary education teachers instruct 90% of class time in the L2. However, Scott and many others who are not completely in favor of CLT seem to talk as if this method has already been implemented and that language teachers need to scale back (Scott, 2010). I realized that a lot of the concerns against CLT are against an extreme that rarely occurs in classrooms today. Now I think that language instruction in general must move forward in L2 use before researchers advocate to scale back.

While my concerns about CLT were starting to dissipate, I decided to read more about the variety of language teaching theories that exist. I thought if I broadened my perspective I could make a more informed decision; consequently, I decided to review *Teaching Language in Context* by **Hadley (2001).** I focused particularly on chapters two and three in their review of "Theoretical Perspectives" and "Principles and Priorities in Methodology" (Hadley, 2001).

In chapter two of Hadley (2001), I read about empiricist and rationalist perspectives and learned briefly about where the major theories (such as the sociolinguistic theory) fall on this scale. While empiricists focus on "stimulus response" psychology (Hadley, 2001, p. 55), rationalists claim that we have an inherent biological ability to learn languages (Hadley, 2001). These two perspectives helped me become familiar with the foundation for the variety of theories that exist today. I discovered that "new" theories are often recycled versions of prior theories, and they always fall within one of these two overarching perspectives.

In chapter three I learned ACTFL's definition of proficiency and where the various

theories and approaches fall in terms of this definition. Of particular interest was the section on

the communicative language approach. Hadley mentioned that CLT, "like any other

instruction oriented towards proficiency goals, is not bound to a particular methodology or

curricular design, but represents a flexible approach to teaching that is responsive to learner

needs and preferences" (Hadley, 2001, p. 118). This helped me understand that while CLT has

fixed principles, its utility lies in its flexibility. CLT instructors have the liberty to try different

techniques and see how they measure up to CLT principles.

In relation to the flexibility of CLT, Hadley emphasizes that many who create theories

are in search of "one true way" of teaching; however, in reality we are continuously learning

and gaining insights from many different theories (Hadley, 2001, p. 86). She cites

McLaughlin to add that "given the relatively early stage of the development of knowledge in

the field of second-language acquisition, it seems premature to argue for the 'truth' of one

theory or another" (as cited in Hadley, 2001, p. 52). These perspectives helped me realize

that although CLT is firmly based in current SLA research, it still is flexible enough to adapt

to new ideas. One example of this is how CLT teachers frequently use TPR (which is its own

approach) as a strategy within CLT.

At the end of my journey, I can confidently claim CLT as the foundational approach

that guides my teaching. Though its flexibility might mean that another teacher's application

of this approach will vary considerably from my own, I consider that a point in favor of

CLT. I have discovered that any approach that hopes to be beneficial to all language

students must provide space for new research and individual adaptation. I also know that

reading literature in opposition to CLT can end up inspiring me to more genuinely practice

the CLT principles that I advocate. CLT affords teachers the liberty to evaluate new possible

techniques, see if the techniques measure up to CLT principles, and then add them to their

acquisition building "tool belt".

THE SELF ASSESSMENT OF TEACHING STATEMENT

In education, classroom observations are recognized as a key element in teacher development (Dinkelman, 2003; Topping, 2009). Yet a lot of observations end up being less effective than desired due to a lack of structure, objectivity, and specificity in observation feedback (Barber, 1990). Additionally, many teachers aren't required to actively participate in their own assessment (Kearney, 2013). These practices may have contributed to observation becoming less about helping teachers improve and more about judging teachers' performance (Kearney, 2013; Sheal, 1989).

In order to put the focus back on teacher development, Spicer-Escalante (2015) has developed the Self-Assessment of Teaching Statement (SATS) observational approach. As my professor she has had my fellow graduate students and me follow this protocol of self-assessment and peer assessment. First the teacher who is going to be observed sends the lesson plan, lesson materials, and relevant classroom information to the observer. Then while the observer views the class, another person video records the class. After the class the teacher observes the video of the lesson and takes self-evaluative notes. Finally, he or she reads the observer's notes and writes a reflective paper based on the two perspectives.

Because this system has been quite helpful for my teaching development, I wanted to do further research on observation and its challenges, what benefits the SATS approach brings, and what else researchers recommend that might be added to the SATS protocol. My research has led me to see the benefits of the SATS approach, particularly the benefits of the pre-observation meeting.

At the core of self-assessment is the practice of self-reflection. To explore the meaning of self-reflection, I first read **Bengstsson (2006)**, *What is Reflection? On reflection in the*

teaching profession and teacher education. Bengstsson explains that there are many types of reflection, and all share the purpose of bringing "enlightenment" and declaring "the teachers' maturity so that they can act independently" (p. 25). This helped me realize why observation and self-reflection are key components of any teacher preparation program. Teachers need help to become independent enough to manage their own classrooms, and this happens through being observed, reflecting on that observation, and adjusting performance accordingly.

