A Journey of Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

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A Journey of Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

by

I-Chiao Hung

A portfolio submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree
of
MASTER OF SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

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UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY
Logan, Utah
2017
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ABSTRACT

A Journey of Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

by

I-Chiao Hung: Master of Second Language Teaching
Utah State University, 2017

Major Professor: Dr. Joshua J. Thoms
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This portfolio is designed to share with the reader the author’s beliefs about a number of issues related to effective foreign language (FL) learning and teaching rooted in theoretical foundations of second language acquisition as well as provide insights about her own teaching and observation experiences per the requirements for her Master of Second Language Teaching (MSLT) program. The target languages focused on in this portfolio are FL Chinese and English.

Divided into three main parts, this portfolio addresses: 1) the author’s teaching philosophy; 2) language, literacy, and culture papers from research perspectives; and 3) annotated bibliographies that serve as additional records of the author’s learning while in the MSLT program. The language paper is a hypothetical study involving the technological application of Memrise in FL Chinese classrooms. The literacy paper is a description of a proposed study that examines the use and effects of digital storytelling on Chinese FL learners’ writing and speaking skills. Finally, the culture paper is a literature
review that focuses on the impact of English and Chinese FL learners’ identities on their learning.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my gratitude to those who helped me complete this portfolio and who have guided me through my teaching and learning processes while I was a student in the MSLT program.

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Lastly, I sincerely appreciate my mom and aunt for their emotional and financial support and for pushing me to become the best that I can become in this journey.
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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACTFL = American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

CALL = Computer Assisted Language Learning

CLT = Communicative Language Teaching

COERLL = Center for Open Educational Resources and Language Learning

DST = Digital Storytelling

EFL = English as a Foreign Language

ELC = English Language Center

FL = Foreign Language

L1 = First Language / Native Language

L2 = Second Language

MALL = Mobile Assisted Language Learning

MSLT = Master of Second Language Teaching

SATS = Self-Assessment of Teaching Statement

SLA = Second Language Acquisition

TL = Target Language

USU = Utah State University
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INTRODUCTION

This portfolio is a combination of theory and practice which accumulates the work I have accomplished throughout the Master of Second Language Teaching (MSLT) program at Utah State University (USU). I visualize the portfolio as a journey of my teaching and learning experiences as a Chinese graduate instructor and a graduate student at USU. As I move forward to my teaching career, I will always reflect my original intention and aspiration in this portfolio and continue to cultivate my teaching knowledge and skills.

The main concepts of this portfolio are: 1) teaching foreign language via a communicative approach with accommodations to fit the needs and contexts of students; and 2) integrating technology into foreign language classrooms based on the goals and objectives of the class. These two concepts will be presented in the three sections in this portfolio: a) teaching perspectives; b) research perspectives; and c) annotated bibliographies based on the two former sections.

As a graduate instructor, teaching beginning-level Chinese language courses at USU has inspired and challenged me to put theory into practice. I am learning, teaching, and relearning every day in my journey of becoming a better language teacher during my time in the MSLT program. As a result, most of the classroom examples I provide in this portfolio are from my beginning-level Chinese language classes at USU.
TEACHING PERSPECTIVES
APPRENTICESHIP OF OBSERVATION

When I began my studies at the National Taipei University of Education in Taiwan, I took time to explore what I wanted to do by working in different kinds of internships and part-time jobs. I studied language and creative writing, focusing on Chinese modern literature, and thought I might be a blog writer or work for a publishing house someday. It never occurred to me to pursue a Master of Second Language Teaching degree outside of my country until I broadened my horizons by studying abroad as an exchange student at Utah State University in 2012. Looking back on my apprenticeship with various teachers in different learning environments, I have bad and good memories of general learning. I am grateful that all these learning experiences make me ponder critically again and again what kind of foreign language teacher I want to become. I will highlight here the three teachers who shaped my perspectives of teaching and the turning point of my language learning history.

I have never forgotten the scene of watching my mother’s teaching when I was seven years old. I was inspired to be a teacher by my mother, who is an excellent Chinese high-school teacher. At that time, I went to her school after class every day. I usually hid at the back door watching her teach. As she taught in a caring manner with a soft voice, my mother exuded intelligence and patience; her right hand and textbook always covered with chalk dust. This has remained an enduring image of teaching for me. At home, she never blamed me for my school performance. She instead asked me if I truly understood when doing the test corrections from school. She didn’t evaluate my performance by grades, and she knew I was sorry to disappoint her when I got bad grades in Math. The most valuable lesson I learned from her is that students are allowed to make mistakes, but
are then responsible for making a conscious effort not to repeat them. I want to be an understanding teacher and help students, especially those who are behind the rest of the class, to discover strategies for their learning. I am forever grateful to my mother for not only being a superwoman in my family, but also being a paragon of a teacher who cares about the development of each learner instead of competition among learners.

I studied in the ‘advanced program’ when I was in junior and senior high school. This level of the education system in Taiwan focuses on reading and writing skills in English. English as a foreign language is a subject of the curriculum in schools throughout the country. I was mainly taught by the Audiolingual Method (ALM), which included much pressure and anxiety. Before entering into college, the primary responsibility for students in Taiwan was to study, study, and study. I tried to memorize all of the vocabulary and grammatical structures and wrote lots of papers and exams. It is tiring and not effective for either students or teachers. My homeroom teacher, Mrs. Lee, always sat behind the lectern and maintained a poker face. I never saw a smile on her face when I talked to her. She told me indirectly that I would not be able to get into a good high school, though later I did enter the best high school for girls in my city. During my teen years, nightmares of bad grades and the following physical punishments sometimes woke me up. I did not like to go to school at that time since learning brought enormous anxiety and depression to me. In that context, English as a foreign language was just a school subject to me, far removed from being a means of communication in Taiwan.

