Teaching Communication: Helping Students to Learn and to Love a New Language

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Introduction

This portfolio represents many hours spent in classrooms (as a student and as a teacher), in the library reading and writing, and spent in quiet contemplation. My views on teaching languages and on education in general have grown and changed. What a tragedy it would be to pass through a graduate program and not to have one’s views evolve and grow. Most importantly, this portfolio represents that growth and the ideal that, as an educator and as a human being, time on this earth ought to be spent growing, learning, and striving for something better.

The bulk of this portfolio is reserved for a statement of my teaching philosophy and three articles that I have written demonstrating knowledge in several areas of teaching and the body of research on second language acquisition. In my teaching philosophy I outline views anchored in the research and guided principally by my support for communicative language teaching as a model for second language instruction. However, in my research I have come to see that there is value in a variety of perspectives on teaching and learning. I explore this theme more fully in the culture artifact and in my annotated bibliography.

To the reader, I extend to you an invitation to grow with me as you read and, crucially, to allow your changing thoughts and perspectives to manifest themselves in your teaching, whether in or outside the classroom.
Teaching Philosophy
Apprenticeship of Observation

“Those who can, do, and those who can’t, teach.” I’ve heard this phrase a number of times since I began my road as an educator. I would say that to teach requires not only being able to “do,” but true mastery. On the road to mastery one must take countless steps of learning. I am still on my journey, but I have taken many steps along the road already.

My beginnings in language learning were unremarkable. There was a language component to my 7th grade curriculum. In my early teens a teacher gave me my introduction to Spanish, a language that I would not begin to learn in earnest until I was nearly twenty. My only remembrance of those early Spanish classes is of vocabulary lessons based on simple groups of everyday items. I learned how to say pantalones, naranja, and some numbers. I decided then that language courses had no part in my education and were nothing but a waste of my time.

Such is the power of a first experience in language learning. Because no one showed me otherwise, I determined that learning a foreign language wasn’t valuable, and despite the recommendations of my high school counselors, I graduated without any further foreign language experience.

I know now that part of teaching is salesmanship. I have spent over three years in the insurance industry as an agent, as a salesman. Among the many skills involved in making a sale is the ability to paint a pleasing picture. A salesman must paint a picture that shows his clients why a particular product fills a need or benefits their life. Not only that, but a salesman must convince clients why a particular product is more worthy of their time or their money than dozens or even hundreds of other potential options for that same time or money. A language teacher must sell the language to his students,
particularly to beginning learners. A teacher might try to do this by explaining the growing trend of globalization, benefits to be had in the job market, and the fact that many institutions of higher learning require some language study. However, to a teenager most of this will not be felt, will not reach him or her, nearly as much as showing them that languages can be enjoyable to speak, can be exciting to learn about through culture and people, and can be a key to a new world of discovery and understanding.

Not long after completing high school, I began to learn Spanish in preparation for a two-year term of service with Spanish-speaking congregations of my church. In my church such service is voluntary but the placement of volunteers is made according to the needs of different areas of the U.S. and other parts of the world. I was assigned to learn Spanish and was sent to a language-learning center in Provo, Utah. There I began a serious study of the Spanish language, spending many hours in classes, personal and group study, and role-playing. There I gained my foundation and acquired some of the tools that would help me in my efforts to learn the language.

Early on I began to read extensively in Spanish, partly due to my natural affinity for books and partly at the urging of instructors. I believe that reading and writing should play a role in any successful language-learning course. When students become competent readers they have access to unlimited examples of how the language is used in any number of situations. Writing allows students to practice expressing themselves in a well-thought-out and precise manner. Reading and writing have helped me to cement Spanish language patterns in my mind and to overcome errors that I make while speaking. I was also taught and have benefitted greatly from the practice of reading aloud. Through reading aloud I have come to develop an accent that is closer to an authentic Spanish
speaker’s than I would have been able to achieve otherwise. Reading aloud allows the language learner to develop self-confidence and to truly listen to his or her own production. Thus, he or she is able to experiment and make adjustments that are usually not possible in the course of dialogue with another speaker. This practice helped created an important link for me between the skills of speaking and reading.

Because I spent the majority of my time among Spanish speakers for those two years of my service to my church, I have a good sense of what it is to be out of one’s element with regard to language. From that experience I have determined that the most important element of language learning is to overcome, as we say in Spanish, *la vergüenza*, or shame and fear. A successful language teacher must create an environment in which students are able to overcome their fear of making mistakes, of sounding stupid, and of trying. Students must learn to respect one another in order to create that environment and also to develop the language-learning attitude that making mistakes, while trying, is a critical part of learning any language. I was able to make real progress in learning Spanish and begin to really communicate only after I had accepted these truths.

I learned Spanish by spending time with teachers, with text books, and by reading material in Spanish and, most importantly, by spending time practicing the spoken language in a wide variety of situations. This experience speaking the language has taught me that, to the extent possible, a classroom should mirror that kind of experience. I believe that explicit grammar instruction, verb conjugation practice, and work book materials helpful and important parts in learning a language but that they should be used in supporting a methodology based on oral communication.
When I returned to my university studies, I promptly enrolled in Spanish classes. My classes in Spanish grammar and in Spanish and Latin American history and literature prepared me for the culminating experience of my journey thus far as a language learner: teaching Spanish to others in the classroom. I spent nearly three months teaching Spanish III to a group of about thirty-five students in a high school. Students read, wrote, and read aloud, but they spent most of their time talking to each other. The students wrote short plays and performed them. They role-played making appointments with their dentist, they applied for jobs, they asked and answered questions, and described people and places. I came away from this experience with an understanding of the crucial role that oral evaluation plays in the language-learning classroom.

I have learned much on my road of language learning both as a student and instructor. I will continue on that road with the goal of becoming a master teacher, incorporating all that I know and all that I learn along the way. True teaching is an art that can result in the creation of masterpieces in the form of human lives. As I develop my knowledge-base and skills as a teacher, I hope to be able to help my students as they journey on their road and be a force in shaping their lives for the better.
Professional Environment

My view of education and the appeal that it holds for me are rooted in the finishing and polishing of young minds. I intend to work with students at the secondary level, particularly in a high school setting in the United States. High school students have the cognitive maturity to pursue the beginnings of a deep understanding of language. These students are able to grasp big ideas and make, at times, surprisingly astute observations about the world around them. However, these same students are still forming their worldviews and shaping their perceptions of who they are and who they want to become. This view of adolescents was brought into clarity for me as I completed a student teaching program at a local high school.

I intend to teach Spanish as a second language and become qualified to teach English as a second language within the high school system. I am also highly interested in teaching English as a foreign language abroad and teaching in a dual immersion Spanish/English program in the United States. I have had experience in each of these settings and believe that the principles of language teaching found in this portfolio are applicable in each case.
Personal Teaching Philosophy

In considering my personal teaching philosophy for second languages, I have found inspiration in current trends in public health. Today the United States and many other developed nations are faced with a health epidemic that is becoming increasingly widespread, particularly among the rising generation: obesity. “More than one-third of U.S. adults (35.7%) and approximately 17% (or 12.5 million) of children and adolescents aged 2-19 years are obese” (Centers for Disease Control and prevention, 2012). Due in large part to a lack of proper nutrition, insufficient physical activity, and an underlying lack of motivation to pay attention to these factors in their lives, many people are suffering the effects of unhealthy body weight. In an effort to make changes in their health, some people look to personal trainers to help them meet their fitness goals. Among other things, personal trainers set goals with their clients about their nutrition and eating habits, increase their physical activity levels through well thought-out and planned exercise routines, and, importantly, give their clients the encouragement and support that they need to become and remain highly motivated as they work to achieve their fitness goals. Personal fitness is a long term goal that requires time and commitment.

Similarly, many people around the globe, and in the United States in particular, are suffering from another ailment, an aliment of the mind. This second epidemic is that of monolingualism. Happily, just as with the help of a personal trainer people are able to achieve exciting fitness goals, in the words of Katherine Sprang, “Monoligualism can be cured” (2006, p. 131). I am encouraged, for example, by the successes in dual-language immersion classes in Utah (Wade, 2012) and by more public awareness of the importance of language learning (Bhattacharjee, 2012).
As a longtime student of a second language, I am confident in people’s ability to learn languages and become effective communicators. I have been able to come to enjoy the thrill of communication with a high degree of proficiency in my second language, Spanish. As a highly motivated learner, I have been able to continue my language learning well beyond the classroom. I am the product of a learning process that has combined opportunities to read, speak, and write inside the classroom with opportunities to practice outside the classroom for many hours what I have learned.

From research and personal experience, I have adopted an approach that focuses on classroom communication in teaching second languages. The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach (Lee & VanPatten, 2003) is an attempt to approximate the learning experience that people have with their first language in the second language classroom. Reading, writing, and grammar are important aspects of language and will receive time in classroom instruction but the main goal of the communicative classroom is oral communication (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001; Lafford, 1987; Lee & VanPatten, 2003). Within the context of CLT, various aspects of the teacher’s role need to be considered. CLT focuses on the language “diet” of the students (the language input that they receive) and also on what the students do with the language. This crucial conceptual view is reflected in the food pyramid, which in 2005 was reconceived to include the important aspect of physical activity along with dietary guidelines (Disabled World, 2007). It is not enough to simply provide students with an appropriate diet, both in physical nutrition and in second language learning. A crucial aspect of being a second language instructor is taking care to plan and encourage thoughtful and meaningful language use.
A second language teacher can learn much by considering the case of the personal trainer. Just as a personal trainer is concerned with a client’s diet and nutrition, so too must second language teachers be concerned with the language diet that their students receive. As personal trainers design exercise routines to maximize their client’s time and effort in reaching their fitness goals, so too must a second language teacher carefully plan and prepare for instruction and activities. Lastly, as personal trainers play a key role in helping to motivate their clients to achieve their fitness goals, so too must second language teachers work to help motivate their students toward successful language learning.

The Language Diet:

The first topic that I would like to discuss is the language diet, the ways in which a student is exposed to the target language (TL). Classroom language teachers play a crucial role in assuring that students are exposed to the TL as much as possible and in ways that will help the students to learn.

In the communicative classroom the teacher takes on the role of language guide or classroom ‘architect’ (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001; Lee & Van Patten, 2003), and the chief source of comprehensible input or language that the students hear and are able to model after. In a communicative classroom the students have to assume responsibility for their learning through engaging actively in the communication activities that are prepared and modeled by the teacher and carried out by the students (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001).

Comprehensible input is an essential part of the process of second language acquisition (SLA) (Krashen, 1982; Krashen & Terrell, 2000). For SLA to occur a student
needs to have input through which to begin to make meaning of the second language (L2). Krashen and Terrell (2000) assert that this understandable input is the most crucial element in SLA. In an L2 classroom, the teacher is the primary source of input, and for that reason it is imperative that the teacher speak in the TL as much as possible (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 2006).

An excellent way of helping to make input comprehensible (Krashen & Terrell, 2000) and useful to the students is to create connections where possible. A teacher can use pictures to introduce new words and help students make connections between the new word and the picture of that action or thing. Using pictures is a great way to teach vocabulary (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). In teaching vocabulary the teacher may also make connections to physical actions. For example, while teaching the word for ‘to run’ a teacher may have students imitate running in place. Input can also be made more comprehensible through the use of “body language, gestures and visual supports” (Crouse, 2012, p. 24). See also Krashen (1982).

Comprehensible input is crucial to the acquisition of the L2 (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001; Krashen, 1982; Krashen & Terrell, 2000; Lee & VanPatten, 2003). An important aspect of comprehensible input is that a variety of voices be represented in the input to which students are exposed. Students often have the frustrating experience of being able to understand their teacher, only to find in another situation with a different speaker that they are unable to understand what is being said. In today’s classroom this should not be the case as, through the use of technology, it is easier than ever before to present students with input from multiple voices.
Presenting multiple voices in a classroom can be accomplished through a variety of means. Teachers can make audio media an integral part of their classrooms and develop a library of pertinent sound files from native speakers. These files should represent, as much as possible, authentic uses of language. Shrum and Glisan (2010) define authentic texts as “those written and oral communications produced by members of a language and culture group for members of the same language and culture group” (p. 85). In other words, it is best where possible to allow students to hear the TL as it is used by speakers of that language for natural, or authentic, communicative purposes and situations.

The internet already has a wealth of authentic audio files with which to provide a variety of voices to students. For example, “Las emociones de Nico” (MisCositasTV, 2008) is a video of a young Spanish speaker demonstrating his emotions as he expresses in Spanish how he is feeling. Another example of an authentic linguistic resource is commercials in the TL (Briggs & Hatch, 2013). Commercials represent short, usable segments created for a specific target audience. Commercials are designed to be succinct and understandable language segments that are rooted in the target culture. I have only mentioned two examples, but there is a wealth of authentic language in digital media that can be brought into the classroom relatively easily, and with important and meaningful benefits. In a recent study (Silverman & Hines, 2009), it was found that the use of multimedia had a positive effect on vocabulary acquisition for English Language Learners (ELL) in a public school system in the United States. Multimedia tools also provide an excellent avenue through which teachers can give access to a wider world of
experiences to their students, and specifically, an authentic taste of the target culture. Great strides toward this aim can also be accomplished through the use of authentic texts.

When using authentic texts in the classroom, whether in print or multimedia formats, it is important to approach them in such a way as to make them accessible to students. Devitt (1997) suggests using a multilayered approach, engaging students with the text in several ways. For example, students are asked to work with individual words and sentences from the text, write their own work using elements from the authentic text, and later engage with the text as a whole. Many teachers worry about students not being able to understand authentic texts. Maxim (2002) reports that students in a beginning college language course were able to read a novel in the TL as part of their instruction and were able to score just as well on department exams as the control group who did not read the novel as part of their class. These students were able to attain similar results as their peers on exams, but they were also able to develop L2 reading strategies. Many language programs are providing their students a disservice by not giving authentic texts a greater emphasis. As I consider including authentic texts in my own classroom, Lee and VanPatten (2003) have provided the most illuminating advice “edit the task, not the text.” Instead of ‘dumbing down’ the authentic texts, instructors should provide supports and carefully evaluate the tasks that they ask students to engage in as they interact with those same texts.

Use of authentic texts can also help teachers avoid the pitfall of teaching culture as being homogenous and overly simplistic across wide groups of people that share the same language. Speaking on culture, Moll (2014) writes, “Rather than focus on cultural norms and how people live by these norms, we chose instead to focus on practices: how
people “live culturally,” to borrow a turn of phrase from Ingold (1994)” (p. 120). And, finishing Ingold’s (1994) thought, “It might be more realistic … to say that people live culturally rather than that they live in cultures” (p. 330). Rather than presenting culture as a set of standards imposed on a group from the outside, providing students with the opportunity to interact with authentic texts allows for students to learn about culture from those who live it, through their own words.

When considering the importance of using writing and reading skills in the language classroom as well as written materials for learning, it is important to consider the broader topic of literacy. Literacy is a critical educational issue currently in the United States (Carnegie Council on Advancing Adolescent Literacy, 2010; National Institute for Literacy, 2007; Torgesen et al., 2007). It is important for all teachers to be aware of issues related to the teaching of reading and encouraging reading within and without the classroom; for example: vocabulary instruction, decoding factual texts, and reading comprehension strategies. Within SLA, reading is an excellent source of input, particularly for learning vocabulary (Krashen, 1989). Today more than ever there is access to reading material in a variety of languages and about a variety of topics. “Nearly everyone in the language teaching profession agrees that reading is beneficial, even without research evidence. Yet, few first language and nearly no second or foreign language teaching programs do anything to encourage it” (Krashen, 1989, p. 454). Second language teachers should actively encourage reading through in-class activities and through providing resources and assignments that encourage and facilitate TL reading outside of the classroom.
Though the practice has yet to be directly approached in the research, I believe that oral reading can play an important part in providing not only input for developing students’ reading comprehension, but developing their listening comprehension and speaking skills as well. Hummel and French (2010) suggest using classroom activities that allow for use of the visual processing skills of a student in conjunction with other skills as a way of maximizing the brain’s processing capacity. Having students read aloud would meet these suggestions. Students are engaged in developing their ability to produce the spoken language while using their visual processing skills through reading text. Walter (2008) describes the crucial role that phonology plays as a part of not only spoken language but L2 reading as well. Reading aloud provides a unique connection between the skills of reading and speaking which allows for the development of both systems. Also, once students are able to develop an understanding of L2 writing and the ability to convert L2 writing into spoken language, they will have access to nearly unlimited input through written material.