Bengtsson also defines reflection as an active process of pondering something in order to gain a deeper understanding of it. Some teachers only think about their own practice, while others compare themselves to all teachers, educational theory, and research. Basically they compare themselves to a *super* teacher who is the sum of all research and teaching standards (p. 27). Bengtsson instead emphasizes that teachers should compare themselves both to their own classroom performance and also analyze how that performance compares to how the super teacher might perform. This helped me realized that holding oneself to the standard of perfection is not realistic, but it is important for teachers to view where they are, both according to their personal best and according to current educational standards for teachers.

Bengtsson points out that reflection requires teachers to distance themselves sufficiently from their lessons in order to have a more accurate perspective of their classroom practices. While teachers have a natural distance from other teachers' classroom practice, it is difficult for them to distance themselves from their own classroom sufficiently to understand what they do and why they do it. I have noticed this as I have observed my teaching videos and discovered teaching habits that I didn't even know I had. Getting an outside opinion has

helped me distance myself from my practice and obtain a more complete perspective of my teaching. Reflection enables teachers to learn about what they do, "take a position" on their instructional methods, and even teach others about their "own teaching" (p. 31).

After defining self-reflection, I wanted to focus on the benefits and drawbacks of self- assessment through observation. I started by reading **Kearney (2013)** *Improving engagement: the use of 'Authentic self- and peer- assessment for learning' to enhance the student learning experience*. Kearney shares the benefits of students doing self- and peer assessment, which I was able to apply to teacher observation and assessment. He emphasizes that one of the main benefits of self- and peer assessment through observation is becoming a life-long learner. This includes preparing teachers for the global workforce by emphasizing the importance of them being able to collaborate and make changes. As I read this article I realized that the combination of self-assessment and peer observation requires teachers to see their teaching from another perspective, recognize a need for change, compromise, adjust, and develop an attitude of continual learning and improvement.

Teachers who do a combination of self-and peer assessment must be more heavily involved in the evaluation of their teaching. Kearney notes that "[i]n traditional forms of assessment, control rests with the lecturer; self- and peer- assessment instead focuses upon the learning experience" (p. 878). This quote resonated with me as I have always thought that the person who does the most work is the person who learns the most. Similar to Kearney's points about students, if teacher assessment is completely in the hands of the observer, the observer is the one who will learn. As teachers take an active role in analyzing their performance—as they view a video of their teaching, take notes, review the notes of the

observer, and write a reflection—they will learn and improve.

Kearney mentions additional benefits associated with peer and self-assessment. These include "autonomy, metacognition, and critical thinking" (p. 878). Such benefits seemed obvious to me as self-assessment requires teachers to think deeply about what went well and what could have been more effective in a teaching experience. The more teachers are taught and guided to engage in this form of self-assessment, the more they will do so naturally and independently from day to day, unit to unit, and year to year.

Kearney's article helped me begin to understand the role that peer assessment can have in self-assessment. In order to further research factors related to peer and self-assessment, I read **Brown and Crumpler's (2013)** article *Assessment of foreign language teachers: A model for shifting evaluation toward growth and learning*. This article focuses on the difficulties that many teachers face when they are observed only by administrators who have little experience with teachers' specific content areas.

Brown and Crumpler note that teachers are given more accurate feedback when they are observed by peers who understand the methodology and content of the lesson. In the field of foreign language education, teachers spend a lot of classroom time teaching in the foreign language; consequently, administrators who cannot speak this language are unable to effectively evaluate all aspects of the lesson.

Brown and Crumpler also emphasize that observations should be done for the purpose of teacher development and not just for high-stakes evaluation. If teachers believe their job is on the line based on their performance in one lesson, this will not help teachers develop and rarely will lead to an accurate sample of their teaching. I remember feeling similar pressure in anticipation of my student teaching evaluations that caused extreme amounts of stress

during the observations. Finally, Brown and Crumpler emphasize that a single observation is not sufficient evidence to effectively evaluate teachers.

After reading Brown and Crumpler's article, I realized that if observations are not done properly, they can have negative consequences. In order to learn about other possible pitfalls that can occur with peer and self-assessment, I researched articles that highlight such pitfalls. I found one article from **Sheal (1989)** entitled *Classroom observation: Training the observers.*

Like Brown and Crumpler (2013), Sheal claims that key problems related to peer and self-assessment often have to do with evaluators. Frequently evaluators chosen are administrators who lack training in observation, experience in teaching, and even knowledge of what effective teaching looks like. They also lack the time to dedicate to detailed observation and evaluation. Often the reason for the observation is to evaluate teachers in terms of promotion or other purposes apart from teacher development. This puts the teachers on guard, feeling threatened or judged. I agree that this type of environment is the least ideal for observation; teachers will not perform at their best under that kind of stress, or when they feel the observation won't be accurate, as the evaluator is not considered an expert.