What I learned from Mrs. Lee and the formal learning environments in Taiwan during my teens was that I would never be a teacher that brings students down. Appropriate pressure pushes learners to a higher level; excessive pressure drives learners
up the wall. However, I still feel fortunate to have had this learning experience, since it always reminds me to be a positive and encouraging teacher as much as I can. Though I do not have the power to change the education system, I can make differences in my classroom. I believe learning should be fun and effective in the classroom without anxiety, thus creating a win-win situation both for teacher and learners.

I met my life coach at the English Institute during my years in high school. Mr. Hanson’s English class became the shelter I went to every week to relieve my stress of studying. He was always full of energy and humor during the three-hour class. He organized the curricular materials in order, integrated prefixes and suffixes of English words in a system to help us save time in studying English for better preparation in other subjects. Though the class was not taught communicatively, the education system of Taiwan and English as a curriculum subject should be considered, too. What I have benefitted tremendously from Mr. Hanson was his life attitude. He once said, “You will forget the content I taught you in the future, but you will not forget the life lessons I shared with you.” He is a vivid example of conquering many difficulties, and I thought of him and his positive words whenever I had a hard time facing my challenges. I hope to be a teacher who accompanies my students on their paths of learning. They need to know it is not the end of the world if they are not doing well in school; however, they must find a position that they will strive for without hesitation but passion. I’m always available for my students if they need assistance or encouragement as I believe that learning should not be a lonely task.

Observing my mother, Mrs. Lee, and Mr. Hanson, I developed a mental picture of a teacher I want to be. I want to be full of patience for my students and full of passion for
my teaching job. I hope my students know they are welcome to make mistakes, and I admire their every effort toward learning. I will encourage them to think critically outside the box about what they want to do instead of staying in their comfort zone. Education in Taiwan is largely force-feeding students how to answer standard questions mechanically, as opposed to the more interactive learning in western contexts. Undoubtedly, sitting in the classroom passively and staring at the slides to pass page after page are not effective ways to learn.

When I came to the United States as an exchange student and became a Chinese teaching assistant for a beginning-level Chinese class at USU, I re-found the excitement of being a teacher as my dream. What is more, I decided I wanted to become a Chinese teacher overseas. This exchange year was also the turning point for learning English as a foreign language for me because I was initially not able to follow or understand what the native speakers were talking about. At the end of the first week after I arrived at USU, my language partner invited me to his friend’s house for some home-baked apple pie. They chatted and laughed, and I understood 70 percent of the content of their conversation. However, I was not able to speak or express any thoughts, and I faded out of the conversation easily since I did not participate well. At that moment, I recognized that I did not have the ability to communicate in real life by using English, even though I had studied it since I was seven years old.

At the same time, I was fascinated by how language classes were being taught at USU. I craved to know more about the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach, how it works in the language classroom, and how I could apply it to my teaching. Language teaching should focus on communication, with grammar assuming a
more secondary role, and instruction should emphasize using the target language with visual aids or body language for better comprehensible input in classrooms.

I appreciate the learning opportunity to enter to the Master of Second Language Teaching (MSLT) program in 2015. The best part for me is that I can apply in my teaching practice what I have learned and believe. My professors and colleagues are my best company. Through observations of my colleagues’ classes, I have seen the effectiveness of CLT. Sharing, guiding, and interacting with the students and seeing they were enjoying the class have made me who I am as a joyful teacher. Furthermore, immersing the students in Chinese culture through cultural events and having cultural and language exchange with their language partners are important parts of my teaching. Being familiar with Chinese culture will not only help students achieve pragmatic competence, but also know how to interact with native speakers properly. It has been a long way for me to figure out what kind of foreign language teacher I want to be, and what kind of language classroom I would like to provide for my students. I’m so glad to be in the MSLT program at Utah State University, and I will keep developing my knowledge base and skills as a teacher on my journey.
PROFESSIONAL ENVIRONMENT

My professional training in the MSLT program and my experience as an instructor of Chinese have helped me become an effective teacher who monitors learners’ growth and implements engaging pedagogical methods to create an environment conducive to learning. My primary goal, based on my enjoyable experience of teaching novice-level Chinese language courses at Utah State University, is to teach Chinese as a foreign language at the college level. Furthermore, experiencing an internship at the English Language Center in Logan has provided me with an opportunity to know the difficulties of learning a foreign language from the perspectives of adult learners. Whether I will be teaching Chinese or English, my teaching philosophy and research papers are based on how to integrate technology tools and cultural content in the foreign language classroom effectively.