Active Language Use:

Through reading, students can access a wealth of language resources; however, language learning is best accomplished through interaction with other speakers. At the core of my curriculum and teaching approach is a mix of individual, pair, small group, and entire class activities. These activities are designed with a specific communicative goal in mind and are designed to encourage students to engage in meaningful communication in the TL. An example of a communicative goal is the ability to give directions to a taxi driver in order to get to a specific place in a city. The lesson is a combination of a number of short (about 10 minutes each) activities at the individual,
group, and class level (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001). These activities help introduce students to the vocabulary and the grammar necessary to complete the communicative goal as well as giving each learner the opportunity to practice those elements in the TL. The role of the teacher is to design the activities and to model for the students while the role of the students is to actively participate in the activities at hand (Lee & VanPatten, 2003).

Oral proficiency (see ACTFL, 2012) in my class is assessed principally as the students participate in classroom activities. I rotate through the student groups and assess them on their participation in the activity at hand by listening to their interactions and through engaging them directly with questions and conversation. The main element of this assessment is the active participation of the student. I firmly believe that if students actively participate in the classroom activities presented to them, then they will be able to learn the TL.

The communicative approach enables students to acquire the second language in a way that is more natural and effective as it imitates the acquisition of the first language (Shrum & Glisan, 2010). Using a variety of activities helps students be more engaged in the learning and allows them more opportunity to practice the TL. Activities should be designed to allow for and encourage students to engage in negotiation of meaning. Negotiation of meaning, or the back and forth exchanges of information, requesting clarification, and expressing a lack of understanding, is at the heart of communication in any language and should be an integral part of classroom language instruction (Crouse, 2012).
In our day-to-day experiences and conversations people will frequently say things like: “What was that?” “Are you sure?” “Could you repeat that?” Other examples include restating a question as a means for checking one’s own understanding of the intent of the questioner, or asking questions such as, “What do you mean by that?” As students engage in negotiation of meaning they are mirroring their L1 communication and they are forced to go beyond the basic level of language production and thinking that is exhibited in simple drills. Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, and Mandell (2001) state that this type of communication is the very goal of CLT.

A type of classroom activity that can elicit this type of communication is an “information gap” activity. “Information gap activities provide learners with different but complimentary pieces of information that must be combined to successfully accomplish the goal of the activity” (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001, p. 74). While I was in Spain, I often had occasion to buy bus tickets to travel from city to city. The exchange between a traveler and a bus station attendant represents an excellent information gap activity. The traveler knows where he wants to go and at what time. The bus station attendant knows what bus routes are available, the times they are available, and what the cost will be. Between the two of them they work to find the option that best matches what the traveler is looking for. With some preparation on the part of the teacher, this activity can be carried out easily in the classroom setting.

Another important concept to be considered in classroom activity design is that of task-based instruction or activities (Shrum & Glisan, 2010). Centering classroom activities on specific tasks that can be accomplished with the TL as a medium can make them more meaningful and engaging. Task-based instruction “emphasizes that
communication (1) is the expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meaning; (2) requires two or more autonomous participants; and (3) should focus on the learners’ use of language, not the instructor’s” (Shrum & Glisan, 2010, p. 266). For an example of a task-based activity carried out in my own classroom, please see the Culture Artifact in this volume.

Encouragement from Within and Without:

Some might say that the primary role of a personal trainer is that of providing motivation to their clients. From experience I can attest to the power that a trainer or a coach can have on inspiring greater physical performance from those who they are working with than might be accomplished by the individual alone. In my high school years I ran with our school’s distance running team. Many coaches will wait by the finish line to see how their teams finish. My coach would position himself at the most difficult sections of the course, normally a hill. It was almost harder to not run faster than it was to endure the pain of an increased pace when my respected and caring coach was along the sidelines yelling, “Faster! Attack the hill!” So too can second language teachers have a powerful effect on their students’ performance in the L2.

Language teachers should build in their students a love of the language that is being taught. This can be done by helping them to come to understand the culture of the speakers of that language and by helping them to enjoy the language itself (Lantolf, 1997). Looking back across my own educational experience, the classes that I remember most are those taught by teachers who were unabashedly passionate about the topic that they were teaching. SLA is an inherently long and often difficult process (Lee &
VanPatten, 2003). In order for students to have success in a second language classroom, and particularly to have success in the larger goal of second language acquisition, there must be sufficient motivation. Students should be expected to bring with them a desire to learn and a willingness to engage in classroom activities, but it falls upon the instructor to design activities that are motivating and that will keep students engaged to maximize the opportunity for learning. Motivation in education is often treated as a static trait in students; however, recent research shows what educators have long felt: teachers can affect students’ motivation for the better! In a study involving over 1,300 students Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) found that “language teachers’ motivational practice is linked to increased levels of the learners’ motivated learning behavior as well as their motivational state” (p. 55).

An example of the impact of classroom activity design on students’ use and perception of the TL is found in a study done by Lantolf (1997). The study found that students who participated in more meaningful activities in the classroom, such as conversations and other activities designed to foster communication, as opposed to grammar instruction or drills, exhibited more language play. Language play is thought to indicate connection with the TL and demonstrates an element of enjoyment of the language felt by the students. As an instructor, I will build a classroom atmosphere that is motivating through the use of activities designed to foster communication among the students.

Classroom activities and curricular design can be critical components in building positive attitudes and motivation within students. Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) found that content learning programs in the TL had a positive effect on student attitudes toward
Student attitudes and motivation can play a critical role in their classroom success (Ariza, 2004). Lasagabaster (2011) investigates the connection between motivation and meaningful classroom activities in language programs in Spain where the language instruction is integrated with content learning. Lasagabaster (2011) compares a group of traditional EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students with a group that participated in the traditional EFL course as well as an additional course with focus on content learning through English. The students who participated in the content learning course scored higher on tests of speaking, listening, writing, and grammar, than the group who received only traditional EFL instruction. Lasagabaster (2011) notes that this could be accounted for by the additional time on task, however, the content learning group also was found to have a significantly higher level of motivation toward learning English. This research shows the benefits on motivation that a varied design of classroom activities can have on learners. This model of instruction could be adapted to the US high school setting by developing content learning modules to be implemented within the traditional FL classroom.

A foundational piece in the research on motivation in second language learning is Gardner and Lambert’s (1959) work revealing the connection between attitudes of integrative motivation and learner success. Those students who were found to be more aligned with feelings of integrativeness with the people and culture of the TL were more successful than students who were less integrally motivated. Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) have shown the powerful connection between integrativeness and students’ choice of language and decision to continue studying language. Understanding the importance of integrativeness in SLA underscores the need for teachers to bring the culture of the TL to
life and allow students to make connections with the cultures and peoples represented by the TL.

Conclusion:

Throughout my life I have been influenced for the better by the efforts of trainers and coaches. Because of these people I have been able to experience much greater success in sports and in personal fitness than I would have otherwise been able to achieve. As I strive to provide for my students a proper diet of L2 input, design and implement communicative activities that will allow for my students to engage in authentic communication, and build a classroom curriculum and environment that is motivating and designed to encourage students to become intrinsically motivated learners; I will be able to help my L2 students experience greater success and satisfaction with their L2 learning than they would on their own. Due to the nature of the global economy, the ease of international travel, and increasing research on the cognitive benefits of bilingualism (Lightbown & Spada, 2006) the learning of languages is a valuable and important part of education, today more than ever. The profession needs dedicated practitioners who are willing to show their students the value of language and help them to experience successful communication. Through purposeful, research-based instruction, and a little flair, I have confidence in a successful future in language instruction. As I often say to my students as they leave the classroom: Dream of Spanish tonight!
Professional Development through Observation

In the course of my post-secondary education I have spent numerous hours observing second language instruction in a variety of settings from authentic classroom instruction to model lessons. I have observed Spanish being taught to middle and high school students as well as Spanish taught to undergraduate students in a variety of levels and settings, including classes taught by native and non-native speakers in the United States as well as classes taught by native speakers in Spain. Additionally, I have observed language instruction in Arabic, Portuguese, Chinese, and French. Of particular value has been my time observing colleagues at USU. Though languages themselves offer distinct challenges, and teachers should adapt to best serve their specific students and teaching contexts, I believe that the principles of effective language teaching can be applied to all languages and contexts. As I discuss my observations, I do not intend to belittle any teacher, but simply to offer a professional critique of what I observed.

In my view, a key element in successful second language instruction is the use of the target language (TL) in the classroom, both by the teacher and the students. I was surprised to find in my observations of community public schools in the USA that instructors I observed delivered their instruction almost exclusively in English. What is more, the students were given little opportunity to use the TL in the classroom beyond repetition and rote drills. The instruction consisted primarily of lecture-based direct instruction and worksheets. When I went overseas, I observed lessons being carried out almost exclusively in the TL. However, beyond this significant difference, I found that two of the three teachers that I observed overseas regularly employed a similar approach
of direct instruction through lecture with limited student engagement beyond small activities and answers to closed grammar-based questions asked by the teacher.

Of those three teachers in Spain, two of them represented a traditional Atlas-style classroom experience. The classes consisted of long discussions of grammar led by the teacher with the students listening and occasionally participating in activities. The class periods were over two hours long and it was not uncommon for 80% of that time to be devoted to grammar discussions led by the teacher. The instructors are experts in the language, native speakers who have studied in-depth the structure of their mother tongue, however, their approach to teaching was very different than what I believe is ideal.

The third instructor I observed in Spain, who I believe to be the best of the three, represented an interesting middle ground with his teaching. He succeeded much better than the other two at engaging his students (raw beginners at that) and giving them more time to produce language. He accomplished this mostly through questioning, it was obvious that his students felt comfortable with him as they engaged in conversation with him. He would follow with additional questions to elicit further responses from his students. This teacher also spent much more time than the others in activities during which the students were talking with one another. The main difference between this teacher and my colleagues is that he lacked the unifying communicative goal and spent more time engaging the students in questioning whereas my colleagues would have had students engage in communicative activities with one another.

From the spectrum of teachers and settings that I have observed, it seems that much of the language teaching community maintains the Atlas style of language teaching with the teacher dominating the classroom activities and language production. Even
though those teachers in Spain are much more expert at the language itself and spoke 100\% in the TL, I believe our courses at Utah State University, many of them taught by second language learners of the TL, are more effective at meeting the needs of students.

These dominant trends are in stark contrast to what I have observed among my colleagues at USU where the norm is to deliver instruction in the TL and to engage students frequently in pair and group speaking activities that are designed to encourage more than simple, rote exchanges. Among the colleagues that I observed, it was clear that the focus was on teaching for communication, using the TL as both the subject of study and the tool for learning. The classroom atmosphere is distinct when considering a primarily direct instructional approach with little student engagement as compared to a communicative classroom. In the communicative classroom the instructor and the students primarily used the textbook as a resource for enriching activities or as a place for students to go with questions rather than the principle guide for instruction. The students in the communicative classrooms were more engaged in the instruction, less tentative when producing the TL, and seemingly more positive about the entire experience.

As I have had the chance to see fellow professionals practicing their craft I have had occasion to reflect on the practice of my peers and to consider how what I have seen compares with my personal teaching philosophy. Through observing other professionals at work, I have been able to focus on principles that work across classroom settings. It is clear to me that a communicative methodology is a more effective and enjoyable method of instruction for second language than the direct instructional model that is traditional to western education and, seemingly, is the method still favored by practicing professionals in the field.
Analysis and Reflection on Personal Teaching Video

In order to better understand my own teaching, I took the opportunity to have a colleague record a class period from my teaching of level 1 Spanish to undergraduate students. The lesson took place in the latter portion of the semester of what was the first college level Spanish course for my 23 students. My classroom was equipped with a computer, speakers, projector, and white boards. The desks were arranged in a standard configuration of rows and columns facing the white boards. Though one fifty minute class period taken out of the context of the course as a whole is not a complete view of my teaching, it does provide a significant opportunity to analyze my practice within the classroom in light of my professional philosophy and to search for areas of alignment and misalignment.

This day’s lesson was designed to teach students how to talk about exchange of services for money, periods of time, and descriptions within the context of contracting a stay at a hotel. In order for students to be successful, they needed to understand, practice, and employ the distinction between por and para (which in many cases are both translated into English as ‘for’). For the initial part of the lesson students were seated, for the majority of the activities students were out of their desks and moving around the classroom interacting with one another. The final activity of the day was for students to find a hotel that met certain requirements that were unique to each student. Students acted out the role of a traveler and a receptionist, taking turns at each role (this activity is described more fully later). I took part in that activity in both roles and interacting with
student pairs by asking and answering questions. As this final activity was carried out, I was paying close attention to the interactions, particularly the way that students used *por* and *para* in order to assess student progress on the learning objective.

In my teaching philosophy statement, I describe the role of a language teacher as being similar to that of a personal trainer. As a personal trainer must be concerned with his client’s diet and nutrition, design specific exercise routines, and work to motivate his client, so too must a language teacher work to provide an appropriate amount of comprehensible input, design well thought-out in-class activities, and work to motivate the students toward further use of, and development, in the target language (TL).

In order for students to learn a new language, they need to have a steady diet of comprehensible input. During my class I attempt to follow the ACTFL guidelines that recommend that foreign language classrooms should have 90% or more of the instruction delivered in the TL (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 2006). With this in mind, I took note of the amount of class time during which I was interacting with the students in Spanish vs. English. In this particular class, I saw that I was speaking to students in English for about 7 minutes out of the 50 minute class period. At the beginning of the class, I elected to deliver some direct instruction in English to my class on a topic that I have known to be difficult for students to understand (the distinction between *por* and *para*). While this is not my normal practice, and I do think that a language teacher should always work toward making new concepts comprehensible through the TL, I was pleased to note that the class period as a whole was close to the ACTFL guidelines. However, I did notice that the students mirrored my choice of language. While this was not a surprise, I was interested to note that it seemed that the
students were favoring English more than I would have expected during the first half of
the class period. It seems that my students were not as capable of making clear transitions
from the first language (L1) to TL. This is one downside to using the L1 for direct
instruction.

A key component in language instruction is the ability of a teacher to make input
comprehensible for the students (Krashen, 1982). As a Spanish instructor, this has been
an area of emphasis of mine. There is an art to being able to help students to learn in and
through the TL without resorting to translation or L1 explanations. I was pleased to
notice several instances where I was teaching students successfully in the TL. At one
point in the class, I was discussing relative pricing of hotels with a student in a pair
activity. The student didn’t understand my criticism of a hotel for being barato or cheap.
Using a combination of examples and references to the topics at hand, I was able to teach
the student the meaning of barato, and caro (expensive), and to show some comparative
language, which the student was able to then understand and begin to appropriate in her
own language output.

Activity design and implementation is crucial for a language teacher in a
classroom. Students must have the opportunity to engage with others and communicate in
the TL in order to be able to develop the skills of understanding and producing the
spoken language. A crucial aspect of classroom language activities is the opportunity for
students to engage in the negotiation of meaning (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell,
2001). During this class period the students spent the majority of the period engaged in
pair activities. The students spent about 12 minutes working on an activity for which they
were to act as either a receptionist or a traveler. Each student was given a paper that
described aspects of his or her role: cost of the hotel and amenities for the receptionists and budget, number of nights needed, and personal preferences for the travelers. Each student had a different set of information and the information sets were designed to have only 1-2 possible matches (i.e., price and budget, preferences and amenities). This activity worked well and the students were all involved in negotiation of meaning as they acted out the receptionist-traveler exchange. However, I did notice that I could work on the pacing of the activity. Some students were able to make their ‘reservations’ more rapidly than others. I also thought that this activity may have been more meaningful if I had used authentic information about hotels and allowed the students to engage with the material in a real sense rather than by playing a part.

Lastly, I focused on my role within the classroom as a motivator. I noticed that the majority of students were much more engaged in the activity at hand when I was involved, either as a partner, or commenting and questioning the pair that was working together. This observation highlights the importance of the teacher as a motivator and catalyst for language learning. Another focus of mine in my classes is to circulate among the students during the activities and trying to interact with as many of the students as possible and to try to stretch my students through those interactions. In the recording, I was able to talk with each student at least once and was largely successful in stretching the students beyond their level of easy comfort with the language. While this was encouraging, I feel like I need to give more thought to develop a classroom environment where students are engaging with each other as vigorously as they do when engaging with the instructor.
As I look back on this recording I am pleased with my implementation of the principles found in my teaching philosophy statement. And yet, I am left with a degree of professional disquietude, as I noticed several areas that could be improved. This juxtaposition represents the reality of a reflective educator: teaching according to research-based principles yet realizing that the classroom is, and must be, a site of ever-evolving practice.
Language Artifact:

El Inglés como *Lingua Franca* a Nivel Mundial
Introduction

The English language has come to be the *Lingua Franca* of much of the world. I wrote the following artifact to explore the strength of the English language as measured by the barometer of economic growth. The article shows that, if trends hold steady, countries whose first language is not English will compose a greater percentage of the world economy than the native English speaking world in the near future. The economic advantage of English speaking nations has been a primary driving force in the globalization of English. As the non-English speaking world outpaces the English speaking world economically the effects cannot help but to be felt around the globe. Future research is needed to determine what those effects may be, but I offer some predictions at the conclusion of this work.