Many observers also don't know how to take effective observation notes. Sheal points out that observers tend to make general, subjective comments about the class. Because they are not basing their comments on consistent standards, they are inconsistent with ratings. Their evaluations are based more on intuition and feelings than on standards and evidence. I have experienced this in the past while being observed. As I read the observer's notes, I felt that some of the comments, positive or negative, were far too vague to help me improve my teaching.

Sheal states that such subjective, evaluative comments are particularly useless if based only upon the beliefs of the observer—without ever meeting and discussing the lesson with the teacher. Often the observer and the teacher have not discussed each other's teaching philosophies or, sometimes, haven't even met. When this is the case, if the observer comments on an aspect of teaching that is not related to the goals of the teacher being observed, he/she may be inclined to ignore it and focus on comments that are most pertinent to his/her teaching goals. This is particularly the case for student teachers who are so overwhelmed that they may not be able to focus on minute details because they are trying to perfect the basics.

To focus on problems that occur between peers during peer evaluation, I read **Sengupta (1998)** *Peer evaluation: I am not the teacher*. This article is based on students doing peer assessments in a secondary classroom, but it can be applied to some of the problems that are faced in peer and self- assessment for teachers.

One of the main issues Sengupta noted in student peer evaluation was a lack of trust between students and their peers. The students would often ignore the peer comments, but they would be willing to make a change if the teacher suggested it. They preferred to be evaluated by an expert. I think teachers sometimes have the same issues with their evaluators. They think that because peer evaluators are at the same level as them that those evaluators don't have much that they can teach them. Observers might also not be teachers in the same field such as a German teacher observing a Spanish class. Teachers might therefore assume that the evaluator doesn't understand their field well enough to give any suggestions for improvement.

Sengupta notes that another problem with peer observation is when students feel

incapable of evaluating their peers. This causes them to be embarrassed or not take the assignment seriously. I think that this can also happen with teacher observers. If they have not been trained to observe or, at least, have been given a model, they don't understand the format their comments should be in or what the teacher expects. They might hesitate to be too specific or make too many comments because they don't know what is the norm, and they don't want to appear over-critical. Such insights from this article helped me understand that observation is difficult for all ages and requires training to be effective.

After reviewing the problems that occur with observations, I decided to look for articles to show how the SATS approach (Spicer-Escalante, 2015) might avoid some of the problems previously mentioned. One article I found that supports the SATS approach well was **Dochy, Segers, and Sluijsmans (1999)** *The Use of Self-, Peer and Co-assessment in Higher Education: A review.*

Dochy, Segers, and Sluijsmans first describe the problems associated with peer and self- assessment and then show how those problems can be avoided "by combining peer assessment with self-assessment or co-assessment" (p. 340). As I read the article I recognized that their concept of co-assessment was similar to the SATS approach. Co-assessment is beneficial because it is less time-consuming for evaluators, requiring the teacher to play the most significant role in the assessment. This leads to further growth on the teachers' part as they assess themselves and compare their thoughts to the observer's assessment.

Dochy, Segers, and Sluijsmans also utilize other elements during observation similar to the SATS approach. They recommend video recording the lesson being observed, viewing it, and then doing goal setting and reflection. They also suggest that the observer provide specific feedback that is applicable to the classroom. These procedures are much like the

SATS protocol. The flexibility in the type of feedback teachers can give in the SATS observation form, such as when they respond to the prompt, "what would you do differently if you were teaching this lesson", leads to more specific, objective feedback that teachers can try out in their classroom.

After reading each of these articles, it was apparent that the SATS system was based on firm research and is an effective method of self-assessment and peer assessment; however, I was determined to know if any additional components could be implemented that, if added, would result in increased teacher reflection and development. I particularly wondered how the pre- observation meeting, an essential part of the SATS protocol, could be utilized in different ways. I read a few more articles on self-assessment and observation and found **Topping (2009)** *Peer assessment.*

Topping recommends that observers meet with teachers before the observation. They use this meeting to discuss goals for the lesson and decide on assessment criteria. The teacher being observed should have sufficient say in assessment criteria to "feel a sense of ownership and decrease any anxiety" (p. 7). While reading this, I realized that individualized assessment criteria fits well within the SATS approach. The evaluation form gives space for the observer to write what they liked and what they would do differently, as well as additional comments. As these categories are open-ended and flexible, teachers and observers can work together to choose specific areas of teaching on which to focus. This way, the comments will be more relevant for the teacher.

The observer and the teacher should also be prepared sufficiently for their roles in the observation. Orientation to the role of observer can be done through role playing, showing a model evaluation sheet, etc. This helps observers know how to write comments that are

objective, specific, applicable, and standards-based. Topping also recommends that observers be given a brief checklist that reminds them of these key points. I realized after reading that a pre-observation meeting that includes general preparation for observers who are new to SATS observations would make the observations even more effective. This preparation could prevent about an hour of observation time being wasted because the resultant feedback is too general or otherwise inapplicable to the classroom.