In the future, I hope to teach Chinese or English at the college level or at a secondary school. This portfolio is focused on the application of the theories and concepts that I have learned from the MSLT program. My experiences in the MSLT program, coupled with the creation of this portfolio have helped me to better understand how to create a more meaningful Chinese and English language learning environment with my students via activities that include communicative interactions and multimedia materials.
TEACHING PHILOSOPHY STATEMENT

In my journey to become a professional foreign language teacher, my experience as an English foreign language learner informs my practice as a native-speaking instructor of Chinese. “No one should teach who is not in love with teaching” (Sangster, 1909, p. 23). I love to see students’ eyes sparkling when they are able to push themselves to use the target language (i.e., Chinese) to convey messages to others. I have empathy for my students because I know the difficulties of learning a foreign language, which may include managing one’s own feelings, confidence, and the highs and lows of the learning process. My professional training at the graduate level and my experience as an instructor of Chinese have helped me become a more effective teacher. I monitor learners’ growth and implement engaging pedagogical methods to create an environment conducive to learning. My mission is to immerse students in a supportive learning community where students are welcome to openly pose questions and make mistakes, experience Chinese culture and develop cultural awareness, interact in communicative practice by using the target language, and benefit from technology and multimedia materials.

Achieving these objectives requires inspiring students to become active participants. To that end, I strive to create a student-centered learning environment to enable students to develop critical thinking skills, accomplish real-world tasks, and solve real-world problems through interaction in the target language. Furthermore, becoming familiar with Chinese culture helps my students achieve pragmatic competence so they can interact appropriately in various contexts, reflect their own culture and respect others’ perspectives. I relish my role as a facilitator who helps learners uncover the material and provide the proper tools, time, and space to favor different needs. I consider promoting
development of 21st-century skills (e.g., interactive communication skills and technology literacy skills), which is important in language teaching (Hayes & Itani-Adams, 2014; Thang, et al., 2014). These beliefs are manifested in my language classroom and I will explain how those are enacted in the following sections: communicative language teaching; applying technology to the language classroom; and incorporating cultural context to instruction.

**Communicative Language Teaching**

I was first introduced to communicative language teaching (CLT) (Lee & VanPatten, 2003) when I started my Master of Second Language Teaching (MSLT) program at Utah State University. I view CLT as a student-centered approach to facilitate learners’ use of target language in a meaningful communication. The teacher as an “architect” (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001, p. 8) who assists students in language learning and to develop critical thinking skills for solving the real-world problems. The curriculum and each lesson should be designed with the communicative objectives of the national language standards (e.g., NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements) in mind and the language tasks should also reflect everyday communicative situations. To achieve these principles, I will explain the fundamental roles of a teacher and a student; the importance of Can-Do statements; task-based activities in the classroom; and the use of the target language.

**Role of Teacher and Learner in a Classroom**

Every student in the classroom is a unique individual. Teachers need to provide opportunities for students to learn at their specific pace with essential skills to deal with real-world situations. One of the goals for teachers is to create a learning environment
offering a range of instructional activities so that learners with individual strengths and preferences can all benefit from the L2 classroom (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). The teacher as a facilitator needs to guide students carefully and appropriately to help them develop the ability to apply strategies for language learning and the ability to adapt to a changing world.

Before I was introduced to the CLT approach in the MSLT program, I was taught by a more traditional approach in Taiwan which is described as being teacher-oriented via a lecture style. The aforementioned traditional approach to language teaching is not considered by many to be effective. The instructor as authority and expert was codified via a teaching method called Audiolingual Methodology, Audiolingualism, or ALM (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). In ALM, the teacher’s role is one that is central in the classroom and is someone who transmits all of their knowledge to the students through drills of repeating and imitating dialogues, an overt focus on grammar structures, and decontextualized/non-communicative worksheets. ‘Repeat after me’ is a common request from the teacher in a traditional ALM classroom. Students need to memorize the various materials delivered by teachers but barely remember anything after the exams; they carry out grammatical and lexical drills like parrots. Most of the time in an ALM classroom is dedicated to having the teacher speak and the students passively listen or repeat the materials and activities presented to them. “Teaching cannot be a process of transference of knowledge from the one teaching to the learner. This is the mechanical transference from which results in machinelike memorization” (Freire, 2005, p. 40). The students in ALM classrooms are like machines, and they keep repeating the same models with their classmates or teacher.
On the other hand, the teachers who apply CLT in their classrooms are viewed as facilitators or learning guides. During my CLT journey, I took time to switch the main role of the classroom to students. A student-centered classroom environment is “dynamic, constantly changing, in part at least because of the part played by learners in helping to construct and reconstruct them” (Ellis, 2012, p. 192). Students are the main figures in the classroom; they are active and interact with each other to exchange messages in contrast to the robotic roles students typically take on in an ALM-oriented classroom. “If you can’t use a language, you don’t know a language” (Liskin-Gasparro, 1987, p. 295).

Language is a tool to communicate in the real world. I believe teachers should provide the environment and tasks related to the real world in the class. The CLT approach has challenged the traditional ways of language learning regarding the roles of teachers and students as it pushes students to take the initiative of their learning. “An implication of communicative competence for language teachers is that students need more than grammatical or linguistic knowledge to function in a communicative setting” (Shrum & Glisan, 2010, p. 14). This allows students to use the target language outside of the classroom, when they are engaged in real-life tasks (e.g., ordering food on the phone).