In an age where some may feel that the need for learning a foreign language is decreasing with the global spread of English, this article shows that in today’s world more than ever, there is a need to learn world languages. This article was written in Spanish to show my ability in producing technical writing in my second language.

Special thanks to Gregory Child for his close collaboration on this project. The original draft was co-authored by Greg, but I have since made substantial revisions.
Abstracto

El Inglés como Lingua Franca a Nivel Mundial

Este trabajo analiza, desde una perspectiva lingüística, el estado actual de la variedad estándar del inglés como lingua franca a nivel global. En este trabajo se hará referencia a otros ejemplos de lingua francas que han dominado el mundo en distintas etapas de la historia. Este trabajo se centrará en la caída del imperio romano, la inevitable fractura del latín y, por ende, el nacimiento y desarrollo de otros idiomas. Se analizará también la presencia y relevancia del inglés a nivel global, reconociendo también la vitalidad e importancia de las distintas variedades dialectales que se han desarrollado a nivel mundial. Con base en la investigación bibliográfica y en el patrón que se ha establecido a través de la historia, el autor de este trabajo, opina que el inglés tendrá la misma suerte que el latín. Es decir, la variedad estándar del inglés, como lingua franca, va disminuyendo, al mismo tiempo que otras variedades dialectales, identificadas, como no standard van cobrando fuerza, reconocimiento y vitalidad a nivel global. Por lo tanto, la variedad estándar del inglés sufrirá una fractura similar a la del latín. Si la historia se repite, una nueva variedad lingüística florecerá y se convertirá en la nueva lingua franca.
El inglés como *Lingua Franca* a Nivel Mundial

*Introducción*:

En los últimos años se ha dado mucha atención al inglés como una *lingua franca*. El uso del inglés a nivel mundial es increíble. Se estima que se gasta $50 billones al año en la educación privada del inglés en el mundo y que en el año 2020 habrán 2 billones de personas que están activamente aprendiendo el inglés alrededor del mundo (Education First, 2012). El propósito de este trabajo es hacer una comparación entre inglés como una *lingua franca* y el latín. Primero, hablaremos de por qué se necesita una *lingua franca*. Segundo, vemos las características del inglés como una *lingua franca*. Para concluir especulamos, utilizando datos del Banco Mundial, que el inglés como una *lingua franca* que históricamente ha sido dominado por los nativo-hablantes será reemplazado por una nueva variedad de inglés dominada por los hablantes que no sean nativos.

*Lingua Franca*:

Para hablar de una *lingua franca* primero tenemos que definir el concepto de *lingua franca*. Hall, Smith y Wicaksono (2011) difinen que una *lingua franca* es una lengua que se usa para comunicarse con otras personas que no hablan la misma lengua nativa. Una *lingua franca* no es la lengua nativa de las personas que la usan, sino que es una herramienta que se usa para comunicarse con personas que no hablan la misma lengua. Un ejemplo del uso de una *lingua franca* se encuentra en un estudio hecho por Meierkord (2000). En el estudio había dieciséis estudiantes que hablaban muchas lenguas diferentes como sus primeras lenguas. Pero los estudiantes en el estudio
solamente podían comunicarse por medio del inglés. En el estudio el inglés era la *lingua franca*, ninguno de los estudiantes hablaban inglés como primera lengua.

Otro ejemplo de una *lingua franca* es el nagamese (Burling, 2007). Se habla nagamese en la parte noreste de India, en un lugar que se llama Nagaland. Por la región donde se habla nagamese hay por lo menos veinte idiomas que no están relacionados; una persona puede hablar uno de los idiomas y no entender los otros (Burling, 2007). Por mucho tiempo las personas no se hablaban, entonces no había una razón para tener un idioma común. Pero después de la colonización británica, las personas empezaron a tener más relaciones entre sí (Burling, 2007). Para facilitar las relaciones las personas necesitaban tener una manera de comunicarse.

Ahora las personas que viven en Nagaland tienen dos opciones si quieren comunicarse con la gente de otros pueblos. O pueden hablar inglés o pueden hablar nagamese. El problema que existe al hablar inglés es que es muy difícil para aprender; el inglés sólo se usa para negocios y cosas relacionadas con las leyes. Las personas reconocen que hablar inglés puede ayudarles a obtener una clase social más avanzada. “Si uno puede aprender suficiente inglés, puede salir del granja y mudarse a un oficina, una mudanza que se estima como un paso hacia arriba” (Burling, 2007, p. 209, traducido por el autor). Pero aunque el inglés se reconozca como un idioma importante, no se habla por muchas personas, hay un uso limitado del inglés. Las personas que quieren comunicarse con otras personas en Nagaland utilizan nagamese. El nagamese es la lengua que se usa para comunicarse con un grupo de personas que no hablan la misma lengua nativa. El nagamese nos proporciona un ejemplo interesante regional de la definición de una *lingua franca* de Hall, Smith y Wicaksono (2011). Las personas no podían entenderse, entonces
las personas creyeron nagamese para poder comunicarse (Burling, 2007). El nagamese es un ejemplo maravilloso de lo que es una lingua franca. Koufogiorgou (2008) nos muestra otro ejemplo de una lingua franca regional que es el vlad que se habla en una región de Grecia. El último ejemplo de una lingua franca es el latín. El latín no tan solo era el idioma de una región pequeña sino llegó a cubrir una porción grande del mundo.

Latín:

Al principio el latín solamente se hablaba en el pueblo de Roma, y era solamente una variedad lingüística diferente de la lengua que se hablaba en Italia (Hualde, Olarrea, & Escobar, 2009). Con la expansión del imperio romano, el latín se expandía al mismo paso. Aunque la gente seguía hablando su lengua nativa, si personas querían trabajar para el gobierno o si querían hacer negocios con el gobierno, o si tenían que comunicarse con las personas que vivían en el imperio romano ellos tenían que hablar latín. Por esto a través del tiempo el latín reemplazó a las lenguas que se hablaban por el mundo antes de la llegada de los romanos (Hualde, Olarrea, & Escobar, 2009). Pero el latín que se hablaba en el imperio no era el latín clásico, sino era lo que se conoce como el latín vulgar (Rajagopalan, 2009).

El latín vulgar no era igual a lo que se hablaba en Roma porque las personas que lo hablaban no tenían mucho contacto con Roma. O sea a causa de que las personas vivieran lejos de Roma, surgían cambios en la manera de hablar (Rajagopalan, 2009). Estos cambios llegaron a ser sus propios idiomas cuando el imperio romano se desplomó (Wright, 2004). Con la caída del imperio romano el latín también empezó a desaparecer. Una de las razones por los cuales el latín seguía siendo importante se debe a la influencia de la iglesia católica romana. La iglesia católica romana tenía influencia sobre muchas
personas por el mundo. La iglesia mantenía el uso de latín desde el final de la época romana hasta los años setenta del siglo viente, y las personas que pertenecían a la iglesia católica aprendían el latín (Rajagopalan, 2009). Aun así, es importante reconocer que el latín vulgar que se empleaba entre la gente común y el latín empleado por la iglesia y en la educación empezaron a ser más y más diferentes con el transcurso de tiempo (Wright, 2004).

Juntos a la iglesia, las ciencias y la educación secular añadieron al influyo del latín. Las ciencias y educación utilizaban latín hasta el decimoséptimo década. Con el tiempo la iglesia católica romano empezó a perder su influencia entre la gente, pero las aprendizajes seculares todavía se llevaban a cabo en latín (Rajagopalan, 2009). Entonces el latín recibió apoyo para mantenerse importante entre las personas educadas. (Esta herencia lingüista todavía tiene efectos profundos hoy en día en el mundo académico y en las ciencias en particular (McNeil & Cran, 1997). Pero aun así, la educación empezó a llevarse a cabo en otros idiomas. Finalmente, en el Segundo Consejo Vaticano la iglesia católica tomó la decisión de dejar de usar latín (Rajagopalan, 2009). Con el cambio de la educación y con la decisión de la iglesia católica el latín perdió una manera para mantenerse fuerte. Lastimosamente sin apoyo el latín perdió su puesto de una lingua franca, y a través del tiempo el latín se perdió casi totalmente como una lengua hablada (Rajagopalan, 2009).

*El latín y el inglés, una comparación:*

Es posible hacer una comparación entre el latín e el inglés. Rajagopalan (2009) explicó como latín e inglés son similares. Primero, ambos idiomas crecieron con un imperio. Latín creció con el imperio romano e inglés creció con el imperio británico.
Las personas que hablaban latín utilizaban latín vulgar, o una forma cambiada de latín clásico, como descrito antes (Hualde, Olarrea, & Escobar, 2009). Smith (1992) dijo que lo mismo ocurre con el inglés, dijo que, “tenemos que recordar que por lo menos desde los últimos doscientos años había inglés-hablantes por muchas partes del mundo quienes no pueden entender a otros inglés-hablantes que viven por otras partes del mundo. Esto es lo que pasa cuando una lengua se usa por varios partes del mundo” (75, traducido por el autor).

Con el crecimiento del imperio británico, la manera de hablar inglés cambiaba de acuerdo con las personas que lo hablaban. Yano (2009) dice que, “inglés se transforma para acomodar las necesidades locales de expresión e identidad” (p. 240, traducido por el autor), las personas cambian su forma de hablar de acuerdo con sus necesidades. Debido a los cambios hechos por las personas por el mundo, hoy tenemos muchas variaciones del inglés. Se podría decir que el inglés ya no existe como existía antes, y que el inglés está pasando por los mismos cambios que pasaron a latín con la caída del imperio romano. Es posible que el inglés se desaparezca y sufra el mismo destino como el latín (Mayley, 1985). Esta posibilidad ha sido estudiado por muchas personas (Rajagopalan, 2009), aun unas personas han dicho que el inglés será la raíz para la creación de muchos idiomas que no serán entendibles entre sí (McArthur, 1987). Es importante otra vez enfatizar que Smith (1992) dice que el inglés ya está cambiando y que Yano (2009) dice que hay muchas variedades del inglés que no se entienden, entonces el inglés ya está pasando por cambios similares a los cambios del latín.

La última comparación que se puede hacer entre latín e inglés es con la permanencia de los dos idiomas. Cuando el imperio romano cayó, todavía había la
iglesia católica romana y el sistema de educación que utilizaban el latín, los cuales ayudó bastante a mantener latín como una lengua importante (Rajagopalan, 2009; Wright, 2004). Cuando el imperio de los anglo-hablantes se caiga, y nosotros creemos que la caída será por razones económicas, sería interesante saber si habrán sistemas que ayudarán a mantener el inglés. Rajagopalan (2009) sugiere que la tecnología será el sistema que mantiene el inglés en el futuro. McCrum (2010) también comparte esta visión del futuro. No se sabe lo que va a pasar, pero es la opinión del autor que el inglés como una lingua franca tendrá un futuro distinto del latín y permanecerá debido a la tecnología y la porción creciente de la población del mundo que es alfabetizado. Esto no es decir que el inglés no cambiará. Idiomas, y en particular linguas francas, son criaturas vivas que cambian con el transcurso de tiempo, con las necesidades de los hablantes, y con condiciones del mundo (Burling, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2005; Wright, 2004). Cambios en el inglés como lingua franca ya se ven en el mundo (Dewey, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2005). El resto de este trabajo se dedica a la dirección, la rapidez, y la naturaleza de estos cambios.

Motivación:

El carácter del inglés como lingua franca tiene una multitud de influencias. Entre ellas es la motivación que ánima a los que adoptan el inglés como nueva idioma. Cuando hablamos del inglés como lingua franca, necesitamos entender la motivación para aprender una lengua. Por esta razón hablaremos un poco de las motivaciones para aprender una lengua en general. Una definición de motivación puede ser una fuerza que causa que una persona emprenda una acción. Lambert (1974) y otros (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Erler & Macaro, 2011; Kozaki & Ross, 2011; Vaezi, 2008) dicen que hay dos clasificaciones de motivación; la motivación integrativa y la motivación instrumental.
La motivación integrativa es la motivación para aprender una lengua por querer ser parte de la cultura y parte de las personas que hablen la lengua (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Erler & Macaro, 2011; Kozaki & Ross, 2011; Lambert, 1974; Vaezi, 2008). La motivación instrumental es la motivación de aprender una lengua por motivos de adquirir un mejor trabajo, recibir más sueldo, o por obtener más oportunidades en general (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Erler & Macaro, 2011; Kozaki & Ross, 2011; Lambert, 1974; Vaezi, 2008).

Es la opinión del autor que la mayoría de las personas que han aprendido inglés como una lingua franca, lo aprendieron no por motivos integrativos sino por motivos instrumentales. Muchas personas aprenden inglés para tener un mejor trabajo. De hecho, hay una gran cantidad de estudios que tienen su énfasis en el inglés como una lingua franca en el mundo de negocios (Boyle, 2011; Ehrenreich, 2010; Gilsdorf, 2002; Kankaanranta, 2006; Sweeney, 2010). Por ejemplo, las personas en un estudio de Boyle (2011) aprendieron inglés para que pudieran tener un mejor trabajo.

Hay personas que hacen negocios por todo el mundo y al hacer negocios por todo el mundo se hace importante tener una lingua franca (Kankaanranta, 2006). Un ejemplo de inglés en los negocios mundiales viene del Señor Child, quien es un conocido del autor. Child trabaja para una compañía que tiene oficinas por todo el mundo. Child dijo que, “es una regla de la compañía que los negocios se hagan en inglés, no importa en donde estés” (comunicación personal, abril 26, 2012). Child continuó a explicar que las reuniones casi siempre están en inglés, pero cuando las personas salen de las reuniones empiezan a hablar sus primeras lenguas. Ehrenreich (2009) reporta un actitud similar en su estudio de una compañía multinacional alemán.
Hay una cosa interesante de lo que dijo Child, es la regla que los negocios de la compañía se hagan en inglés. Es interesante porque la compañía está basada en un país que no habla inglés como su primera lengua. Ehrenreich (2009) habla de una reunión en que había 15 ingenieros alemanes, con dos americanos, y un chino, aunque varios de los ingenieros tuvieron dificultad en comunicarse en inglés, la reunión se llevó acabo en inglés para que todos pudieron entender. Para trabajar en la compañía de Child y muchas otras compañías multinacionales (Kankaanranta & Planken, 2010) uno tiene que hablar inglés, pero esto no significa que todo lo que se hace se hace en inglés. Las reuniones y cosas importantes están en inglés, pero cuando las personas salen de las reuniones ellos empiezan a hablar su primera lengua (Ehrenreich, 2009). El hecho de que las personas empiezan a hablar su primera lengua al salir de reuniones y del trabajo significa que el inglés es un instrumento para trabajar y no para la vida regular, y estas personas aprendieron inglés para usarlo en su trabajo.

Otro ejemplo de personas que aprenden inglés por motivos instrumentales es un programa hecho por el Ministerio de Educación de Chile. El programa se llama ‘Inglés Abre Puertas’ (National Volunteer Center, 2012). El gobierno creó el programa con el motivo de mejorar el inglés hablado de los estudiantes de los niveles cinco a doce en el sistema educacional nacional. El programa procura crear una nueva generación de estudiantes chilenos armados con las herramientas y habilidades que el inglés brinda para que los estudiantes puedan tener éxito en un mundo globalizado (National Volunteer Center, 2012). El Ministerio de Educación de Chile reconoce que hay ventajas económicas que el inglés podrá bridar a las personas que lo hablen, por esto crearon el programa para mejorar inglés.
Lo siguiente es un estudio utilizando datos del banco global. Se especula que cuando el poder económico de los Estados Unidos se pierda que esto tendrá un gran impacto en el carácter de inglés como una lingua franca. Sin el dominio económico global de los Estados Unidos y otros países que hablan inglés como idioma nativo es probable que la variación entre el inglés mundial y el inglés hablado por nativo-hablantes llegue a ser más y más pronunciado.