Several other articles discussed the importance of a pre-observation meeting. In *Intended and unintended consequences: Purposes and Effects of Teacher Evaluation,* **Natriello (1990)** emphasizes the importance of teachers knowing what they are going to be assessed on during observations. Teachers prefer concrete standards to be used; otherwise, they might think that the comments are based on favoritism rather than teaching abilities. Natriello also states that teachers feel that they have more job security when the standards are clear. From this article I learned that the pre-observation meeting can be used to discuss and determine the teaching standards that will serve as the foundation for the observation.

Natriello also points out that teachers want observers to provide clear, informative feedback, including resources that can help them apply it. Teachers don't want a value judgment on their teaching; they want help on how to improve. They also want realistic feedback, not criticism over things they cannot control. Yet my experience with being observed has shown that observers are inclined to this sort of criticism when they are untrained, don't know the context of the classroom, or don't know the teachers' goals for either those students or their teaching. This is why observer training during the pre-observational meeting is particularly essential to help them write effective feedback. As I read this part of the article, I could see observer feedback functioning ideally as a teaching

resource that outlines new strategies for the teacher in detail.

As a result of my readings, I discovered that Spicer-Escalante's SATS system is an effective method through which teachers can utilize peer observation in conjunction with self- assessment to refine their teaching skills. Teachers can add to this system's effectiveness by using the pre-observation meeting to discuss which teaching standards will be the focus of the observation and to learn principles of writing observation feedback. As teachers assess and are assessed in this manner, the stress of observations will begin to diminish because teachers will see how SATS observations benefit both them and their students. Teacher development will become less about sitting through meetings and more about hands-on ways to improve lesson plans and teaching methods. And, most importantly, teachers worldwide will be more competent and confident in their teaching methods.

L1 USE IN THE IMMERSION CLASSROOM

When I learned about the communicative language teaching method (CLT) I learned about this method's emphasis on spending the majority of instruction in the target language (or the language being taught, the L2.) Teaching in the target language was very different from how my teachers taught me Spanish in school (which was done primarily in my first language or L1, English,) but when I began thinking about it, CLT made much more sense. If Spanish students, for example, are not hearing Spanish, the teachers are basically "starving their language system" (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001, p. 63).

When I began to study Dual Language Immersion (DLI) education, I was further impressed by the emphasis on having ample exposure to both target languages. DLI is a form of education in which all academic instruction is divided between two languages (Christian, 2011); thus, students need to receive sufficient input in both languages in order to develop the ABCs of DLI: Academic Achievement, Bilingualism/Biliteracy, and Cultural Competence (Spicer- Escalante, Wade, & Leite, 2015). Such exposure can be difficult to achieve in situations where one of the languages is a majority language (like English is in the United States), and students are consequently exposed more to that language, particularly outside of school.

Due to the power imbalance in the United States between English (the majority language) and other languages (minority languages), many DLI programs follow strict language separation policies (i.e., in the Spanish classroom no English is spoken, and vice versa.) Teachers may do this to prevent students from developing inadequate levels of oral proficiency and literacy in the minority language.

These separation policies sparked my interest and led me to question whether

completely prohibiting the use of the majority language (which I refer to as English, as is the case in the U.S.) is helpful or harmful to students' language acquisition, particularly in biliteracy development. In this Annotated Bibliography I present key research on teacher-directed L1 use in the DLI context and how it may help or hinder biliteracy.

Teacher-Directed L1 Use

I started by researching the general ways teachers use the L1 in regular foreign-language classrooms before digging into teacher-directed L1 use in DLI. I began my investigation by reviewing research on L1 use in Foreign Language Education (FLE). While I recognized that the goals of FLE were different than DLI, I still saw value in comparing research on teacher-directed L1 use in FLE to the DLI context. One of several articles I read is "L1 Use in the L2 Classroom: One Teacher's Evaluation", by **Edstrom (2006).**

Edstrom first reviews literature on L1 use by teachers in the FL classroom. She then presents a study of her L1 use in the classroom by recording, transcribing, and analyzing her instances of L1 use while teaching and the motivation behind them. She finds that the three main motivators for her L1 use are to build relationships, to teach about culture, and to deal with fatigue. Edstrom points out that this self-reflective research demonstrates a need for more guidelines for teachers on L1 use than just a percentage of how much the teacher should use the L1. Such numerical guidelines for L1 use seem to imply that all use of the L1 is either "equally justifiable" or all is equally unjustifiable (p. 282). She instead advocates that teachers should be reflective and "judicious" in their use of the L1 (Swain & Lapkin, 2000).