**The Can-Do Statements**

At the beginning of each semester, the teacher provides a syllabus of what students are going to learn and accomplish in a one-semester course. I like to anticipate what my students would accomplish at the end of the semester and look back to each unit to design the lesson coherently. As a result, the *NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements* (ACTFL, 2015) are useful not only for students’ self-assessment of language learning processes, but also for teachers’ assessment about the goal(s) of the class. It is a checklist for
language learners to assess what they can do with the target language in three modes of communication: interpersonal; interpretive; and presentational. These three modes are defined and emphasized under the *Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century (SFL)** (NSFLEP, 2006). The interpersonal mode is two-way communication using receptive skills and presentational skills between individuals; the interpretive mode involves one-way communication using receptive skills; and the presentational mode is comprised of one-way communication using expressive skills. Teachers should provide a learning environment that contains these three modes to help students achieve the communicative goal of language learning.

The CLT concept via the three aforementioned modes can be demonstrated in my beginning-level Chinese class at Utah State University (USU). Firstly, I typically set up pair and group work as I integrate the main concepts of each lesson with task-based activities based on the topic of the unit. In some warm-up or review activity, my students usually work on the interview questionnaires with peers from the previous class. In a two-way communication activity, they can carry on a short conversation with a partner based on what they have learned and expand to more new knowledge with open questions. For students, they are engaged in their own learning process, and they can record what they have done with the can-do statements. It helps students set learning goals and increases their motivation, step by step. For teachers, they can evaluate if the textbook reflects the communicative goal of focusing on the three modes of communication. I use the can-do statements in my Chinese language class to help students track and evaluate their learning process and assess my teaching goals and lesson plans.
**Task-based Activities in the Classroom**

Looking back at my experience of learning English, I realize that my interest in English was partly motivated by playing during language activities. One of my English teachers always provided lots of interesting activities in her class. I did not feel I was learning English grammar, vocabulary words or sentences. Rather, I felt I was playing while also using the target language (i.e., English) as a tool to earn points. And here arises a question: Did I really communicate with others in English? Or did I speak and imitate English dialogues in the games to complete the tasks? I noticed that those fun language activities pushed me to use the language without a real communication goal.

My English learning experience now reflects an important element in my lesson plans: language learning should connect to the task of real-world situation. Lee (2000) defines a task as follows:

> A task is (1) a classroom activity or exercise that has (a) an objective attainable only by the interaction among participants, (b) a mechanism for structuring and sequencing interaction, and (c) a focus on meaning exchange; (2) a language learning endeavor that requires learners to comprehend, manipulate, and/or produce the target language as they perform some set of workplans (p. 32).

The tasks are supposed to reflect real-world situations of language use. The communicative goal is the completion of the task, such as introducing USU to a Chinese international student or renting an apartment in the country of the target language. The expectation is that the target language is used to complete the task. As such, the task-based activities (TBAs) do not focus on drilling grammar or vocabulary, but rather on how the task can be completed using the target language in a meaningful way.
In my Chinese language class, I conduct meaningful conversation instead of making use of decontextualized dialogues from a textbook. I integrate the main concepts of each lesson from the textbook with real-life tasks under the topic. For example, I designed three tasks under the topic of ‘A Chinese Birthday Party’: writing birthday invitation cards; planning a birthday party for a Chinese friend; and shopping for birthday party decorations. Secondly, I provide comprehensible input for students and allow opportunities for them to negotiate meaning when they work in pairs or small groups. I explain every task with models and provide students with response sheets with tables, charts, or graphs to be filled in. My novice-level students are comfortable with collaborative work and they push themselves to communicate with each other mainly in Chinese. I believe classroom communication is combined with meaningful tasks related to real-world situations which can be practiced through role-playing, group working, follow-up information sheets, and online/in-class discussions.

**The Use of Target Language**

During my early time in the MSLT program, one of my primary difficulties in Chinese language teaching was to implement Chinese at least 90% of the class time. I believe foreign language teachers and students should use the target language as exclusively as possible (i.e., 90% plus) during class time (ACTFL Standards, 2015). Knowing the fact that immersing oneself in the target language provides learners with more exposure to the real-world environment, I was keen to talk and explain in Chinese in my classroom and lessen the use of students’ first language (i.e., English). Language learning requires “using the language to interpret and express real-life messages” (Lee & Van Patten, 2003, p. 6). Teachers should stay in the target language as much as possible
and design the communicative tasks related to their daily lives. CLT emphasizes that learning a language is to communicate effectively through the interaction with the target language (Nunan, 1991). As a foreign language teacher, I expect myself to help the learners to see multiple possibilities of themselves and cultivate their critical thinking skills through using the target language in social interaction.

After observing a number of different foreign language classrooms and Chinese immersion classrooms, I am now more aware of how to use some effective strategies to assist my students to understand me. On my first day of the Chinese language class at USU, I state clearly that we will mainly use Chinese in our classroom. As a language teacher, it is important to model the target language for students as much as possible in the classroom. If not, they will eventually begin to expect and rely on my explanations of grammar, vocabulary, or second language culture in their first language. I provide lots of body language and pictures on PPT slides, repeat my instructions, use some signs of comprehension checks, and model the task with a higher-level student before starting the tasks. In addition, using students’ first language 10% of the class time is acceptable in my Chinese language class at USU. Two reasons should be considered here: one is the initial goal of communication is to make input comprehensible (Lee & Van Patten, 2003); one is the adult learners acquire language skills better in cognitive maturity, metalinguistic awareness, and problem-solving skills (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). I believe that students can use a little bit of their first language to clarify the tasks for meaningful negotiation if it is necessary. Similarly, I feel that it is important to explain some grammar phrases/structures in students’ L1 to provide for more meaningful comparisons between the L1 and the L2 to reinforce students’ knowledge for carrying out the tasks.
The role of a teacher in an L2 classroom should be that of an architect or a resource person (Ballman et al., 2001); the role of a student should be that of a main player on a dynamic and constantly changing stage (Ellis, 2012). It is important to encourage students to be active participants, and it is necessary to assist them to foster their language competence under the national language standards (ACTFL, 2015). Teachers should design real-life tasks to assist students to achieve communicative goals, and give them the essential tools (e.g., vocabulary, grammar structures they would need for the tasks) to support their language learning. In addition, incorporating technology into the classroom will help to ease the burden of a more efficient CLT approach, and prepare students to develop 21st-century language skills. I will explain how to facilitate Chinese language learning through technology in the next section.