*Tendencias Económicas Globales:*

El dominio económico global del inglés se llevó a cabo por medio del poder militar de Inglaterra en la época del imperialismo (Kachru, 1986) y hoy en día se mantiene por medio del poder económico (Education First, 2012). En los últimos años la importancia del inglés como lingua franca se ha mantenido a través del poder económico de los Estados Unidos y otros países de hablantes nativos de inglés. El producto interno bruto (PIB) es una cantidad monetaria que representa el valor de todos los productos y servicios realizados dentro de un país durante un periodo determinado, mayormente un periodo de un año. Esta cantidad se usa con frecuencia para hacer comparaciones del poder económico de países. La cantidad no es un indicador perfecto, el tópico de la economía es inmenso y complejo, sin embargo el PIB nos proporciona una manera de fácilmente ver tendencias y pautas generales.

Debajo hay una tabla de datos que muestra la comparación del PIB de Alemania, Brasil, China, India, Japón, México, y Los Estados Unidos. Esta tabla tiene los datos sobre el PIB de estos países para cada década desde 1970 hasta 2010 (Tabla 1). Finalmente, hay una proyección con estimaciones para el año 2020. Estas estimaciones
usan el porcentaje de crecimiento de la década de 2000 hasta 2010 para proyectar el PIB de los países en 2020.

| Tabla 1: Producto Interno Bruto (PIB) de Países del Mundo de 1970-2010 |
|---------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Brasil                   | 42.33 | 235 | 462 | 644.7 | 2,088 | 3.23 | 6,762 |
| China                    | 91.51 | 189.4 | 356.9 | 1,199 | 5,927 | 4.94 | 29,298 |
| Alemania                 | 208.9 | 919.6 | 1,715 | 1,886 | 3,281 | 1.73 | 5,707 |
| India                    | 61.19 | 183.8 | 317.5 | 460.2 | 1,727 | 3.75 | 6,480 |
| Japón                    | 206 | 1,071 | 3,058 | 4,667 | 5,459 | 1.16 | 6,385 |
| México                   | 35.54 | 194.4 | 262.7 | 581.4 | 1,035 | 1.78 | 1,842 |
| Estados Unidos           | 1,025 | 2,769 | 5,751 | 9,899 | 14,590 | 1.47 | 21,504 |
| El Mundo                 | 2,891 | 11,000 | 21,920 | 32,240 | 63,120 | 1.95 | 123,577.4 |


Durante los últimos cincuenta años la economía de los Estados Unidos ha sido la más grande del mundo (World, 2012). Para ver más claramente el impacto a nivel mundial tenemos otra tabla, Tabla 2, que representa el PIB de cada país como un porcentaje del PIB mundial.

Como puede verse en la Tabla 2, en el año 2010 el PIB de los Estados Unidos representó un porcentaje más pequeño que en los últimos cincuenta años. La economía de los Estados Unidos está creciendo lentamente en comparación con las de otros países que son emergentes poderes mundiales como Brasil, India, y la China (Tabla 1). La década del 2000 mostró un cambio enorme en la disposición del balance del poder económico del mundo. Los poderes tradicionales como los Estados Unidos, Alemania, y Japón crecieron significadamente más lentamente que estos países emergentes. También,
podemos ver que los Estados Unidos, Alemania y Japón crecieron más lentamente que el índice de crecimiento mundial durante ese periodo (Tabla 1).

| Tabla 2: Producto Interno Bruto de Países del Mundo como Porcentaje del PIB Mundial |
|-----------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Brasil          | 1.5%    | 2.1%    | 2.1%    | 2.0%    | 3.3%    | 5.5%    |
| China           | 3.2%    | 1.7%    | 1.6%    | 3.7%    | 9.4%    | 23.7%   |
| Alemania        | 7.2%    | 8.4%    | 7.8%    | 5.8%    | 5.2%    | 4.6%    |
| India           | 2.1%    | 1.7%    | 1.4%    | 1.4%    | 2.7%    | 5.2%    |
| Japón           | 7.1%    | 9.7%    | 14.0%   | 14.5%   | 8.6%    | 5.2%    |
| México          | 1.2%    | 1.8%    | 1.2%    | 1.8%    | 1.6%    | 1.5%    |
| Estados Unidos  | 35.5%   | 25.2%   | 26.2%   | 30.7%   | 23.1%   | 17.4%   |
| El Mundo        | 100     | 100     | 100     | 100     | 100     | 100     |

Banco Mundial (World, 2012).

Si estas tendencias continúan, se producirán grandes cambios para el mundo en muchas áreas. De acuerdo con las proyecciones para el 2020 podemos ver un cambio muy significante para la economía mundial. Según las proyecciones, en el año 2020 China será la economía más grande del mundo, Brasil será la tercera más grande, e India será la cuarta más grande. Esto significará el fin del dominio global económico de los Estados Unidos, y por extensión, será un punto crítico para el carácter y la importancia global del inglés como lingua franca. Si China, Brasil e India expanden su poder económico, los idiomas que se hablan en esos países van a aumentar en importancia y prestigio global. Si otros idiomas llegan a ser más fuertes en la arena internacional, el inglés (más y en particular, el inglés estadunidense) se va a ver disminuido. Un modelo del mundo de anglo-hablantes de Kachru (1986, 1992) combinado con la información
económica nos da una vista de lo que va a pasar en el futuro con el desarrollo del inglés como lingua franca.

**Círculos de influencia:**

Kachru ha escrito mucho acerca del inglés a nivel mundial. En un modelo de la expansión del inglés y del influjo del idioma, Kachru (1992) representa el mundo del inglés con tres círculos. En estudios sobre el tema del inglés a nivel mundial referencia a este modelo se hace con frecuencia aún más de 20 años después. Véase un estudio reciente de Rubdy, McKay, Lubna, and Bokhorst-Heng (2008). En el centro Kachru pone los países que él llama el círculo interno (Los Estado Unidos, El Reino Unido, Canadá, Australia, y Nueva Zelanda). En otro círculo, el círculo exterior, que rodea el primero, se forma de países que usan el inglés de una función importante institucionalizado, en estos países la gente aprende inglés pero mayormente de segunda lengua, por ejemplo en India. Finalmente, Kachru añade otro círculo en su modelo que se llama el círculo de expansión. Este círculo representa los países en que las personas que hablan inglés lo aprendan de idioma extranjera, por ejemplo, en China (Kachru, 1992). Al hacer su modelo de esta forma Kachru está sugiriendo que el círculo interno tiene influencia sobre el resto del mundo en cuanto al inglés que se habla.

Kachru habla de manera particular de la dominancia del inglés americano. “… Idioma y poder van juntos. Se acepta el inglés americano a causa del poder y la superioridad los cuales América (Los Estados Unidos) como nación ha adquirido en las áreas de la ciencia, la tecnología, el comercio, asuntos militares, y la política…” (Kachru, 1986, p. 144, traducido por el autor). El poder que se menciona es esencialmente poder económico. Los países sin dinero no suelen tener una voz política internacional. Las
naciones sin dinero no puedan llevar a cabo guerras en otros países. Sin la superioridad económica los avances en la tecnología y las ciencias se verán disminuidas. Sin la superioridad económica del círculo interno, el modelo de los círculos de Kachru necesitará actualización para reflejar áreas de influencia modificados por la transición del poder económico (véase Tabla 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tabla 3: Porcentaje del PIB Mundial que representan los Países del círculo interno de Kachru</th>
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<td>Porcentaje</td>
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<td>Banco Mundial (World, 2012); Proyección para el 2020 viene del autor.</td>
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La situación se ve aún más claramente al ver los cambios a lo largo de los últimos años de respecto al porcentaje del PIB mundial que representan los países del círculo interior. Podemos ver que la influencia económica del círculo interior va disminuyendo desde los setenta. Esto representa un cambio drástico. En los sesenta los países del círculo interior representaron casi la mitad del PIB mundial. En el 2010, el círculo interior representó solamente un tercio del PIB mundial. En el 2020 es posible que el círculo interior representa sólo un cuarto del PIB mundial (véase Tabla 3). Se ve un cambio en el paisaje económico mundial que representa el principio del final de una época. Estos cambios representan la culminación del imperio que estableció Inglaterra hace cientos de años. Ya se ha visto una evolución en el inglés mundial. Existen variaciones regionales en muchas partes del mundo. Con la pérdida del dominio económico de los países del círculo interior estos cambios van a ganar más ímpetus.
**Variaciones de Inglés:**

A nivel mundial, la dinámica del inglés internacional está cambiando y va a seguir cambiando. Ya existen variaciones dialectales del inglés en los diversos lugares donde se usa de primer idioma, segundo, y extranjero. Kachru (1986) argumenta que el inglés a nivel mundial es tan distinto que no se ha de referirlo de inglés en lo singular para hablar del idioma a nivel mundial sino que decir ingleses en lo plural. Uno de los jornales académicos prominentes que se enfoca en las variaciones del inglés mundial se llama “World Englishes” o ingleses del mundo. Pero antes de hablar de las diferencias mundiales es importante que entendamos que hay variaciones en los países que hablan inglés como primera lengua.

En los Estados Unidos por ejemplo hay muchas variaciones de inglés (MacNeil & Cran, 2005). Los cambios que se realizaron al inglés empezaron desde la llegada de los anglo-hablantes (Finegan & Rickford, 2004). Como dijo Yano (2009), inglés se transforma de acuerdo con las personas que lo hablan. Por los Estados Unidos las personas cambiaron como hablaban hasta que hoy en día tenemos varios dialectos (MacNeil & Cran, 2005). Esto también es lo que pasó con inglés por todo el mundo. En realidad de cada cuatro personas que hablan inglés, solamente uno de ellos es un nativo hablante (Crystal, 2003). Esto significa que hay más personas que no hablan inglés como nativos, y ellos están haciendo transformar inglés; esto es lo que está pasando por todo el mundo, y por esto hay una gran cantidad de variaciones de inglés (McKay & Borkhorst-Heng, 2008; Seidlhofer, 2005). Yano (2009) explica con muchos detalles las variaciones del inglés que existen. El propósito aquí no es de analizar todas las variedades del inglés que se hablan en el mundo, sino demonstrar que ya existe mucha variedad en el inglés.
mundial y que con los cambios históricos del balance del poder económico en el mundo que el carácter del inglés hablado como *lingua franca* tomará más y más influencia de los que no son nativo-hablantes.

**Conclusión:**

En 2006, Graddol (citado en Young & Walsh, 2010) hizo la estimación que hay 350 millones de hablantes del inglés como primera lengua. También hizo la estimación que había más de un billón de hablantes del inglés de segunda lengua o lengua extranjera. En el mismo libro el predijo que en el 2020 habrá 2 billones de hablantes del inglés como segunda lengua o lengua extranjera y que el número de hablantes de primera lengua será más o menos estable. Entre los millones de hablantes de inglés en el mundo hoy existe la variación, pero los países del círculo interno tienen el mayor influjo en el carácter del inglés mundial.

Al dejar su lugar de permanencia económica los Estados Unidos se empieza la pérdida de poder económico del imperio de hablantes nativos del inglés. Comparamos este evento a la caída de Roma para el imperio lingüístico del latín. Sin el poder dominante de los Estados Unidos y los demás países del círculo interno actuando como ancla principal en la evolución del inglés como *lingua franca*, las variaciones regionales irán cambiando para ser más y más distintos con el tiempo. Vemos ejemplos regionales claramente en Singapur (Rubdy, McKay, Lubna, & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008) y en Corea (Lawrence, 2012). A diferencia del imperio lingüístico del latín, hoy en día existe la influencia de la tecnología como vía de comunicación global. La tecnología tendrá un impacto moderador de los cambios en el inglés a nivel mundial. Pero la historia nos muestra que la invención de la impresa no salvo al latín de su caída (Ostler, 2010). Así opinó que la tecnología no
salvará al inglés como *lingua franca* de ser sujeto a cambios más y más que vienen no de los nativo-hablantes sino de los que no lo son.

La evidencia muestra que el influjo de los nativo-hablantes de inglés a nivel mundial va disminuyendo en cuanto al influjo en el inglés como *lingua franca*. Es posible que el inglés a nivel mundial se va a fracturar y llegar a ser más y más una colección de ingleses en vez de un idioma tal como el latín empezó a desarrollar independientemente a niveles regionales después de la caída del imperio romano. En esa situación es posible que una de estas variaciones regionales llegue a ser más poderoso que los demás en cuestión del poder de los que lo hablan y que los demás que hablan inglés empiezan a modelar su uso del idioma para ser más como la nueva variación que esté en poder.
Literacy Artifact:

Influence of Reading Aloud on Student Anxiety, Reading Comprehension, and Listening Comprehension in L2
Introduction to Literacy Artifact:

Through my courses on secondary education, I have come to appreciate the critical nature of the battle for literacy in America today. Many students in America’s public schools struggle with reading grade level appropriate material (Carnegie Council on Advancing Adolescent Literacy, 2010; National Institute for Literacy, 2007; Torgesen et al., 2007). Students in today’s world need to be able to read, but much more than that, they need to be able to read and understand advanced texts on a variety of topics. Such is the nature of the modern world and such is the need for educators to promote literacy in all subject areas, including foreign language (FL) instruction.

As I have considered literacy in the context of a foreign language classroom, I have thought that approaches that are often used to promote and foster literacy in learners at lower levels in the first language (L1) could be applied to help beginning second language learners. Informing second language acquisition (SLA) by L1 reading research is particularly important because many of today’s FL students are poor readers in their L1. FL teachers will not only be teaching students to read in the FL but will have need to be able to teach students how to improve their reading skills in general. This article presents an examination of some of these thoughts and an outline for a research proposal investigating the effects of reading aloud as an instructional tool for beginning Spanish learners.
Influence of Reading Aloud on Student Anxiety, Reading Comprehension, and Listening Comprehension in L2

Abstract:

Student production in an L2 classroom is influenced by many factors, one of which is anxiety. Language anxiety can be a significant detriment to L2 use and learning (Wen & Clement, 2007). The following study elucidates the effects of student production, through oral reading conducted in a Spanish L2 classroom, on the students’ foreign language anxiety. As students read aloud in class they become accustomed to hearing their own voice producing the sounds of the L2 in the classroom environment in a scaffolded setting (reading from text) as well as become accustomed to being heard by their classmates. It is hypothesized that students who are regularly exposed to oral reading during class time will be better able to overcome task anxiety related to oral production in an L2 classroom. Evidence from L1 research suggests that oral reading practice develops reading fluency. Oral reading fluency is connected to reading comprehension. Theoretical frameworks link the processing skills involved in reading and speaking. Students will be assessed on their reading comprehension to test if the read-aloud treatment increases reading comprehension. In addition, students will be assessed on their listening comprehension to further explore the interconnectivity of the development of systems processing visual and audio input.
Introduction:

As an apprentice of a wise, former teacher of mine, I participated in a project to help improve oral reading proficiency for local elementary school children. The project involved the use of ‘whisper phones,’ devices that allow students to read aloud by whispering into one end of the phone with the other end on their ear so that they are able to hear themselves read. This teacher was a veteran of the classroom and was then serving as a district-level teacher trainer and resource for reading instruction. In the course of our association she told me that students read in their head with a similar voice to that with which they read aloud. If a student is not able to read a passage fluently aloud then that oral difficulty is a representation of the student’s internal difficulty with the passage. She said that it is important to help students develop an active and powerful internal voice through helping them develop that same voice externally.

This experience, coupled with my own language learning experiences as a student and a teacher, has led me to developing the theme of this study. I believe that second language learners need to develop a new voice for their L2. As students read aloud in the target language (TL) they practice reading fluency and proper pronunciation of the speech sounds of the second language (L2). As they learn to produce the proper L2 speech sounds, students will be developing their store of long-term memory representations of phonemes in the L2. The aim of this study is to measure if the practice of students regularly reading aloud in the classroom will lead to decreased levels of second-language anxiety. This study will also measure the effect of the practice of reading out loud on the development of reading and listening comprehension.
Literature Review:

Reading with Fluency:

Reading is a crucially important skill. Teachers of an L2 should have as one of their goals the teaching of reading to give their students more access to the L2. Speaking of reading in the L1, Lo, Cooke, and Starling write, “Reading connected text fluently is an essential, life-long skill that all students must master in order to be successful not only in academics, but also in everyday life” (2011, p. 115). Equally, if educators want their students to have full use of their L2 as a tool for successful communication and learning, they must teach their students how to read text fluently. Oral reading fluency, or being able to read with speed and accuracy, is often used as a measure for overall reading fluency and general reading competence (Fuchs, Fuchs, Hosp, & Jenkins, 2001). Skillful readers have a well-developed connection between spoken and written language (Adams, 1990). Oral reading fluency has been pointed to as “the most salient characteristic of skillful reading” (Fuchs, Fuchs, Hosp, & Jenkins, 2001, p. 253). Students who are skillful readers in the L2 should be able to read with speed and accuracy.