I related to Edstrom's argument but thought that her motivations for L1 use were not substantiated sufficiently by language learning research and would not be permitted in the DLI context. As I read Edstrom's article, I also noticed that she didn't mention using

Cross Linguistic Analysis (CLA)–one of the main ways I use the L1 in FLE (and a technique I have observed as a volunteer in the DLI setting). Upon searching for information on CLA, I found chapter five of *Teaching for biliteracy: Strengthening bridges between languages* by **Beeman and Urow (2013)**, which demonstrates what CLA is and how it is used in the classroom.

Beeman and Urow show that the reasoning behind CLA is that when students are able to link prior knowledge to new knowledge, they learn more easily (Beeman & Urow, 2013). Teachers who use CLA explicitly help students make connections (both grammatical and cultural) between the L2 and L1. Such connections include similarities and differences in pronunciation, discourse styles, literature, syntax, cognates, "different linguistic registers", etc. (Beeman & Urow, 2013, p. 86). Beeman and Urow emphasize that the teacher should continue *speaking* in the L2 while making these comparisons (such as writing them on the board in the L1) (Beeman & Urow, 2013).

As I read this article I was reminded of similar experiences as a volunteer in a DLI classroom. I often observed my teacher say things such as *"es como inglés"* (it's like English) when comparing linguistic features. As students recognized similarities and differences, they were able to use their background knowledge in English to continue building their Spanish proficiency. While other forms of CLA exist in DLI, the Utah DLI teachers I have observed go no further than to make comparisons to English forms while always speaking the target language.

While CLA is a commonly accepted form of teacher-directed L1 use in DLI, I knew there were other, more L1-intensive approaches that were less accepted. To explore these further, I began by viewing a YouTube video recording of several presentations from the Center for

Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA) conference entitled Immersion 2012: Bridging Contexts for a Multilingual World. The conference speakers present information on the various sides of the debate on L1 use in immersion education. **Ballinger (2012)**, for example, particularly focused on the role of code-switching in her presentation "The case for using the majority language in two-way immersion".

In this conference many speakers bring up points about code-switching, which is "a highly skilled [...] activity in which both L1 and L2 are used simultaneously, including intrasentential and intersentential switches" (Lewis et al., 2012, p. 657). Ballinger's presentation shows that students and teachers who code-switch go back and forth between the L1 and L2 during class time. She points out that some DLI teachers use planned code-switching for tasks such as explaining meaning, clarifying grammatical concepts, organizing tasks, disciplining students, and developing teacher-student relationships (Ballinger, 2012). Teachers might also allow students to code-switch during collaborative tasks. Making a comment at the end of Ballinger's presentation, Merrill Swain adds that teachers who code-switch should use a purposeful amount of the L1 that they can justify afterwards (Ballinger, 2012).

While I listened to these presentations, I couldn't believe that DLI teachers were allowing code-switching in their classrooms. This was a far cry from the strict language separation that I was accustomed to in Utah DLI schools; however, as I continued my research and realized how intentional code-switching is, I was very impressed. I particularly found it useful that some teachers in the DLI program allow code-switching during group activities. These students have the opportunity to process and plan as needed in the majority language, and then they apply that planning to complete a task in the minority language.

Researchers suggest that if students are allowed to process and brainstorm in the L1 and then finish the task in the L2, they outperform those who use only the L2 for the task (Ballinger, 2012).

I decided to continue to investigate what I considered to be the more extreme forms of teacher-directed L1 use and, upon advice from my professor, began researching *translanguaging* (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012). The article that particularly increased my understanding of translanguaging versus other teacher-directed L1 use was "Translanguaging: Developing its Conceptualization and Contextualization" by **Lewis, Jones, and Baker (2012).**

This article goes through the main types of teacher-directed L1 use and compares them to translanguaging in an effort to clarify the difference. I learned that translanguaging includes all prior forms of L1 use and goes "beyond" (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012, p. 656). Translanguaging does not have clear limits. It can include CLA, translation, code-switching, and more. Supporters of translanguaging believe that constant language switching motivates students, maximizes their understanding and performance, and is a part of full bilingual functioning (Lewis et al., 2012).

Studying this article not only opened my eyes to the practice of translanguaging but also taught me four main types of L1 use in DLI: CLA, translation, code-switching, and translanguaging. I also realized that all of these types of teacher- directed L1 use fall somewhere between language separation and language integration, as neither 100% language separation nor 100% integration are possible (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012). Those who support language separation try to keep the languages as separate as possible, while those who support language integration believe that people learn new languages better when they can use

both their native language and second language as tools.