Applying Technology to Chinese FL Classroom

Students today have grown up with technology, which affects how this new generation learns and processes knowledge. It is exciting that computer assisted language learning (CALL) can provide access to lots of communicative activities and interactive games, thus enhancing the learning motivation and reducing learners’ learning stress and anxiety. CALL was first defined by Levy (1997) as “the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning” (p. 1). One important aspect to consider when incorporating technology into the language classroom is to identify if the technological applications enhance the curriculum goals of the teacher and students (Bourgerie, 2003; Warschauer, 2009). It is important to underscore that the use of technology is to facilitate the teaching methodology and approach used by the instructor, and should not be employed as a substitute for teaching/the teacher. I believe
that technology can increase students’ learning motivation and promote interaction between teachers and learners when it supports the objectives of a communicative teaching approach. Regarding Chinese instruction, I incorporate technology applications to enhance Chinese foreign language vocabulary acquisition, E-communication, and Chinese foreign language writing skills.

**Chinese FL vocabulary acquisition**

Chinese language teachers have always been searching for various techniques for teaching Chinese characters, trying to make the learning process more interesting, better structured, less painful, and mutually interconnected to the Chinese vocabulary (Zahradníková, 2016). Zahradníková (2016) discusses ten frequently-used strategies from western Chinese learning students’ perspectives, which include: story; radical; imagination, component comparison; related word; similarity; drawing; personal emotion to the word; etymology; and pronunciation. Zahradníková (2016) points out an important fact that lots of teachers spend a significant amount of time explaining etymology (i.e., the original meaning of the character and its components generally provided by textbooks or teaching materials). However, it turns out that western Chinese learners do not benefit from this method. I realize that it is essential to know students’ individual learning differences and assist them to build a deeper processing of the word acquisition than doing so via mechanical memorization. Since the time dedicated to Chinese characters is limited in the classroom, the actual task and time of memorizing characters takes place outside of class. As a result, it is important to motivate and encourage students to spend time on Chinese vocabulary acquisition through technology tools.
In my beginning-level Chinese class, I incorporate the application Memrise to assist students to learn and review vocabulary. The program can be used via its website or it can be downloaded as an app in a game-based learning mode. Students receive reminders for studying the words to make sure if their virtual flowers are watered and keep growing through their smartphones or iPad (Wu, 2015); the leaderboard records students’ participation and it renews itself weekly thereby creating a positive competition in the learning community (Walker, 2016). According to Crompton (2013), mobile assisted language learning (MALL) is “learning across multiple contexts, through social and content interactions, using personal electronic devices” (p. 4). The accessibility and portability of the MALL tool Memrise increases learners’ motivation and exposure to vocabulary acquisition (Walker, 2016; Wu, 2015). I encourage students to create their learning strategies for memorizing Chinese vocabulary for each unit via mnemonic mems and share them with their classmates. In this way, students take the initiative of learning collaboratively and can process their learning on their path anytime and anywhere with their phones.

E-Communication

An important reason that I incorporate technology into my course curricula is to engage students in more communication during the face-to-face portion of class. The point of meeting in class can then become more effective for teacher-student interaction or peer-peer discussion time. Critical thinking and communication skills remain important aspects of the language classroom, especially when we have more time to teach and guide students to process the content and not just deliver the content.
Early in the semesters, I send a welcome email to students in my class with a link to a survey with questions intended to get to know them better along with their language learning history and needs (e.g., prior Chinese-learning experience, self-expectations, and anything else they want me to know before the semester begins). Instead of printing out the syllabus for students, I ask them to complete the syllabus quiz online and ask me questions before the second day of the class. E-communication can be the vehicle for many kinds of routine communication that would otherwise take up class time (Bowen, 2012). In addition, I typically create a Facebook page for the second-semester Chinese language class that I teach at USU in order to allow students to receive instant feedback and announcements, build a supportive community; and share materials regarding the content of the units/chapters in our textbook.