Reading aloud is a part of many approaches found in the literature for teaching reading in an L1 setting (Conderman, Strobel, 2006; Lo, Cooke, & Starling, 2011). Lo, Cooke, and Starling (2011) used a “repeated reading” protocol to help L1 learners develop oral reading fluency. This process involves having students read aloud a passage a number of times while practicing for fluency. This treatment showed good gains in fluency tests on separate passages to which students had not yet been exposed. Dufrene and Warzak (2007) found in an exploratory study that a repeated reading intervention showed gains in oral reading fluency for a bilingual student in both English reading and
Spanish reading. Research is needed to verify whether this same approach will produce similar gains in the context of L2 students in a foreign language classroom.

Students with higher levels of reading fluency are likely to have better reading comprehension (Fuchs, Fuchs, Hosp, & Jenkins, 2001). This connection has led to a concerted effort to increase reading fluency in the L1 in elementary school students in the United States (Hagaman, Luschen, & Reid, 2010). Similar focus on oral reading fluency in the L2 could potentially produce gains in L2 reading comprehension.

*Anxiety in the Second Language Classroom:*

Language anxiety negatively affects second language learners. In my own language learning, I found that I was significantly hindered by a sense of anxiety with regard to how others would perceive my utterances in Spanish. I also remember how I began to be much more successful as I began to overcome those feelings. Zheng (2008, p. 8) writes that language anxiety is “a central emotional construct that is essential in influencing second/foreign language learning.” There are varying opinions on the degree to which language anxiety affects proficiency (Zheng, 2008). However, Phillips (1992) argues that, regardless of the degree to which language anxiety directly affects proficiency, it is important for educators to reduce students’ anxiety in order to help their students have a positive experience with language learning. Phillips argues that students who have a negative perception of language learning environments will be less likely to continue their language education and less likely to have success in language acquisition. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) also discuss the potential of foreign language anxiety to act as a type of job filter, steering anxious students away from language learning.
courses and careers that require language training. Clearly, language anxiety should be an important consideration for teachers of an L2.

Of particular interest in considering classroom programs for reading in the L2 is a proposal by Saito, Horwitz, and Garza (1999) as to the existence of a specific type of language learning anxiety in the form of foreign language reading anxiety. They show that students who exhibit higher foreign language reading anxiety have lower grades than those who are less anxious (Saito, Horwitz, & Garza, 1999). The authors recommend that teachers help students decrease foreign language reading anxiety through the use of reading strategies. In a later study Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) found that students who have perfectionist tendencies also tend to have higher levels of foreign language anxiety. Strategies used to help perfectionist students may also help students alleviate feelings of anxiousness associated with speaking and reading the L2. Such strategies include: “building a friendly, supportive learning environment; establishing the expectation that mistakes are a normal part of the learning process; …articulating expectations that stress learning and improvement over perfect performance of assignments…” (Brophy, as cited in Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002, p. 569).

Language learning strategies have been highlighted for their importance in developing proficiency (Woodrow, 2006), but it is interesting to note the suggested connection here between reading strategies and decreased anxiety. Reading a passage aloud can be a helpful strategy that students can be taught to add to their personal arsenal of language learning strategies (Parera, 2006), both for increased comprehension and decreased foreign language anxiety.
Language anxiety plays an important part in communication in the L2. One of the main goals of the communicative approach to teaching second languages is allowing students to learn through producing the language, to learn through communicating. Reluctance to communicate is a barrier to students being able to take full advantage of the learning environment in a communicative classroom. Many factors can influence a student’s willingness to communicate (WTC). MacIntyre, Dornyei, Clement, and Noels (1998) took the original concept of WTC from work done on L1 learners and developed a model with focus on WTC in the L2. While in the L1 WTC is primarily a personality trait (MacIntyre et. al, 1998), in the L2, WTC is a complex interplay of factors that can facilitate or detract from a person choosing to communicate. In a recent attempt to understand the process of a speaker making the choice to communicate, MacIntyre (2007) highlighted language anxiety and motivation as two areas of particular influence on WTC. Using MacIntyre’s (1998) model of WTC, language anxiety and motivation are linked factors that can negatively impact students’ WTC and ultimately their use of the L2. Teachers should work to help students to experience decreased language anxiety and increased motivation in order to maximize L2 use and learning.

Motivation is a broad area of investigation with numerous approaches and theories. Gardner’s socioeducational model focuses on integrativeness (MacIntyre, 2007), the desire that a student may have to interact with and even form a part of a particular group. In a large scale study of Hungarian students, the concept of integrativeness was shown to be a powerful factor in L2 motivation (Csizer, 2005). Gardner and Lambert claim that, “a strong motivation to learn a second language follows from a desire to be accepted as a member of the new linguistic community” (1959, p. 271). Part of effective
classroom instruction is creating a sense of community within the classroom. If teachers are able to create that sense of community in their classrooms and focus on the use of the L2 as the language of the classroom community, then students will be more motivated to learn the L2.

In a study done with teachers of English as a second language (ESL), Janzen (2007) found that the teachers considered having students read out loud to be a method that increased motivation toward language learning and learning to enjoy reading. Using the practice of having students read out loud as a classroom activity can serve to increase motivation by the action itself as well as building a sense of community revolving around the L2 within the L2 language classroom. The practice can also be used to decrease students’ language anxiety by implementing this activity as an entire class activity. As students read out loud and hear their peers engaged in reading out loud, even though it may not be the same material that each student is reading, it will serve to decrease language anxiety when students are not singled out as they practice their L2 reading and pronunciation. Time and again, as an educator I have seen student’s situational anxiety increase as they are singled out from the group. By having students practice reading out loud in a group setting, they are not singled out and their language anxiety will be lower.

**The Connection Between Spoken and Written Language:**

Spoken and written language are connected within the brain. In a model describing the theoretical parts of the cognitive system involved in reading, Adams (1990) shows the orthographic processor to be connected directly to the phonological processor with a two-way linkage. She describes the system as consisting of three parts: the part that processes print or visual material, the part that processes audio input, and the
part that associates meaning with either the visual or audio data provided. “It is especially important that the Orthographic, Phonological, and Meaning processors are all connected in both directions to each other. This circular connectivity ensures coordination between the processors. It ensures that all three will be working on the same thing at the same time. More than that, it ensures that each processor will effectively guide and facilitate the efforts of the others” (Adams, 1990, p. 158). Due to this interconnectivity, strengthening one of these subsystems should strengthen the entire system. Thus, increasing the ability to process visual material as in printed representations of language should also improve the ability to process spoken language and vice versa. This connection has been supported through recent research (Hummel & French, 2010; Walter, 2008).

This interconnectivity should play heavily into the design of instruction in the L2. Hummel and French (2010) work under a slightly different model than Adams (1990), but their conclusions corroborate Adams’ earlier thoughts. Writing on phonological memory, which is conceptualized as the portion of a person’s working memory which acts as short term storage for audio data (Hummel & French, 2010), (this can be thought of as a component of Adams’ phonological processor) and its implications in the L2 context, Hummel and French (2010) conclude that teachers who rely too heavily on purely oral input may be doing their students a disservice. They suggest that using text-based oral input and teaching students to read aloud can be an effective teaching strategy to help students to not be entirely dependent on their phonological memory as the aid of the visual information reduces the processing load. This line of thought supports the idea of the interplay of cognitive subsystems in the acts of speaking and reading. As students
read aloud they are able to process the material with both the visual and audio parts of
their cognitive systems and are able to mutually strengthen their ability to process audio
and visual data.

If this interplay of cognitive systems is to help students develop a meaningful
system of communication, they will need to have proper modeling of the phonological
system of the L2 with which to make associations with the printed L2 material. This
notion is consistent with work done in the L1. Proper modeling is an important aspect of
repeated reading programs which were mentioned earlier (Lo, Cooke, & Starling, 2011).
In an L2 context, this is crucial because students are not only learning new words, but
also becoming familiar with the pronunciation system of the L2. Frequent oral reading
helps students to have ample opportunity to practice the connection between spoken and
written language. As the instructor provides consistent and frequent input modeling the
pronunciation of the L2, as well as explicit instruction on L2 pronunciation in relation to
printed material from the L2, students are able to work on their own pronunciation while
reading out loud. This is particularly helpful if student are able to self-monitor. “A
crucial element that helps students improve their pronunciation is developing in them the
ability to monitor their own pronunciation” (Artega, 2000). The strategy of re-reading can
also be beneficial (Woodrow, 2006).

Students whose L1 is English who are learning Spanish as an L2 provide a
particularly good fit for the potential benefits of a program of reading out loud. Both
English and Spanish are alphabetic languages. By the time students reach secondary
school, the majority of students are familiar with alphabetic representations of sound and
have experience with reading. Spanish has a particularly transparent writing system when
compared with English. Spanish has only five simple vowels while many languages have much more. These vowels translate clearly from the written language to the spoken language, whereas orthographic representations of vowels in English can lead to a variety of pronunciations. For example, the letter ‘a’ is pronounced differently in each of the following ‘hat,’ ‘tape,’ and ‘hawk’ in English, whereas in Spanish that type of ambiguity in vowel pronunciation doesn’t exist. The relative transparency of the connection between the Spanish writing system and the spoken Spanish language provides an ideal bridge for strengthening both visual and audio processing of Spanish as an L2 through reading aloud.

As yet the connection between oral reading programs in L2 Spanish classes as a means of increasing reading fluency and the development of the phonological loop has yet to be explored in the literature. Exploring this connection has the potential to increase our understanding of the L2 acquisition process as well as developing our knowledge of successful classroom practices.

Research Questions:

1. Does implementation of a program of reading out loud in a second language classroom reduce the level of language anxiety that the students experience?

2. Does the implementation of a program of reading out loud in a second language classroom increase reading comprehension in the L2?

3. Does the implementation of a program of reading out loud in a second language classroom increase listening comprehension in the L2?
Methods:

This study will focus on Spanish language learning in a secondary education setting. The study will be carried out with second-year Spanish classes in their first semester. Six teachers in three schools will be involved in the study. Each teacher will have one class that is to be administered the treatment and one class that is to be used as a control. The results will allow for a comparison across schools and across teachers, and for comparison of results by instructor. Collecting the data in this manner should allow the researcher to filter out the effect of treatment crossover between the control and the treatment groups. Collecting data for one treatment and one control group for each instructor involved will also allow for a greater degree of internal validity as the data can be compared to account for differences in each instructor’s relative skill.

An average class size will have about 30 students, making for about 360 subjects. They will be between the ages of 13 and 16 years old. The variance is due to differences across language programs and to some degree the ages at which individual students elect to begin their foreign language training during their secondary school years.

The study will be carried out over the course of one semester of instruction. The students will be assessed as to their language anxiety using the Foreign Language Anxiety Classroom Scale (FLACS) (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986), a survey with a five-point Likert scale. The survey will be administered to each class at the beginning and the end of the semester. The administration at the beginning of the semester will serve as a baseline measure. Each student will also be assessed on reading comprehension in the L2 at the beginning and end of the semester. Reading comprehension will be assessed using prepared materials from the students’ textbooks. If there is a variance in the
textbook used between schools, the book with the most appropriate assessment (as determined by the researcher) will take precedence and that assessment will be used across all subjects. Students will also be assessed at the beginning and end of the semester on listening comprehension (students will be administered a preliminary hearing test to screen for hearing problems). As with the reading comprehension test, if available a pre-made assessment will be used, if unavailable, the researcher will prepare a listening comprehension assessment tool recorded by a native speaker of Spanish. A t-test will be performed to assess the significance of the difference between scores for the treatment and control groups.

A randomly selected subset of 20 percent of the treatment group will be interviewed after the semester is completed. The interviews will be kept to 20 percent of student participants due to the difficulty of interviewing large numbers of people. Interview data will demonstrate the students’ perception of the treatment and whether or not they viewed it as effective, engaging, and/or enjoyable. All instructors who participated will be interviewed after the semester is completed. These interviews will focus on the perceptions of the instructors with regard to the treatment and the effects that it will have had on their students, classroom participation, student achievement, etc.

Treatment:

All teachers who participate in the study will attend a pre-semester training session conducted by the researcher. During the training session, the researcher will outline the scope of the study, describe in detail the treatment plan, and emphasize the goal that teachers keep their control group classes as close to their normal course plan as possible to provide an accurate control.
The main aspect of the treatment plan will be that each teacher will have their classes participate in 5-7 minutes per day of reading aloud in the TL. The decision to have the daily treatment limited to 5-7 minutes of reading out loud was made in the interest of allowing teachers to have freedom in planning their curriculum without monopolizing class time, with consideration of students’ attention span, and to represent the treatment as a viable option for the majority of course designs. Teachers will be asked to encourage students to read aloud outside of class as well, but the study will focus on the in class activities. The teachers will be encouraged to provide reading material from authentic L2 literature at appropriate levels of difficulty, as well as allowing freedom of choice in reading materials to the students, but will be given freedom to decide what the actual readings will be. Teachers will also be asked to allow the researcher to present a lesson (one 50-minute class period) on Spanish pronunciation near the beginning of the semester, as scheduling allows. The researcher will use this lesson to establish a basis in producing Spanish speech sounds correctly. The pronunciation class will be taught to all subjects for the sake of uniformity across groups. Particular emphasis will be placed on correct pronunciation of the Spanish vowel sounds, single and diphthong. This will not be an attempt at exhaustive instruction on the topic. Students will be given an important point of reference to consider as they continue in their own production. Instructors will be asked to model and to encourage focus on pronunciation throughout the course, particularly during the read aloud activities each day. The lesson at the beginning of the semester will also serve to emphasize the sounds of the TL to the instructors as well as the students.
Potential Implications:

Should this study show a significant decrease in second language anxiety between the treatment group vs. the control group, it would support the implementation of oral reading components as part of classroom instruction in similar classroom settings as a means of decreasing student levels of second language anxiety. Equally, should this study show a significant increase in reading comprehension between the treatment group vs. the control group it would support increased use of oral reading as a teaching practice in Spanish language programs in secondary school settings. This study also represents an important stepping stone for investigating correlations between current practices in teaching reading in an L1 setting and teaching reading in an L2 setting by exploring the connection between oral reading fluency and reading comprehension.

Finally, should this study show a significant increase in listening comprehension between the treatment group and the control group then it will further support the adoption of similar teaching practices in Spanish programs in secondary school settings. Also, the relation between the read aloud treatment and listening comprehension will add to the conversation in the literature of the interconnectivity of cognitive processes involved in processing both spoken and written language.

Public school programs are stretched thin with regard to available resources. Current trends in research often emphasize the use of technology and other approaches that increase the cost of education by requiring access to electronic devices and programs that would have to be purchased by the school. This line of research is important not only for the theoretical and pedagogical implications mentioned above but also for the fact that reading out loud as a learning tool is inexpensive, easily implemented, and requires tools
that are likely to already in ready abundance in existing secondary education programs (books and other reading materials).
Culture Artifact:

Developing Learner Identity with an Eye Toward Sociocultural Competence in a Spanish FL classroom.
Introduction to Culture Artifact

As I have studied language and language teaching, the connection between language and teaching and culture has come more to the forefront of my conscious. Lev Vygotsky was a student of these connections and his work has spawned a new interest in revisiting our basic understandings of the connections between language and learning and teaching and learning and the interplay of cultural elements throughout. The following article is an examination of how some of the themes of Vygotsky and successors’ sociocultural theory relate to teaching within a foreign language classroom. Though in the literature there is much debate about the theoretical primacy of Sociocultural Theory as opposed to other theories of learning and teaching, my purpose is not to seek to assign theoretical primacy but to add to the conversation on the topic of learner identity within the context of a FL classroom using the lens of Sociocultural Theory as one of many possible ways of viewing the topic. In my research I have come to respect the power of multiple viewpoints and the ability of a variety of theories and backgrounds to inform any given topic of study.
Developing Learner Identity with an Eye Toward Sociocultural Competence in a Spanish FL classroom.