Teacher-directed L1 Use and Biliteracy

Once I felt I had a grasp on the types of teacher-directed L1 use in DLI, I wanted to see how they applied specifically to developing biliteracy, a skill which is a main goal of DLI (Spicer-Escalante, Wade, & Leite, 2015). I started by reviewing articles on biliteracy in order to determine the main areas of development necessary to become biliterate. I thought it would be useful to have these established beforehand so that I could compare forms of teacher-directed L1 use in biliteracy instruction. One article I found particularly informative was "Promoting Language and Literacy in Young Dual Language Learners: Research, Practice, and Policy" by **Castro, Páez, Dickinson, and Frede (2011).**

This article provides ample research on the basics of biliteracy development. I found this article particularly fascinating because I haven't had much experience teaching literacy. The article first emphasizes the importance of developing oral proficiency as a precursor to being able to read and write. Other areas of biliteracy development include "sound-symbol awareness", "sociocultural variables", "grammatical knowledge", "phonological and phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and text comprehension" (Castro, Páez, Dickinson, & Frede, 2011, p. 16). The article recommends using the L1 strategically to achieve proficiency in each of these categories, but it doesn't specify how. I felt confident that more specific research on the forms of teacher-directed L1 use would help me discover how each form can be used for biliteracy instruction.

After studying these key areas of focus in biliteracy development, I began researching how CLA, translation, code-switching, and translanguaging have been used to help students develop these areas. In one of the first articles I read, "Initial Literacy Instruction in Dual

Language Programs: Sequential or Simultaneous?", **Beeman and Urow (n.d.),** discuss the use of CLA principles to promote biliteracy.

Beeman and Urow (n.d.) begin by stating that the way biliteracy is developed must be approached differently than teaching literacy in one language; consequently, they advocate a simultaneous approach instead of a sequential approach. I learned that simultaneous instruction happens when students are taught literacy in the two languages at the same time, while sequential instruction is when students are taught one language and then are later introduced to the other. Beeman and Urow promote simultaneous instruction so that students are able to use all of their "linguistic resources to interact with their bilingual environments" (n.d., p. 1). In fact they assert that sequential literacy is impossible for bilinguals.

Beeman and Urow specifically encourage cross-linguistic transfer as part of simultaneous biliteracy instruction (Beeman & Urow, n.d.). Such *bridging* (or CLA) includes explicitly teaching similarities and differences between the languages such as "cognates, grammatical structure, reading skills", etc. (Beeman & Urow, n.d., p. 3). This section made sense to me as I always naturally have found these connections during my literacy development in Spanish. I realized how much more helpful it would have been to be taught literacy in a simultaneous manner. I would have gained insights from Spanish to apply to my English and vice versa.

While Beeman and Urow recommend making connections between languages, they make a point of not using the L1 further during L2 instruction in order to avoid "interference from English" and its dominance (Beeman & Urow, n.d., p. 2). This perspective may be part of the separatist mentality. To understand a more integrationist approach, I read several

articles on translation and biliteracy, including "Rethinking monolingual instructional strategies in multilingual classrooms" by **Cummins (2007).**

In this article Cummins touches on myths regarding language learning in the DLI context, particularly the push against using translation (2007). He explains that many avoid translation due to the association with the grammar-translation method, or with the concurrent translation method, which "utilized immediate translation across languages, with the result that students 'tuned out' their weaker language and consequently learned very little of that language" (Cummins, 2007, p. 222).

However, Cummins cites Manyak (2004) to argue that using translation to develop biliteracy in DLI stimulates English acquisition and "promotes identities of competence" (as cited in Cummins, 2007, p. 228). He explains that as students are able to demonstrate their translation skills to help their peers comprehend texts, they receive positive attention. As a result, their sense of self and the perceived value of bilingualism and biliteracy in the classroom is raised (Cummins, 2007). He specifically shares results from a research study done in which three students were able to write a "bilingual Urdu-English book entitled The New Country" (Cummins, 2007, p. 235). These students used their translation skills to write the first draft in English and then translated it to their native Urdu. The study showed that the students acquired better skills in both languages and expressed themselves "in ways that few L2 learners experience" (Cummins, 2007, p. 235).

To continue my research on teacher-directed L1 use to promote biliteracy, I started reading articles about code-switching. This was more of a challenge as biliteracy instruction that includes either translation, code-switching, or translanguaging is often executed in a similar manner; at least the literature does not often specifically highlight the differences.

However, in the article "The evolving sociopolitical context of immersion education in Canada: Some implications for program development", **Swain and Lapkin (2005)** offer insights on how code-switching is used for biliteracy instruction.

Swain and Lapkin focus on the use of the L1 to aid cognitive functions (2005), such as having the students brainstorm in the L1 before doing reading and writing activities in the L2. They emphasize that such *languaging* (using the L1 and L2 as tools for the cognitive process) is natural (Swain & Lapkin, 2005). When students are able to process input in both of their languages, their writing and reading products are of higher quality (Swain & Lapkin, 2005). Swain and Lapkin give an example of a "dual-language book project", similar to the project done in the article by Cummins. Rather than focusing on translation, however, they focus on how students develop and shape their writing through brainstorming in both languages.