In addition, technology offers lots of new ways for courses to be customized and presents a way for discussion to carry on outside of class (Mazer, Murphy, & Simonds, 2007). With an abundance of publicly available materials (e.g., podcasts, videos about language learning), students are able to work on their own paths of learning (Bowen, 2012) to fit different levels or needs of students. Students are encouraged to comment, ask questions, seek and oftentimes receive instant assistance from the teaching assistant and me on the Facebook page. To have more teacher-student and peer-peer interactions, students should have advanced preparation as a learning strategy before coming to class. I encourage students to learn content as discoverers of knowledge rather than being satisfied as receivers of knowledge.
**Chinese FL Writing Skills**

I spend most of the class meeting time enhancing students’ communicative skills by using the target language in Chinese; I create the vocabulary list of each lesson on the application Memrise to assist students to memorize Chinese vocabulary outside of class. However, when both students and I struggle in conducting effective Chinese literacy tasks, I notice that I have ignored the importance of saving time in class to guide my novice students to practice their Chinese FL writing skills. Writing practice enables Chinese FL learners to form a more comprehensive memory representation of the Chinese characters, assisting them to perform better both in oral and reading tasks (Tan et al., 2005). That is, writing practice has been put forth as a memory enhancer for Chinese FL students to read and speak in Chinese. Chinese writing practice should be an important element in the curriculum of beginning-level Chinese FL classes (Knell & West, 2015; Tan et al., 2005). As a result, from the perspective of holistic communicative skills, learners must develop the ability to express themselves in the foreign language by writing and performing creative texts.

When participating in a STARTALK workshop that focused on Chinese instruction in the digital age in summer 2016, I encountered the pedagogical practice of digital storytelling (DST) that helps Chinese FL learners enhance their target language skills (e.g., writing and speaking skills) with media, increase interaction with their audience, and facilitate collaboration with peers (Hayes & Itani-Adams, 2014). “Digital storytelling (DST) involves the integration of technology and the use of interactive media (which may include digital audio, video, movies, digital comic books, and multimedia images)” (Thang et al., 2014, p. 490). I have incorporated DST as a final project along
with a month-long training workshop for students to my curriculum because I believe that DST motivates students to tell their personal story (Norton, 2016) and facilitates their holistic language skills. I follow the four stages of the DST project workshop designed by Hayes & Itani-Adams (2014) on the assessments of students’ outcomes, which consists of draft writing, narration recording, editing, and revising with interactive media. Kim (2014) claims that DST helps students make significant progress in their “overall proficiency in terms of vocabulary, sentence complexity, discourse, and pronunciation” (p. 25). I believe the ability to tell a personal story through the target language and push students to connect with their audience via technological tools can cultivate their 21st century language skills. “No matter what technology comes in the future, people will use it to fulfill the inherent need to tell their story. At the core of storytelling within education, however, is the concept of literacy” (Greenwood, 2008). This is one of the goals of communicative competence and an essential component of my curriculum.

Incorporating Cultural Context to Instruction

The internship at the English language center (ELC) and my subsequent research about that experience (i.e., see the culture paper about learner identities in this portfolio), involve an exploration of issues about identity which, in turn, have inspired me to pay more attention to students’ diverse identities (Duff & Talmy, 2011), to motivate students’ investment in language practice (Norton, 2013), and to provide students the occasion for seeing a better future for themselves (Norton, 2016) in language learning.

**Identities of a Learner**

As learners generate perspectives through various positions of life, such as the workplace, at school, or with family, these perspectives allow learners to function,
behave, and interact in the world and then reflect on how these contexts shape their views. Identity is defined as “the way a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is structured across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future” (Norton, 2016, p. 476). When one is interacting with people, they are negotiating and renegotiating themselves to a larger social world, and reconstructing that relationship with multiple positions in their lives (Moore, 2008). As a result, linguistic backgrounds, personal lives, and cultural contexts of a person to some extent are linked to his/her language learning.

Teachers need to acknowledge their own cultural identities first before assisting students to recognize and respect their own cultural identities and others’ cultural perspectives (Lindsey, 2004). I recognized that how I construct my identities as a language teacher, how the backgrounds of Taiwanese culture, history, and life experiences influence me, and how I interact with my students in the United States and renegotiate my values are all unique contexts that shape my voice and identity. When a person can appreciate the role of culture in his/her growing development, then he/her would understand how important culture is in others’ lives and would show appropriate respect to others. “Culture and identity are deeply intertwined” (Lindsey, 2004, p. 9). Teachers need to be aware of their cultural identities and be trained with pedagogy in dealing with students from diverse cultural and ethnic backgrounds.

When assisting the adult learners (e.g., immigrants, international students, and international spouses) at the ELC in their pursuit of learning English, I noticed the students of advanced ages were struggling with lots of issues. Learners’ beliefs about unequal relations of power between themselves and target language speakers (Norton,
2013); life difficulties that learners are struggling with outside of a classroom (Norton, 2015); and frustration with expressing themselves and unclear pronunciation (Lightbown & Spada, 2006) may all influence learners’ investment in their language practice(s). I cannot make learners’ lives better through language learning directly, but I can provide a supporting and safe learning community in which some of them come to class for a psychological relief (Norton, 2015). I expect myself as a FL teacher to “harness the social, cultural, and linguistic capital that language learners already possess, and to better understand their hopes for the future” (Norton, 2015, p. 389). Learners can see their possibilities through using the target language when I carry out meaningful practices in the classroom, and feel comfortable to invest to the language practices actively.