Abstract:
The author discusses a sociocultural approach toward foreign language (FL) teaching in the context of a largely homogeneous classroom languaculture within the US, specifically, with regard to developing a FL learner identity. This work makes reference to research from Vygotsky and others who have followed in his tradition of viewing language and learning and examines specific examples from teaching situations observed by the author in a FL classroom. The author concludes by asserting that, while sociocultural competence may not be achievable through classroom instruction and activities alone under these conditions, through carefully designed and implemented classroom activities, such as role play, students will be able to develop a FL learner identity that will serve as an important precursor in their development of sociocultural competence when they have the opportunity to interact with native speakers in authentic sociocultural contexts beyond the classroom. This finding is an important point for consideration as instructors develop classroom activities, lessons, and curriculum for FL classes in areas where the student population represents a largely homogenous languaculture.
Developing Learner Identity with an Eye Toward Sociocultural Competence in a Spanish FL classroom.

Communicative language teaching (CLT) (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001; Glisan, & Shrum, 2010) is a dominate force in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) research and teaching. CLT is grounded in a cognitive understanding of learning and language and is built on the work of Chomsky, Krashen, and others (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001; Shrum & Glisan, 2010; Lee, & VanPatten, 2003; Lightbown, & Spada, 2006). An alternative approach to viewing SLA is sociocultural theory (SCT). SCT has grown primarily from the work of Vygotsky (Lantolf, & Poehner, 2008; Vygotsky, 1978). SCT is built on the Vygotskian notion that all learning, or development, as Vygotsky would say--indeed, all higher mental functions--have their beginning in social interactions.

Every function in the child’s cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological), and then inside the child (intrapsychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relations between human individuals. (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 57)

Vygostky’s notions of how learning and development occur in children is the starting point for a new perspective on how learning happens throughout one’s life. This
perspective changes many aspects of SLA research. If language learning within a classroom is approached from an SCT perspective, it becomes necessary to rethink the role of the teacher, the role of the student, and the way that learning and development are expected to happen within the classroom. Referring to SCT, Johnson and Lantolf write:

> From the ontological perspective we are proposing here, L2 development arises in the specific social activities in which learners engage, whether inside or outside the educational setting, in the resources they use to engage in those activities, and in what is being accomplished by engaging in those activities. Tracing development requires examining the processes through which learners’ activities are initially mediated by other people or cultural artifacts, but later come under their control as they appropriate resources to regulate their own activities (i.e., internalization). (2007, p. 886)

Vygotsky thought of learning as activity that precedes development (Vygotsky, 1978). Put another way, “This theory differs fundamentally from other theories of mind in its stance that the social environment is not the context for, but rather the source of, mental development” (Swain & Deters, 2007, p. 821). For a language teacher framing instruction through SCT this point is of utmost importance. The task moves from a traditional approach of thinking of teaching as conveying knowledge, or providing input, to thinking critically about what learning activities students should engage in in order to develop, in order to internalize the tools needed to communicate effectively in the target language (TL).
Some feel that current CLT methods for language teaching are not meeting the needs of students in our rapidly globalizing world. Magnan (2008) writes about how CLT was developed with the goal of creating communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). Though Magnan admits many benefits in classroom learning that come from CLT, she writes that the goal of communicative competence has not been met and proposes SCT as a more appropriate way of framing SLA research and teaching within the field.

As noted by Magnan (2008), communicative competence is indeed a worthy goal for second language (L2) instructors. Communicative competence, as defined by Canale and Swain (1980) consists of four major competencies: discourse competence, grammatical competence, strategic competence, and sociocultural competence. These divisions have since been elaborated upon and revisited (Celce-Murcia, 2007; Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrel, 1995). Throughout the history of SLA the focus has traditionally been placed heavily on teaching grammatical competence. With the advent of CLT, the scope has broadened with regard to what teachers are trying to help their students to accomplish in the language classroom. However, in practice, as mentioned by Magnan (2008), it seems that CLT still is not reaching into the full range of competencies that FL teachers are hoping to develop within their students. In particular, sociocultural competence is underdeveloped in today’s FL students (Magnan, 2008). Sociocultural competence refers to a contextual understanding of the meaning of language, an understanding of the relation of language and culture, of customs, societal norms, of pragmatics (Celce-Murcia, 2007; Johnson & Lantolf, 2007). Celce-Murcia notes that, “…a social or cultural blunder can be far more serious than a linguistic error when one is engaged in oral communication” (2007, p. 46). This deficiency is particularly important
to note when addressing the issue from a SCT perspective. From the perspective of SCT, language and culture are tied, so much so that some authors use the term *languaculture* when discussing the important link between the two (Johnson & Lantolf, 2007).

In this paper, I propose that communicative competence, particularly when focusing on developing sociocultural competence as a key component within communicative competence, should be treated as an issue of learner identity. Furthermore, while sociocultural competence may not be fully achievable within the context of a mainstream US FL classroom, students can develop a FL learner identity that will act as a precursor to sociocultural competence. Van Lier (2007) writes that, “identities are ways of relating the self to the world” (p. 58). FL teachers need to help their students develop and identity that will allow them to successfully relate themselves to the world represented by the FL and its speakers.

This paper uses SCT as a theoretical background for discussing learner identity within a Spanish FL classroom. Though Vygotsky did not write about the issue of identity, his focus on the principle importance of interaction in the social plane as the means of developing higher mental functions within the individual gives a lens through which learner identity can be viewed. Another prominent voice in the research on identity is that of Erickson. While Vygotsky focuses on social interaction in developing higher mental functions, or in developing identity for the case of this paper, Erickson places a heavier focus on factors resting within the individual (Penuel & Wertsch, 1995). Penuel and Wertsch write that these two viewpoints can both be instructive in dealing with issues of learner identity. “Identity is about realizing and transforming one’s purposes, using signs to accomplish meaningful action” (Penuel & Wertsch, 1995). Penuel and Wertsch
suggest that identity be viewed as an action-based construct that changes with the individual as the individual develops.

Harkening back to my teaching philosophy, this view is similar to the common adage ‘you are what you eat.’ However, in this case, it may be framed more appropriately as ‘your actions cause you to become who you are.’ In this case, it is important to point out that not only the results of the action, but especially the method employed to illicit a desired response is what determines identity. As people go about living within their physical and social worlds their identities develop as a result of the goals that they choose to pursue, the methods by which they attempt to pursue those goals, and the ensuing social interactions that result. This view is in opposition to a view that is often conveyed in SLA and educational research of a learner’s identity being composed of a set of fixed characteristics, particularly external factors which are generally beyond the control of the learner. The discussion is dominated by terms such as at-risk, gifted, mainstream, heritage, etc. (Shrum & Glisan, 2010). Conversations among professionals in the public schools are full of references to students using these sorts of labels.

When identity is viewed as growing and changing over time, and being influenced by the sociocultural setting of the individual as well as traits within that individual, then a freedom arises with regard to the transformative effects of education. When viewing identity as being constructed through the activity of the learner, this view becomes even more powerful. Neither the teacher nor the learner are fixed on a pre-determined path. Some authors take this point even further by emphasizing the notion of multiple identities. Raible and Nieto (2008), in writing about adolescents in the United States, stress the importance of recognizing that individuals are complex and evolving and that
this process can be expressed through multiple identities forming the whole of the individual. In discussing how SLA has been influenced by other theories Swain and Deters (2007) write about how a person’s identity is constructed through language, through the act of speaking and constructing meaning, and how that identity can vary with time and place.

Teachers need not plan solely to build instruction around learners’ identities and compensate for those identities, but can plan instructional activities that are designed to build positive Spanish language learner identities. “From a practice-oriented perspective, it is through cultural practices—as people “do” life—that identities are shaped, constructed, and negotiated” (Nasir & Saxe, 2003, p. 14). This perspective can be transformative in education: both in relation to how teachers design instruction, and how they interact with students; each of which will play a role in how students’ identities develop (Rubin, 2007).

At this point, I am sure that there are many educators who are thinking to themselves “Well, of course!” or more colloquially, “duh!” However, I ask the reader to pause for a moment and consider the dominant trends in modern education within the United States. Policy and practice do not matchup with the view of learner identity that was outlined above. In many classrooms, the norm is for all students to complete the exact same assignments and often those assignments are intended for students to produce the exact same ‘correct’ answers. This type of common educational activity is what Sir Ken Robinson describes as “low grade clerical work” (Robinson, 2013). How can educators express an understanding of all students as individuals while at the same time treating them all the same in classroom practice? If educators want students to build and
maintain an identity of active participants in their education and in the world around them then students must be allowed some choice and variability in their education (Lamb, 2011).

As a teacher of Spanish as a FL at the high school and college levels, I have worked with individuals ranging from those who have had no formal education in language to those who have had multiple years of experience in lower level classrooms. While each student is unique and should be thought of in that way, there are many things that I have noticed about my students that can lead to useful generalizations. Most of my students come from a monolingual language background, having only limited exposure to foreign languages, either through popular culture or through previous language courses. Students are often reluctant to speak in Spanish in front of their peers and particularly in front of their instructor. Of particular importance is the tendency that students have of attempting to translate the words and structure of their L1, primarily English, directly into the L2. Another, related issue that many students face is the task of reformulating their L1 thoughts into messages that can be conveyed with their limited knowledge of L2 vocabulary and structure. These are long standing problems. Writing over 20 years ago, Ballman (1991) writes about students lacking the ability to use the strategy of circumlocution, or more broadly, to work with the level of L2 proficiency that they possess to approach a variety of novel topics. Students tend to give up when they can’t think of the direct Spanish equivalent for the word that they want.

If these issues are approached from a cognitive SLA lens then they may be addressed by discussion on such constructs as foreign language anxiety, talk about introverted learners vs. extroverted learners, the natural order of acquisition of language
features, etc. While these views of the learner are helpful, it is important to note that the focus is on the learner, that the reasons for success or failure are found within the learner. This can lead to a deficit model on the part of the teacher and the learner as difficulties that arise in the language learning process are framed in light of deficiencies on the part of the learner. However, when these issues are viewed through an SCT lens, they can be approached as areas that have been underdeveloped and the teacher can design learning activities that create the opportunity for development to occur as the learner is able to appropriate the needed sociocultural tools to be successful. Both a cognitive understanding and an SLT perspective are important when understanding the research on SLA, however, the insight offered by SLT on learner identity is an area that is currently overlooked by mainstream educators. The goal of this work is not that of a complete paradigm shift but rather to foster a nuanced understanding supplemented by an SLT perspective.

In the research on identity in educational settings, the notion of a figured world (Holland et al., 1998) is important. A figured world is a set of relationships that are socially and culturally constructed and understood by those who participate within that figured world. A professional setting, like a doctor’s office, educational settings like a school, or even a single content classroom can be considered as figured worlds (Rubin, 2007; Vågan, 2011). These figured worlds are sites within which identity development and formation occur, where we become who we perceive ourselves to be. Individuals can be thought of as having multiple identities that operate within the varied figured worlds that occupy their lives. For example, a doctor is likely to interact with others and view himself in a very different way in the professional setting of his practice as opposed to a
social gathering. In a school students may act and perceive themselves in a very different way in a math classroom as opposed to a foreign language classroom.

For many FL language learners, the FL classroom represents the vast majority of their experience with the TL. In this sense, the FL classroom becomes their figured world for the TL, with the teacher and the other students as the major actors within that figured world. Once, while giving a presentation on language instruction to a group of fellow language instructors, I told them that they needed to represent their languages well to their students because, in large part, they are the embodiment of that language for their students. I told them to “Be Spanish.” While this is an important part of the role of a FL instructor, the instructional setting of the FL classroom can pose a problem for students who are trying to develop sociocultural competence, particularly when the instructor is not a native speaker, as the context of their communication occurs within a context that is dominated by L1 thought and sociocultural practices. This idea is well illustrated by a comment that a Latino friend made to me recently while I was playing soccer. He told me that I was doing well overall aside for those moments when, as he said it, “Se te mete el americano.” The message was that I was doing well playing soccer except for those moments when my instincts for American football came out. In a FL classroom students often try to play soccer (FL) by the rules, instincts, and techniques of American football (L1). This can be all the more prevalent when the soccer coach (teacher) comes from an American football (L1) background.

Now, much can, and should, be done to bring authentic FL culture and sociocultural context into the classroom through the use of authentic texts, members of the target community, and the teaching of culture. Moll (2014) writes that a teacher
should be bridge between the students and the community of speakers of the TL bringing
the culture and the cultural practices of the community into the classroom, or as he puts it
“establishing *convivencia*” (p. 117). FL teachers should also encourage their students to
seek experiences with the TL outside of the classroom. However, I agree with Magnan’s
assessment that:

> Attaining a goal of communicative competence in the original
sociolinguistic and sociohistorical sense put forth by Hymes (a
predecessor to Swain and Canale (1980), Hymes, 1972), may not be
possible within the boundaries of the instructional situations such as the
typical US classroom because the ethnography of the symbolic forms that
interrelate with speech in the communicative life of the society of the
classroom remain too limited. (2008, p. 363)

In other words, how can American students speaking to one another in Spanish learn how
to interact authentically with a native speaker from Mexico, Argentina, or Spain? Simply
changing the code of the communication doesn’t change the sociocultural context of the
communication.

With these limitations in mind, the goal of FL classroom instruction should be for
students to develop an identity as language learners that will allow them to more readily
develop sociocultural competence when they have the opportunity to interact with native
speakers of the TL. Elements of this new learner identity should be: a willingness to
express L1 thoughts with limited L2 vocabulary and structures (which often necessitates
conveying an incomplete, or less rich, thought than would have been possible with the
L1); an acceptance that the L2 is inherently different than the L1 and that direct, word for
word, translations are often not possible; as well as the beginnings of an understanding that differences in communication from culture to culture are more than simply changing codes from the L1 to the L2.

These goals can be accomplished in the Spanish FL classroom through the use of role playing activities with a focus on identity development. Role playing activities provide an ideal setting in which to give students the opportunity to develop the skills for circumlocution and persistence in communication contexts with which they haven’t been confronted that Ballman (1991) noted have been lacking in FL students and are still lacking.

Drama within the language classroom has a long history and has seen many different interpretations (Haught & McCafferty, 2008). Some authors place more importance on scripted works (Miccoli, 2003) and others place more importance on improvisation (Haught & McCafferty, 2008). In this paper, I focus on what Haught and McCafferty call, “creating identity through performing improvisational, culturally relevant scenarios” (2008, p. 158). Embodied language use, or drama, opens up a space where learners are continually finding new learning territory, creating zones of proximal development (ZPD) (Haught & McCafferty, 2008; Miccoli, 2003). The ZPD is the space opened up through learning, which allows for development. Furthermore, Vygotsky writes that, “an essential feature of learning is that it creates the zone of proximal development” (1978, p. 90). Due to the material introduced in improvisational drama and the inherent differences in learner proficiency, background knowledge, and identity; learners are constantly creating ZPD’s and are able to help one another and play off of
one another to accomplish more linguistically than they could accomplish by themselves. It is within these moments that learning happens.

The episodic, recursive nature of drama lends itself to use in the language classroom as students are able to communicate, take time to reflect, and then re-engage to try again after reflection (Haught & McCafferty, 2008; Miccoli, 2003). Drama also builds ties between emotion and the L2 (Smagorinisky, 2011) and can give enhanced meaning to the new language as learners make connections with past experience and new experiences within the classroom. Through drama, learners can come to develop a sense of community (Daley & Harris, 2008), which is particularly important in an educational environment that is known to cause stress (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986).

The following is an example of an effective role play that includes SCT considerations for developing an effective Spanish FL learner identity. A version of this activity was carried out by students in an entry level college Spanish course.

When implemented, the students were working with material from a unit that is common to many Spanish textbooks, a unit on foods and restaurants. This is appropriate because it seems that inevitably, when Spanish instruction is discussed, someone in the conversation will bring up ideas relating to food and a restaurant scenario. The role playing activity involves groups of five students. Four of the students are to play the role of guests in the restaurant and one of the students is to play the role of the waiter/waitress. Each of the students has a goal that they are tasked with accomplishing during the course of the activity. Each of the students is given a short description of his or her goal and some limiting circumstances. The students playing the role of guests at the restaurant are given the task of ordering a meal from a menu (the menu will be discussed
shortly). The students who are playing the role of waiters are given the task (away from the hearing of the other students) of selling the highest dollar (peso) amount of food from the menu. This involves working to persuade the diners to order food with a higher menu price. The students who act as waiters are also told that they are in a competition with the other waiters to see who among them can take an order with the highest monetary value.