After reading Swain and Lapkin's article, I was confused once again about the difference between the methods of teacher-directed L1 use in the language classroom. I understood that translation is different than code-switching, but I wondered how code-switching and translanguaging differed in terms of their effect on biliteracy instruction. I knew that code- switching had more limits, as Swain recommends doing it "judiciously" (Swain, 2012), but this wasn't enough for me to be able to differentiate between the methods in practice. I chose to read "Translanguaging: A review of flexible language use on students' learning of additional languages" by **Gunnarson (n.d.)** to find answers to these concerns.

Gunnarson's presentation helped me better understand the differences between code-switching and translanguaging and how these are reflected in biliteracy instruction. Gunnarson quotes García and Wei to make a key point in the definition of translanguaging:

"Translanguaging differs from the notion of code-switching in that it refers not simply to a shift or a shuttle between two languages, but to the speakers' construction and use of original and complex interrelated discursive practices that cannot be easily assigned to one or another traditional definition of language, but that make up the speakers' complete language repertoire" (García & Wei, 2014, pp. 22).

This quote emphasizes that when students translanguage, the two languages are more integrated. The classroom is considered a safe space for students to translanguage; thus, students feel free to use all the multilingual literacy resources available to them, including using "multilingual books" and "multilingual [...] dictionaries", "brainstorming on the board using different languages", and having "bilingual writing partners" (Gunnarson, n.d.). Gunnarson also mentions writing exercises in which students tailor their writing for a bilingual audience (Gunnarson, n.d.). Such methods, which may be unheard of or considered detrimental in other classrooms, are welcomed in a translanguaging classroom.

Conclusion

After reading all of the articles, I have a more complete picture of how each practice of teacher-directed L1 use builds on the next. Translation can include CLA, while code-switching can include both translation and CLA, etc. Those who support translanguaing consider their students as having the most tools available to them, but those who have a more separatist view may see those tools as crutches.

In order to determine whether an approach to teacher-directed L1 use is an effective tool or just a crutch will require more specific research. This research needs to include longitudinal studies to determine the long-term language proficiency of students after being taught with the different approaches. For example, while languaging might help students be

successful in a single classroom activity, this achievement is not necessarily linked to long-term communication skills. Students can memorize and appear proficient during one activity, but their actual proficiency will be revealed in time. It may be only through extensive research that we can make a ruling on which approach to L1 use is the most efficient for biliteracy in the DLI context.

LOOKING FORWARD

The highlight of my master's program was the opportunity to be a graduate instructor for Spanish 1010 and 1020 classes at Utah State University. Through this experience I have realized how much I enjoy teaching adults, and I plan to apply for jobs that will enable me to teach at a university or community college; however, I have my secondary teaching license, so I also may decide to teach adolescents again someday. I want to keep my options open by always maintaining a current secondary teaching license. After gaining more teaching experience, I plan on pursuing a doctorate in a Spanish-related field. I also hope to spend more time living in a Spanish-speaking country someday, as my experience in Spain was so positive.

No matter what direction my career takes me, I am very grateful for all I have learned in the MSLT program. What I have gained is far too valuable not to share, and I plan on teaching language in some capacity for the rest of my life.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
First observation Oct. 15, 2015:

Objective of the first class: Students can demonstrate comprehension of the story/comic by answering and asking information gap comprehension questions in partners.

What the observer liked (Translated to English):

- It's obvious that you have prepared the lesson.

- I like the way you get the student's attention doing fun gestures, circling the class.

- I like how you do games with them and use the smart board. They really like that.

What the observer would have done differently (Translated to English):

- When you are going to do an activity with this age you have to guide and show them through pictures and signaling what you want to do.

- You need to correct it [the activity] slowly and watch that all the students have corrected it.

- It's good if they all read the story so they are more attentive. Each one reads a little piece.

- You have to try to get all of the students to participate in the class.

Recommendations to myself:

- Be more prepared with more images and comprehensible input.

- Use purposeful activities that will contribute to the objective.

- Learn more about the 2nd grade students and what they can and can't handle.

APPENDIX B
Second observation Nov. 11, 2015:

Objective of the second class: Students can draw a picture of their own pet or a pet they want. They then can introduce their pet to the class by presenting a picture of the pet and saying, "this is my pet (rabbit)."

What the observer liked (Translated to English):

- Well-rehearsed routines, adding little by little more vocabulary.

- Very good review of prior vocabulary, good images (they get students' attention.)

- Keeps students' attention well because images (PowerPoint) are beautiful and striking.

- When you want them to be quiet, you don't yell; instead, you become quiet and wait.

- Very good rotation throughout the classroom when they are working in the book.

What the observer would have done differently (Translated to English):

- You make sure most of the time that all of the students in the front table participate. Instead, you should have someone from each table participate, including the back tables.

- When they get excited and begin to talk a lot about the photos, you should get things quiet for a little bit before continuing to the next activity.

- A little too long looking at the photos on the smart board. They get a little tired of it (some, not all).

- Even if they are tired, maintain their attention when they are working in their books.