**Cultural Context**

When I am planning the curriculum each semester, I always like to know the backgrounds of my students first and adapt to their needs and learning conditions both before and while I am teaching. Bax (2003) explains that context refers to students and their learning variations, the textbook, local conditions, the classroom culture, school culture, and national culture. I believe that a teacher should be aware of and analyze students’ context first for making a better decision on an appropriate approach for each case of the classroom. When implementing CLT-oriented activities (i.e., collaborative work, the use of the target language, opportunities for meaningful communication), the emergence of context issues (e.g., social-cultural, political, and physical conditions) should not be ignored (Hiep, 2007) and need to be solved for a better cultural connection to learners’ language learning.
As a language teacher, building a positive teacher-student relationship, designing a multi-cultural curriculum, and involving cultural identities are essential factors in the language classroom as a community (Codrington & Fairchild, 2012). I incorporate Chinese cultural topics to evoke students’ self-reflection through online discussion (e.g., via our class Facebook page) and via in-class discussions; I encourage students to share their perspectives and personal stories in the target language along with showing respect to other peers’ opinions. I have become more aware of learners’ investment which may be motivated by their identities and the cultural backgrounds in foreign language learning. Learners should see their possibilities through using the target language when teachers carry out meaningful practices in the classroom (Norton, 2013), and they should also feel comfortable to invest in the language practices actively in a supportive learning community.

Conclusion

In sum, the main components of my teaching philosophy include many of the tenets of CLT, the use of technology, and the meaningful integration of culture into the curriculum. I appreciate the struggles and gaps between my ideal philosophy and real teaching practice, which indeed helps me to continually improve my teaching with my students. As a Chinese FL teacher with English FL learning experience, I always remind myself to step into students’ shoes to think about their obstacles for creating a supportive learning community. When I am teaching Chinese FL, I dedicate myself to shorten western learners’ barriers from investigating their learning perspectives and discussing the effective strategies with each of my students.
Learning a foreign language is always supposed to bring a connection to real-world communities. The emphasis of language learning should be placed on meaningful communication, rather than the accuracy of grammar (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Adapting a CLT approach to fit the needs of my students, I analyze the western contexts and Chinese contexts carefully (Hiep, 2007) with the integration of appropriate technology applications (e.g., digital storytelling and Facebook). I believe language is the most beautiful bridge to help people connect to the world since many people want others to hear their voices/stories and make connections to their communities. Owning this meaningful responsibility as a foreign language teacher, I devote myself solemnly to foster the connections to happen effectively based on my teaching philosophy statement.
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGH TEACHING OBSERVATION

In this section of my teaching perspectives, I will describe the techniques and strategies I learned from my colleagues teaching other languages, and how I reflect on my teaching practice of the beginning level of Chinese at the college level. When I started to teach Chinese as a foreign language (FL) at Utah State University, I faced two primary difficulties in my teaching: how to implement the target language at least 90% of the class time; and what to carry out exactly and more efficiently through the methodology of communicative language teaching (CLT).

Among the multiple observations of different instructors and languages during my time in the Master of Second Language Teaching (MSLT) program, four observations of college-level FL classes were especially helpful in dispelling my doubts and confusions: Chinese 1010 (first semester); Chinese 2010 (third semester); Russian 2020 (fourth semester); and Spanish 1010 (first semester). The observations helped me with the challenges I was facing as a novice Chinese teacher. I have been able to learn and compare my peers’ teaching strategies and the practical application of the CLT approach to my personal teaching philosophy.

The Use of the Target Language in FL Classrooms

I believe FL teachers and students should use the target language as exclusively as possible (i.e., 90% plus) during class time (ACTFL Standards, 2015). Knowing the fact that immersing oneself in the target language provides learners with more exposure to the real-world environment, I was keen to learn strategies about how to stay in the target language in my classroom and how to lessen the use of students’ first language (i.e., English). To maximize target language use, teachers use a variety of strategies to
facilitate comprehension and support meaning making. All of the instructors I observed used lots of visual aids through PowerPoint slides to support their teaching in the target language. After carrying out my observation of a first semester Spanish language class, the instructor used Spanish for all of the input activities and the explanation of the various tasks. I noticed it was easier to stay in Spanish all the time since Spanish is a much similar language to English compared to other languages. What I have learned from the Spanish instructor was that he effectively encouraged students’ self-expression and spontaneous use of target language (Spanish), and taught them strategies to request clarification and assistance when faced with comprehension difficulties. When the students had questions or were unable to understand the first time, the instructor explained the content in different ways, such as slowing down his pace the second time and asking short questions related to and supported by the content in Spanish to make the meaning clearer to students.

Through the observation of a first semester Chinese language class, I learned further what strategies I could apply to enable my teaching to stay in Chinese during class time. The Chinese instructor used lots of gestures, such as the signs of understanding (e.g., a thumbs up or down) and the equal sign (e.g., two arms parallel and placed in front of the chest). The instructor repeated her instructions and modeled the task with higher-level students before all of the students started the tasks. Her gestures and repetition facilitated students’ comprehension of input and helped engage the students in the target language. In addition, she successfully conducted comprehension checks with the signs of her body languages to ensure students’ understanding.
I found another example of how to use the target language more confidently when I observed a third semester Russian language class, which uses an entirely different form of writing, the Cyrillic alphabet. The different writing system presents a problem similar to Chinese in that students need more time to make the input meaningful and acquire the writing system during the limited class time. The instructor spoke and responded to students mainly in Russian. The students sometimes interacted in English when first trying to figure out the meaning of the teacher’s instructions and tasks. The instructor listened to their conversation patiently, then explained and gave more support in helping them figure out the meanings in Russian. She negotiated the meaning with students and encouraged negotiation among students. In the role-play situation of buying a train ticket, she demonstrated the real situation in the train station in Russian and used English to explain some grammar phrases in comparisons of the L1 and L2. I realized that using L1 in the language classroom 10% of the time serves to let the students reinforce comprehensible input, encourage meaningful negotiation while clearly explaining of the important differences between the L1 and L2.