As mentioned earlier, the students who are playing the role of diners are given a set of limiting circumstances. For example, each student is given an amount of money that they are able to spend on the meal. This represents a real-life factor that would affect their decision if they were eating in a restaurant in Mexico or in Spain. The students are also given (privately) factors that are unique to each diner. For example, one student is prohibited to eat meat while another student is told that his goal is to convince other students to order food as a group to share rather than ordering individually (this goal is supported by family dining options that are included in the menu and by the pricing which is beyond what any one student is able to afford on his own). None of the students are able to accomplish their individual goals without interacting with at least one of the other students participating.

After the activity is completed, the students are asked to write a reflection on the experience, giving particular attention to breakdowns in communication and their potential causes and solutions. Depending on the level of the students, this can be done in the L1 or the L2. However, the L1 may be more appropriate for beginning learners as the goal is to develop an understanding of the communicative event that has already taken place and learners may not have the capabilities in the L2 for a deep reflection.
Throughout the activity, the students are given access to the menu. The menu is an authentic text or cultural artifact, in that it is an actual menu from a restaurant in Mexico that is written entirely in Spanish. The menu includes many traditional dishes that are common to that area of Mexico, but not common elsewhere. The menu includes the price and a short description of each item. Some items that are of cultural relevance are the sections of the menu that include family style dining orders and meat sold by weight (kilos), rather than in individual portions. These elements provide interesting points of contact with cultural elements, and their underlying themes that are not present in mainstream US culture.

As the students interact with one another and with the menu as they work toward their individual goals, they are forced to work together to negotiate meaning (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001). While the activity is designed around vocabulary and linguistic structures that would be known by a beginning-level Spanish student, the individual goals represented are consistent with real-world scenarios. These goals lie beyond the realm of decontextualized linguistics and are seated in sociocultural needs (keeping within a budget, dietary restrictions, social dining preferences, employment goals, etc.). These elements breathe cultural life into the activity as students begin to address these issues with the L2. Though the students are still interacting with other members of their languaculture, they are doing so in ways that promote development of the desired FL learner identity through internalizing aspects of authentic L2 communication.

The phrasing on the menu, as well as the modeling by the instructor, encourage students to recognize and utilize vocabulary and structures within the language that are
not consistent with word-for-word translations from the L1, the goals and the need for interaction in order to accomplish them guide students into communicative settings that require that they frame their L1 thoughts and desires with their limited L2 vocabularies and syntax in order to accomplish their goals. Also, students are able to accomplish those goals only with the help of other students, which is consistent with sociocultural realities. Lastly, as students reflect on their classroom experiences they are lead toward meta-cognition about their own communication in Spanish. Peirce (1995), in writing about immigrant woman in Canada, describes this type of reflection on L2 communication as crucial for understanding communication in cultural contexts and developing an L2 identity. This type of reflection should play an important part in students developing an identity as FL learners.

An overarching concern in designing this activity, and one to be considered in all aspects of classroom instruction, is that of learner agency (Van Lier, 2008). Activities should provide a clear focus so that students can have a clear aim and expectation of success. Yet, activities need to afford sufficient degrees of freedom to allow for learner autonomy, creativity, and choice. Speaking about an SCT perspective on learner’s language development Johnson and Lantolf write, “…human agency plays an important role in determining what is internalized and how the process of internalization shapes new understandings and new ways of engaging in activities” (2007, p. 886). The aforementioned activity gives these clear directions, but at the same time affords students with degrees of freedom with regard to their choice of menu items, as well as how they choose to interact with their peers in working toward mutual completion of individual goals.
In conclusion, though it is difficult to help FL learners achieve sociocultural competence in the L2, FL instructors can design instruction, specifically role playing activities, through which students are able to develop a FL learner identity that will provide them with fertile soil in which to plant the seeds of sociocultural competence when they are presented with the opportunity to interact with native speakers outside of the classroom in authentic sociocultural settings. Rubin (2007) described how students in an urban US high school struggled to achieve because of a restrictive curriculum and educational atmosphere that led to a learner identity that was not preparing them for success in the world beyond the figured world of the high school itself. FL instructors need to create classrooms where successful communication within the classroom translates to successful communication outside of the classroom in authentic settings. As FL instructors consider curriculum and course design with an eye toward development of a FL learner identity within the figured world of the FL classroom that attempts to mirror sociocultural realities outside of the classroom, students will be better prepared to successfully communicate in the world beyond the classroom.
Introduction:

Through the course of my graduate program I have come in contact with a wealth of information in print. This Annotated bibliography is a representation of a portion of that wealth and my reactions to it. For convenience and clarity, I have divided the work into three topics: perspectives on second language teaching, wherein I discuss works relating to such topics as CLT, sociocultural theory, and ESL; reading in a second language, wherein I discuss works relating to reading in the L1 and L2 and the connections to be found between them; and, lastly, motivation in second language classrooms, wherein I discuss works relating to why students engage in learning (or don’t) and how a teacher can work to influence students to more fully engage in learning an L2.
I began my formal development as a language teacher while reading from

**Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, and Mandell (2001).** For this reason, and for the clarity and practicality of this teaching guide for the communicative classroom, this work is a foundational piece in my understanding of teaching a second language. Many of the ideas that I implemented during my student teaching at a local high school came from this book. Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, and Mandell provide an excellent starting place for educators seeking to understand how to implement a communicative approach to L2 teaching in the classroom. The work begins by outlining an argument for the use of a communicative approach to classroom instruction. Communicative competence, in particular oral competence, should be at the center of the curricular goals of a language classroom. The authors continue with a discussion of the place of grammar in a communicative classroom, along with a discussion of lesson planning and evaluation. They conclude with a discussion of interaction in the classroom. Grammar instruction is cast as important in support of communicative activities, not to be taught in isolation. Lesson planning revolves around build communicative activities for students to be able to practice the target language (TL) in a variety of situations. Evaluation of the TL should take into consideration the goals of communication and expressing meaning, not solely grammatical accuracy. Classroom interactions between teacher and student and between students should be designed to give opportunities for students to communicate in
the TL. Therefore, particular emphasis should be placed on situations and interactions that allow for negotiation of meaning.

This book represents my first exposure to material and discussions dealing with the communicative method. The authors have made an effort to make a concise and practical work which is easily accessible and provides knowledge and methods that are directly applicable to the L2 classroom. I particularly appreciate the emphasis that the authors place on describing the roles and responsibilities of the instructor and the students. The chapter dealing with activity design is particularly helpful in providing a starting place for lesson planning.

Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, and Mandell (2001) introduced me to the communicative classroom and Shrum and Glisan (2010) helped me to focus on the quality of instruction within that instructional framework. Their work represents a practical, research-based teaching guide. Where Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, and Mandell’s (2001) volume is significant for its brevity and accessibility, this volume is significant in its depth, with regard to the topics addressed and focus on making the basis in the research salient. An example of topics addressed is contextualized input, which is the idea of not only making input available and plentiful as well comprehensible, but also providing it within a context. This contextualization lends itself to the input being more readily comprehensible and accessible to students by making connections with their already developed schemata. This type of input mirrors input that is given to first language learners in natural language learning situations. Using a story-based approach for the teaching of grammar, the authors discuss the benefits of framing grammar instruction within the context of a story, building on my growing understanding and
commitment to teaching grammar within a communicative context. The approach focuses using pictures and stories that are familiar in the L1, and other techniques that allow students to have sufficient background support to understand the meaning of the story and to be able to focus more attention on the use of the TL within the context of relating the series of events.

Shrum and Glisan offer an excellent resource for language teachers. The work provides sufficient depth as to be more palatable to an audience that has a basis within the research, but yet is written to be accessible to the beginner. Of particular benefit is the point that the authors have made to include multiple citations and full bibliographies to each chapter. This allows the work to become a spring board for a more serious investigation of the primary research on any of the topics discussed within the work and has helped me develop an understanding of areas covered in the two subsequent themes of reading and motivation in second language teaching.

As I transitioned into teaching at the college level after beginning the MSLT program, I was confronted by the conflict that seemingly lies between all educational research and application of research-based principles in an actual classroom setting. Lee and VanPatten (2003) have played a significant role in helping me to bridge the gap between theory and practice. Their work provides excellent background knowledge for classroom language teachers. Issues regarding language learning research and concepts are discussed with an eye toward application in the language classroom. The authors begin with a discussion of the Atlas complex, or the tendency for language instructors to dominate the class with regard to language production, through activities that are teacher-centered, and allowing minimal student choice. The authors argue for the development of
a classroom where the teacher takes on a less domineering role through implementation of communicative activities. This perspective is central to the rest of the work. The text includes sections on: shifting the burden of learning onto the students and creating an environment that enables the student to take control of their own learning; building instruction around communication; and the concept of input, particularly the qualities that the instructor should strive for in the input that is presented to the students in order to help acquisition happen.

This book was helpful to me as I considered the design of my own classroom coming into a new setting as I began to teach at the college level. I have found that the gap between principles discussed in books and in academic literature, and the actual application of those ideas in a classroom setting can, at times, be frustrating to traverse, yet therein lays the art of teaching. The authors of this text have made their volume more accessible than many comparable volumes which aids teachers in bridging the gap between of ideals and application. Particularly, the central theme of moving away from the Atlas complex has made me reconsider not only my approach in the language classroom, but my perspective on formal instruction as a whole.

Another volume that has been helpful for me in developing a broader understanding of research related language learning issues and being able to bridge the gap between research and the classroom is *Lightbown and Spada (2006)*. The authors have provided an excellent introduction to topics related to language acquisition. After summarizing theories relating to L1 acquisition, the authors build on those theories and introduce new material applicable to L2 learning. I very much appreciated the discussion of L1 language learning and feel L2 teachers can benefit greatly from an understanding of
L1 language acquisition. Both sections of the book provide information on a broad range of theories and give perspective through discussions of older, as well as more current, theories. Individual factors influencing L2 acquisition are discussed, including: intelligence, aptitude, personality, motivation, and learner beliefs. The second half of the book deals with learner language, observation schemes for teaching and learning and types of feedback and their relative strengths and weaknesses. The work culminates in a discussion of several proposals for best practices in classroom language teaching. The authors set themselves apart in giving examples of research papers that support their claims and explanations and bringing the research into the discussion through reference to actual projects and premises rather than simple citations and reporting of findings. This book has provided me with some much needed background knowledge to be able to better participate in the discussions that are found in the literature. Lightbown and Spada are also notable in my education because of the inclusion of a broader range of material and perspectives on language learning and classroom teaching than I have found in other texts. Though my core teaching philosophy revolves around communicative language teaching, I have been influenced by a variety of theories and disciplines. Lightbown and Spada have given me valuable background information from which I have been able to launch into a deeper understanding of other theories within SLA.

One theory of education that has impacted me professionally is Sociocultural theory (SCT). Sociocultural theory is grounded in the work of Vygotsky, who was a psychologist but wrote extensively about learning and language. In recent years his work has been a focus for educational theorists who wish to move away from the dominant, western approach to learning and education. For Vygotsky (1978), all learning has a
social genesis. He describes learning as being distinct from development, “learning is not development; however, properly organized learning results in mental development and sets in motion a variety of developmental processes that would be impossible apart from learning. Thus, learning is a necessary and universal aspect of the process of developing culturally organized, specifically human, psychological functions” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 90). Vygotsky talks about development in terms of internalizing psychological tools and describes the process of mediation, or goal oriented action through indirect means (for example, language), as the basis for all higher psychological functions. Vygotsky is perhaps best known for his discussion of the zone of proximal development (ZPD). Development occurs as learners engage in socially mediated activities and are able to gradually internalize new psychological tools allowing them to more effectively solve a given problem. Learning creates a space wherein development can happen. Vygotsky labels this space as the ZPD.

In pondering my own learning through interacting with SCT, I think that the most impactful changes to my thought process with regard to teaching and learning have to deal with the centrality of the social nature of learning and development and the focus on activity. Now as I think about the ZPD, I think on how I can get my students ‘in the zone.’ All of this comes together and I find myself thinking less about what I need to do to teach my students and more about what I can do to build the circumstances and activities by which my students may learn. Reading the original works of Vygotsky prepared me to better understand current authors who write from an SCT perspective. More current work in SCT includes Lantolf and Poehner (2008), who present an excellent compilation of work based on SCT and focusing specifically on SLA. Through
this work I have come to see what SCT based language teaching might look like in a classroom. For example, the use of dialogue journals is discussed, where students write back and forth with the teacher about topics that are relevant to their lives. The use of theater, both scripted and improvisational, as a language instruction tool is discussed. Another example is a section discussing the use of conceptual frameworks to teach students to make grammatical choices in the L2. All of these approaches focus on developing psychological tools through which students can develop skills in the L2.

Another area of particular focus of mine has been the educational context of teaching English as a second language (ESL) within the United States. **Gottlieb (2006)** writes from this perspective. Due to the educational climate of public schools in the United States, a major area of concern is that of standardized testing. Because of the focus that has been placed on large scale high stakes testing by the federal and state governments, many teachers have come to think of tests in particular, and the topic of assessment in general, in a negative light. However, in my reading of Gottlieb (2006) and through discussions in course work dedicated to the topic of assessment, I have come to appreciate the importance of assessment in any educational endeavor. Gottlieb (2006) does an admirable job of presenting the topic of assessment in a positive light, and focusing on the powerful connection that should exist between educational assessment and academic achievement. As a teacher, it is critical to be aware of the development of one’s students in order to be able to plan and deliver lessons that meet the needs of the students. Gottlieb highlights the importance of using formative assessment strategies and of using data from large-scale tests as a diagnostic tool for building curriculum rather than a simple summative measure. Across my education my idea of what assessment
means has broadened from a narrow understanding consisting of a view that was
dominated by summative testing measures delivered in multiple choice format, to an
understanding of assessment as consisting of a host of tools and approaches designed to
show an instructor the level of understanding/proficiency of his or her students. This
assessment data is then to be employed in adapting instruction to meet the needs of the
students.

Another work in the field of ESL, and particularly bilingual education in the
United States, is that of Moraes (1996). The author expounds on and adapts theories
proposed by a pair of Russian writers and thinkers, referred to herein as the Bakhtin
circle, to the specific case of bilingual education in the United States. The author is
critical of the history of government policies with regard to the issue, as well as the social
pressures exhibited on systems of bilingual education. The author is also critical of
structural linguistics as a tool for informing the teaching of language. The Bakhtin circle
views language not as a set system that can be understood through rules of operation but
as something that is inherently changeable and shifting. In their view, language is based
in the interaction of its users and is fundamentally tied to their social, cultural, and
political ideologies (whether the speakers acknowledge or understand the fact or not).
The author stresses the role of language in oppression of minority groups, in this case, by
American school systems not fostering the growth of students in their first languages and
by focusing entirely on the teaching of English.

I am very much interested in bilingual education, particularly with English and
Spanish bilinguals in the United States. I appreciate the author’s in-depth analysis of the
history of bilingual education and the author’s passionate arguments in support of it. I
applaud bilingual education from the perspective of benefits to the individual student. To the extent that it is possible, I believe that students will be ideally served by learning in their L1 alongside English language instruction (both in the language itself and content through the language). I would be particularly pleased to see the further growth of bilingual education programs locally, particularly for the Spanish language, as I think that students whose L1 is Spanish are being disadvantaged by the current system.

Lastly, and again within the educational context of ESL in the United States, Combs and Ovando (2012) provide a volume that covers a wide range of issues from the historical and political context of ESL instruction to best practices in the ESL classroom. This work is notable for the particular emphasis that the authors place on teaching to a diverse student population. In the United States, ethnic minority groups, who often speak English as a second language, are historically not achieving the same levels of academic success as their peers. This is a critical issue today in the United States due to the changing social demographic and the increase in the population of students whose first language is not English. Combs and Ovando’s (2012) work highlights areas of concern that need to be addressed through thoughtful lesson planning, curricular design, and classroom teaching for diverse populations.

As a teacher of second languages my practice is informed by theory and research in CLT, as well as other educational theories and contexts, such as ESL and bilingual education and SCT. In clearly understanding my foundational base, yet being informed of and open to other ideas and approaches, I hope to teach all of my students as effectively as possible.
Reading in a Second Language

As I have focused on language teaching during my graduate studies, my commitment to literacy instruction has increased. Literacy is a critical educational issue for this generation. Carnegie Council on Advancing Adolescent Literacy (2010) prepared a report designed to give a brief understanding of the current state of adolescent literacy in the USA. Test scores show that as students move into the higher grades (4th through 12th), the percentage of students who are reading on grade level steadily decreases. With this information as a backdrop, the report goes on to outline recommendations for educators designed to address the literacy achievement gap found in adolescents vs. the lower grades. Key concepts include: the use of assessment data to monitor students’ progress and to be able to make effective interventions before students have fallen too far behind; the need to explicitly teach vocabulary through a variety of means, steering away from the dictionary and definition approach; and the need to teach comprehension of extended text in a variety of genres and through a variety of methods.