Recommendations to myself:

- I need a better way to get everyone participating.

- My voice should not hurt at the end of a lesson. Do I need a better quiet signal?

- I could have had them extend the activity further by taking the picture of the pet home to show their parents.

- I need to give more constructive feedback rather than just "good job".

APPENDIX C
Third observation Dec. 2, 2015:

Objective of the third class: Students can use their notes and pictures from the presentation on Christmas in the United States to give a presentation about traditions of Christmas in the United States to the group.

Things the teacher liked (Translated to English):

- The explanations so that the students understood the videos.

- Being silent so that students get quiet.

- Practicing correct pronunciation.

- Make them laugh and participate so that the class is more dynamic.

- Being aware of the students that don't keep up with the class.

What the teacher would do differently (Translated to English):

- When there is a day when the students talk a lot, I take away their work and we sit in silence doing nothing.

- I would have done a game, they are young, so that they learn the vocabulary.

- I would have taught a simple Christmas carol.

Recommendations to myself:

- I could help calm students down more at the beginning. I think that would help the students focus from the beginning.

- Make sure not to agree with incorrect answers.

- Manage the classroom better. Make sure students don't get too out of hand or riled up with the pronunciation chant.

- Establish clearer expectations for when and when not students should be attentive to me while doing group work.

- Need a cue to tell the students to stop drawing (pencils down and hands up?)

APPENDIX D

Benefits and of Observation

- Teachers say they learn most from "observer training and subsequent observations" (Flanders, 1970, p. 179).

- Teachers have to practice what they preach when being observed and become more accountable (Barber, 1990; Dinkelman, 2003; Topping, 2009).

- Teachers serve as observers so they are able to more accurately assess both their teaching and the teaching of others (Dochy, Segers, & Sluijsmans, 1999; Kearney, 2013).

- Teachers who are observed can distance themselves enough from their teaching to see their practice more clearly (Bengtsson, 1995).

- Teachers improver their practice (Dinkelman, 2003; Topping, 2009).

- Teachers learn about their own assumptions (Dinkelman, 2003).

- Teachers become life-long learners (Dochy et al., 1999; Kearney, 2013; Barber, 1990).

- Teachers become more autonomous and better critical thinkers (Kearney, 2013).

- Teachers both experienced and new get new ideas or "fresh approaches" (Sheal, 1989, p. 92).

APPENDIX E

Challenges of Observation

- Observers that are administrators often don't collaborate, make value judgments, are un-trained, are perceived as a threat, seem biased, don't focus on teacher development, don't specify the rating criteria, and seem not to value teachers' opinions (Dinkelman, 2003; Dochy, Segers, & Sluijsmans, 1999; Hill, Charalambous, & Kraft, 2012; Kearney, 2013).

- Teachers change their instruction temporarily to please the observer (Natriello, 1990).

- Teachers are not given the time to "reflect on their activities" (Okas, van der Schaaf, & Krull, 2014).

- Teachers and observers haven't been instructed sufficiently on how the observation system works (Hill et al., 2012).

- Teachers don't trust peer observers (Barber 1990; Sengupta, 1998).

- Teachers see "[i]nherent potential for self-incrimination if the results are used summatively" (Barber, 1990, p. 17)

- Observers tend to write comments that are overly critical, judgmental, subjective, shallow, and, sometimes, inaccurate (Barber, 1990; Sheal, 1989).

- Teachers are stressed during observations which doesn't lead to improvement (Natriello, 1990).

- It is hard for the observer to give honest feedback because teachers don't recognize their flaws (Barber, 1990).

- Observers are not reflective in their comments, they just cite literature or describe what has happened without any commentary (Gay & Kirkland, 2003)

APPENDIX F

The Benefits of DLI Programs

Benefits		Resources
Educational	Bilinguals have… • the same academic achievement as monolinguals, plus a language • high English proficiency • no gap in achievement for English language learners	• Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000; Fortune & Tedick, 2008 • Cloud et. al, 2000; Bhattacharjee, 2012 • Collier & Thomas, 2004
Cognitive	• skills in problem solving, critical thinking, creativity, ability to focus, and metalinguistic awareness • protection longer from disorders such as dementia	• Cloud et. al, 2000; Perry, 2008 • Bhattacharjee, 2012; Perry, 2008
Sociocultural	• the ability to interact in culturally appropriate ways, learn about different cultures, better understand own culture • the ability to develop friendships across cultures, and behave better in general in a classroom setting	• NSFLEP, 2015; Collier & Thomas, 2004 • Cloud et. al, 2000; Collier & Thomas, 2004
Economic	• the chance to earn 5% to 20% more than monolingual counterparts • an advantage in the workplace where 31% of executives speak two languages or more • better preparation for the global marketplace	• Morsch, 2009; Padilla, 2002 • Morsch, 2009 • Callahan & Gándara, 2015; Spicer-Escalante, Leite & Wade, 2015