Adolescent literacy is an important educational issue of our times in the United States, perhaps, the crucial educational issues of our times. The fact that many of the nation’s adolescents struggle with literacy highlights a weakness in our educational system as well as highlighting the need for those who work with second language learners to work even harder in helping those students to develop literacy skills within the L1 and the L2. This document also contains useful insights on teaching vocabulary,
which is of prime interest to me as a language instructor. Contrary to my previous assumption, I now know that many students do not read well in their first language. With that in mind, it may be necessary to adapt my L2 reading activities to meet the needs of struggling L1 readers. My understanding of literacy as a critical educational issue for students in the United States is a backdrop for my understanding of L2 literacy.

A core piece of the literature regarding L2 literacy is Krashen (1989). Krashen conducts a meta-analysis of a number of studies to support his Input Hypothesis. Specifically, Krashen argues that vocabulary and spelling are best acquired through reading as input. I agree with Krashen with the caveats that accompany earlier mention of SLA input. The input must have a level of comprehensibility that allows for the reader to make meaning out of words that are unfamiliar. I know from personal experience that the bulk of my L1 vocabulary has been acquired through reading. I also know from experience that reading can be a powerful tool for vocabulary and spelling development in the L2.

Research on reading in the L2 is informed by research on L1 reading. A common measurement, particularly at lower level, of reading competence is oral reading fluency. Fuchs, Fuchs, Hosp, and Jenkins (2001) provide an analysis of studies in the field of L1 reading, particularly with regard to aspects of fluency (reading with speed, accuracy, and intonation). The authors summarize and draw common themes from a variety of works from the decade preceding the publication. The authors conclude that oral reading fluency continues to be an important and measurable predictor of students’ reading ability, including comprehension. In their conclusion the authors quote an earlier researcher, echoing the conclusion, “A decade ago, Adams (1990) reminded the field that
oral reading fluency is the most salient characteristic of skillful reading. Theoretical perspectives on the development of reading capacity and empirical databases support Adams’ claim.” The authors highlight the notion that teachers may not be using oral fluency as an effective tool for informing curriculum and teaching choices even though oral reading fluency has been shown to be a powerful predictor of student ability.

An application of reading fluency research is shown by Hagaman, Luschen, and Reid (2010) who used a repeated oral reading fluency exercise as an intervention to help struggling students to improve their reading skills, particularly fluency. As mentioned earlier, L1 reading fluency has as strong tie to L1 reading comprehension, and I believe that a similar tie exists between L2 reading fluency and L2 reading comprehension. This article shows that reading fluency exercises can be used not only as an assessment, but as a part of instruction that is designed to build specific student skills.

Through reading research on oral reading fluency, I have strengthened my opinion that similar reading instructional practices as are used in early L1 reading instruction can be beneficial for L2 learners, particularly at lower levels of language proficiency. The findings by Hagaman, Luschen, and Reid (2010), in my opinion, lend support for the practice of oral reading in an L2 classroom as a way of helping students achieve literacy in the L2. Though I do not know to what extent, I do believe that that connection exists and can be used to help students. For this reason, I had my students spend time reading aloud in class while I was teaching in high school and continued to encourage my students to read aloud as I taught in college.

Though I was not able to find many studies dealing with reading aloud in the L2 directly, some work has been done. Shapiro (2006) used a timed reading for fluency to
track the growth of English language learners (ELL) in reading fluency. Students in a bilingual program were tracked in their English fluency and Spanish fluency. The study compares them to their monolingual English speaking peers. This study focuses on tracking growth and measuring learning rates more than gross outcomes. This study shows some interesting inter-language issues. The participants were shown to have differing rates of growth (words per minute) in Spanish as compared to English. This finding shows that, while L2 reading instruction should be informed by L1 reading research and practice, there are differences that must be understood and accounted for in the L1 vs. the L2. I also appreciate Shapiro’s learning rate approach and I think that it could be a powerful way to measure learning.

As I continued to investigate the connection between L2 reading and L2 speaking, particularly reading aloud, I was very interested to find work by Walter (2008) titled “Phonology in second language reading: Not an optional extra.” The author states that reading comprehension in the L2 is not well defined as a skill that is transferable from the L1 to the L2 but is rather a matter of being able to access an existing cognitive skill through the L2. This distinction involves the integral part that verbal working memory (VWM) plays in L2 reading. This study focuses on a component of VWM called the phonological loop (PL, sometimes referred to in the literature as phonological memory). This article reports on a study involving L2 learners of French. The study demonstrates that a group of intermediate learners who have good decoding skills but poor reading comprehension in the L2 showed a poorer developed PL when compared with more advanced learners who were both good decoders and had good comprehension of L2 text. The author suggests that the findings reveal that class time would be better spent on
increased exposure to comprehensible input in the L2 as a means of developing the PL rather than teaching reading comprehension strategies in the L2.

This article has been very helpful for me in conceptualizing the cognitive process of understanding spoken as well as written language. I was readily able to associate my own language learning experiences with the model proposed in the work. The concept of the PL is particularly fascinating to me. I think that the concept of building a student’s knowledge of L2 phonemes as a way to increase listening and reading comprehension is a powerful insight.

Hummel and French (2010) further illustrate the connection between L2 reading and L2 phonetics by applying the idea of phonological memory (PM) to the L2 context. PM represents a sub-context of working memory, and is responsible for the short term storage of audio inputs such as verbal words, phrases, and sentences. It has been shown that PM plays an important part in both the learning of the L1 and L2. Communicative classrooms are designed to be more heavily oriented toward oral input. The authors suggest that such an approach can overly tax PM, especially for individuals with limited PM capacity. The authors suggest that using text-based oral input can be good pedagogical practice. For example, giving written instructions for activities alongside oral instructions, or using books on tape while allowing students to follow along using the written text. Also, while not mentioned specifically by the authors, I feel that having students read out loud fits this model. This practice can reduce stress on PM through allowing students to use their visual processing capacity to support audio input.

This work seems to be aligned with what I have found in my own teaching and learning. A preponderance of oral input can, at times, be daunting to students. Using text-
based methods for input is a good break for students which will allow them to relax the
tax on their PM and occupy other parts of their cognitive array, such as visual memory, to
be able to access material through multiple modalities. This article supports the practice
of teachers and students reading from text aloud as a way to get oral input but allow
students to not rely entirely on their PM.

Finally, I would like to mention a note of caution given by Garza, Horwitz, and
Yoshiko (1999) who found that just as many students experience anxiety with spoken
foreign language, students also experience anxiety with regard to written foreign
language. This is one of the reasons, among many, for which I will often have students
spend time reading out loud separately. Each student reads aloud at his or her own pace
and focuses on their own production rather than a common practice of having one student
read aloud for the entire class. Another classroom practice that can help students who
experience foreign language reading anxiety is choral reading, where the class reads
together as a whole.

From my reading on L2 reading, I have come to understand that L2 instruction
should fully include L2 literacy as an instructional goal and a vehicle for improved
vocabulary and understanding of grammar in context. I have also found that there is a
strong connection between L2 reading an L2 phonology and I believe that by using
practices such as reading aloud students will be able to improve L2 reading, L2 reading
comprehension, as well as L2 listening comprehension, and speaking fluency.
I was initially very excited when I first encountered the topic of motivation in my courses and in literature on L2 teaching. I thought, now I will find the secrets to getting students to care about my class and the language that I have come to love. As I have read about the topic further, I have realized that this topic, as most are, is more complicated than I had originally thought. When I think of motivation, I often think of a process or an action. However, in SLA research motivation is generally constructed as a characteristic of the learner which is often viewed as a static trait. Through personal experience and hope as an educator, I believe that motivation is not a static learner trait but one that is fluid. My reactions to the readings are framed by this belief.

A foundational article on motivation is Gardner and Lambert (1959), one of the first explorations of this construct within the context of SLA. The authors set a background for their study by referencing work done in L1 acquisition and making a correlation to the L2 case. They discuss the fact that motivational factors play a role in L1 learning and that it is not solely dependent on an intelligence index, or language learning aptitude. With this in mind, the authors conduct their study on a group of high school students learning French in Canada to explore the relationship of multiple factors on L2 acquisition. The study involves a battery of measures which include language proficiency measures, language aptitude measures, and a measure designed to investigate the motivations for the learner’s desire to learn the L2. The motivational measure was
divided into two categories, integrative motivation (the desire to form a part of the social group represented by the language being studied) and instrumental (the perceived value of the language with regard to potential jobs, facility of travel, etc.). The authors found that there was a correlation between language learning success and motivation and, furthermore, that the integrative mode of motivation was a more powerful predictor of the two for language learning success.

Gardner is one of the big names in motivation in SLA. As such, I wanted to read some of his early work to build a foundational knowledge of the work that has come since on motivation in SLA. I think that these findings and Gardner’s later work focusing on integrative motivation present an excellent argument for the teaching of culture in the L2 classroom, as I feel that such teaching can create, or encourage, integrative motivation within students. Further along those lines, I believe teachers should look for opportunities for their students to be able to interact with native speakers. For example, Spanish learners in many parts of the United States have access to native speakers with relative facility, but the opportunity is often not taken. L2 teachers can provide a bridge for students to connect with native speakers in their community.

More recently, and on a much larger scale, Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) have investigated motivation in adolescent students in Europe. Their study involves a large number of students: over 8,500 students were surveyed at two points, once in 1993 and once in 1999. One group of students was surveyed in the first year and another group of students of the same age in the second year mentioned. The study elucidates the interplay of factors that play into motivation in SLA, particularly as they work with the language choice of the students. The authors found that the key variable through which all the
others were mediated was integrativeness. The authors conclude that these findings affirm the key importance of Gardner’s work on integrative motivation as central to motivation within SLA. I was drawn to this study by the large sample size. Interestingly, it appears that 50 years after Gardner proposed the importance of integrative motivation as a key factor in predicting student success in SLA, today the idea holds true still. Clearly a student’s desire to participate in the culture represented by the TL is an important piece of the motivational puzzle.

Further investigation into the topic brought me to MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei, and Noels (1998) and their concept of willingness to communicate (WTC). The authors develop a model for WTC in the context of a second language. WTC was first developed in the context of the L1 and is thought of primarily as a personality-like trait. However, the authors transferred the idea to the L2 context where a complex interplay of factors will affect a person’s WTC in the TL. This work represents the first attempt to define a comprehensive model of WTC in the L2 context. The main body of the work is dedicated to the discussion of a model conceptualized in the form of a pyramid with several contributing factors that lead ultimately to a WTC. Some of the factors discussed as contributing to WTC are: personality, intergroup climate, communicative competence, social situation, intergroup attitudes, self-confidence, intergroup motivation, interpersonal motivation, state communicative self-confidence, and desire to communicate with a specific person. At the pinnacle of the pyramid is L2 use, suggesting that the aforementioned factors influence WTC, which is a prerequisite for L2 use. The authors recommend that WTC should be a primary goal of L2 instruction.
More recently, **Macintyre (2007)** wrote further about the model and emphasized the need to understand speaking in an L2 as a volitional process and the role of WTC in that process. I think that the concept of WTC defines what teachers of an L2 should have as their end goal in designing their curriculum and classroom culture. Every aspect of instruction should be geared toward not only giving students the tools for communication but helping them develop the willingness, and even the desire, to use those tools. Though the model of WTC is composed of many pieces, one of the foundational pieces is that of motivation.

As I have pondered teaching and learning, my thoughts have shifted from viewing the question of how to motivate students as one of dynamic cheerleading (though there often needs to be some of that) to thinking about how the curriculum and the class structure can affect student motivation. **Lasagabaster (2011)** investigated differences in motivation and English achievement in two groups of students. One group of students participated in a traditional English as a foreign language (EFL) course while the other group of students participated in the traditional EFL course with an additional course taught in English with a focus on content learning. These types of programs are referred to as Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) programs. The study was carried out in the Basque Country which is a province of Spain. The learners there have little contact with native speakers of English. Lasagabaster finds that the CLIL group achieves higher English proficiency in all areas tested (Speaking, Listening, Writing, and Grammar). This in and of itself can potentially be accounted for solely by the time on task variance between the two groups. However, Lasagabaster also found a significantly higher level of motivation in the CLIL group with regard to English learning. The author concludes that
CLIL programs can help increase motivation for language learning, particularly when compared with programs consisting of only traditional EFL courses.

I found this article to be fascinating. Here the nature of the language course affected learning. In order to enhance a school language program, a content course was added. By positioning the language learning with content instruction as the vehicle students were not only making gains in language and content but were more motivated as well. The author doesn’t discuss the level of achievement that the students were able to attain in the content material covered in their CLIL programs, but assuming that they are making adequate gains in the content area, the argument for these types of programs is strong when looking at it from a language learning perspective. Dual-language immersion programs in Utah are operating on a similar premise and state officials assert that there is no lack of gains in content learning in these programs. Therefore, if the content learning is sufficient, and the increase in language proficiency is marked, as is the increase in language learning motivation, it seems that these types of programs should have their place in more educational systems. In my own case, as a FL instructor, I think that one application of this idea would be to have units of content learning within the FL course itself. This might be a good opportunity to build in student choice into a course. Students could help choose topics around which content learning units could be constructed.

Another interesting article relating to the beneficial connection between language learning and content learning is Mohan and Slater (2010): a comparison piece on work done by two Canadian teachers in a high school. One teaches a mainstream science course and the other teaches an ESL science course that is designed to deal with grade level material but at a slower pace and with a language focus, a practice often referred to
as sheltered instruction. The study focuses on the shared register of science that the teachers are working in but on the different classroom language that each uses. The authors advocate for increased cooperation between ESL teachers and content teachers.

This piece was mainly interesting to me because of the aspect of cooperation between the ESL teacher and the mainstream teacher. I also was interested in the content-based ESL class. I think that ESL programs in secondary schools would be much better if they were able to coordinate instruction and assessment with the content area programs in which the students are enrolled. I was also intrigued by the possibilities of ESL instructors consulting with content area teachers on how to improve instruction and assessment for ELL’s. Clearly, the design of our courses and the overarching design of the educational system have a crucial role in affecting student motivation.

Lastly, I have come to realize the importance of being aware of and planning to mitigate factors that will negatively affect a student’s motivation specifically or WTC. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) wrote one of the most cited articles in the area of foreign language anxiety (FLA) research. In this article the authors were the first to propose the notion of a specific, state anxiety dealing with situations that arise in learning a foreign language in a scholastic setting. The study reports findings from a survey that the authors developed. Examples of items from the survey are: I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class; It frightens me when I don’t understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language; I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in my language class. The authors report on findings from a group of four Spanish classes at a university. The authors’ findings support the existence of a specific type of anxiety that has to do with language learning.
Findings on anxiety in second language learning have important pedagogical implications. The study showed that many of the students surveyed indicated signs of FLA. High levels of anxiety can negatively impact students’ motivation within the classroom and decrease WTC. Teachers should work to build environments where all of their students can have success. It is important for teachers to actively look for and implement practices that will reduce student anxiety.

Some key elements for improving student motivation are building engaging curriculum, making connections between language learning and other disciplines, and striving to help students make connections with the TL and the culture represented by that language. With these elements in mind, and by working to mitigate factors that negatively affect student motivation, I am confident that second language instructors as a body can improve the quality of language instruction and the love of languages and cultures here in the United States.
Looking Forward

As I think about the future, my main wish is to continue on the journey of learning upon which I have embarked. In education, as in all professions, it is imperative to continue growing, changing, thinking, and becoming. As I continue to grow personally and professionally I am confident that I will be more successful and that my students will be more successful, if only by learning the important lesson of becoming a life-long learner.

The MSLT program has prepared me to be a successful educator in a variety of contexts, but especially in my intended field of Spanish foreign language instruction and ESL instruction in high schools in the United States. My undergraduate degree was in Chemistry and I taught some classes of Chemistry as part of my student teaching. What has been interesting for me as I look to the future is that my time in the MSLT program has influenced the way that I view education in general, not only with regard to language learning. Because of the MSLT program I will be not only a qualified and well-prepared teacher of second languages, but have gained a valuable perspective on education that will inform even all my teaching and learning.
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http://www.icrj.eu/12/article1.html


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