However, I also realized that it is possible to use the target language most of the time. First, one of the expectations that the teacher should set on the first day of class is to make students aware of the need to maintain 90% of the class time in the target language. Secondly, teachers can build classroom language with some common signs they use in class. Besides using some gestures of sign language, I brought big posters with the common vocabulary and question words I used frequently in my teaching to the class every time for a couple of weeks at the beginning of the semester. Students got familiar with the words and I added more on the posters when they learned more. Thirdly, I
believe it is acceptable both for teachers and students to use a little bit of English in the FL classroom for the goal of communication and grammatical comparison in the L1 and L2. Immersing students in the target language as much as possible is important. However, teachers should not ignore one of the initial goals of communication is to make input comprehensible during the interaction if necessary.

The practice of CLT in FL classrooms

As a novice FL teacher of Chinese, I have learned about and experimented with some of the features of a CLT approach, such as the importance of learner-centered learning, task-based activities, real-world communication, authentic materials, and meaningful interaction. I’m not sure whether I have implemented the CLT methodology in my classroom correctly and effectively. I am worried I might claim that I am a communicative language teacher yet my students might show that they have not benefited from the CLT method that I tried so hard to apply in my class. I learned English as an FL via an audiolingual-focused method in Taiwan, where the emphasis is on learning grammatical structures for English proficiency tests. I took the time to get used to switching the main role for students and I have struggled with whether my students learn efficiently and can communicate through Chinese in a real-life context. Watching my colleagues’ actual teaching with their lesson plans, I have focused on some specific details of CLT features during the observations and reflect to my Chinese FL classroom.

When I observed a fourth semester Chinese language class, I liked the activities of student teaching demo and storytelling. The activity of student teaching demo is indeed a student activity where students pretend as if they are student teachers. It enabled students to demonstrate what they have understood through previewing the textbook and the
difficulties they have faced, solve the problems by working in pairs, and lead the warm-up activity of the class. In the storytelling task, students worked in groups of five by asking the partner one question about his/her narration of the story line and construct the next line to create a story based on the lesson of vocabulary, phrases, and grammar they have learned. This activity mandates that they pay attention to where the story is going and interact with their group members collaboratively. This activity echoes what Ballman et al. (2001) mean when they state that “The responsibility of the students is to participate fully in the classrooms” (p. 8). Learner-centered teaching engages students at their specific level(s) of language learning and provides students the opportunities to reflect on what and how they are learning in class. The Chinese instructor as a resource person assisted students to develop critical thinking skills to make the meaningful conversation happen in her class.

In addition, the connection of FL learning and a real-world situational task is an important element in my lesson plan. I hope my students can carry out actual communication with native speakers and have the confidence to solve communication-based problems. Students would feel depressed if they could not use their language skills when they are in the country of the target language, such as ordering take-out dishes (without seeing the food pictures) in front of wait staff or interacting with them on the phone. I was impressed by the instructor of the first semester Spanish language class who designed three workshops related to earning the opportunity of studying abroad in Spain. The students were divided into three groups and were tasked with different kinds of information activities: investigation; interview; and application editing. The students then needed to present to the actual committees after the workshop. The three groups were
working on different skills: the interview group especially worked on the speaking skill; the group of application editing worked on writing skills; and the group assigned to information investigation worked on reading the authentic materials online. The workshop reflected a real-world situation of language use and was completed by using the target language in a meaningful way.

Furthermore, I believe incorporating authentic materials is essential in every level of the language class. Galloway (1998) defined authentic texts as “those written and oral communications produced by members of a language group for members of the same language and culture group” (as cited in Shrum & Glisan, 2010, p. 133). Students should have the opportunity to meaningfully engage in authentic texts that are produced for the native speakers of the target language. Shrum and Glisan (2015) further suggest that teachers should “edit the task, not the text” (p. 205-206). Teachers can adjust the task related to the text of the authentic materials based on learners’ linguistic level(s). The instructor of the fourth semester Russian language class brought real train tickets to class for incorporating in the role-play situation of buying tickets at the train station. Students read the information of the train ticket in Russian and designed their scripts of role-playing regarding the information they learned. A language lesson should require learners to comprehend, manipulate, and produce the target language as they perform some sets of work plans (Lee, 2000). After the observations, in my second semester Chinese language class at USU, I designed workshops for a Chinese interview based on their interests of searching for jobs online, assisted students in writing and revising their resumes in Chinese after reading the requirements of the job in Chinese, and collaborated with students in an upper-level Chinese Teaching Methods course to conduct a real interview.
Lastly, I recognized a well-designed worksheet accompanying the tasks/activities is essential to students for engaging more thoroughly with specific elements of a foreign language. In addition, students can focus on the instructor more instead of being busy with focusing on PowerPoint slides and writing notes at the same time. Through observing the first semester Chinese language class, the instructor provided two versions of worksheets (i.e., a simplified and a traditional character version) for each activity involving speaking, writing, and listening practice. She asked the students to summarize the partner’s personal information after the interview of speaking task, which ‘filling in the form’ here is a further important step for students to organize their thinking in the target language (Chinese). Furthermore, a worksheet based on an information gap task is necessary for students to complete a task, solve a problem, and communicate with partners to fill in the gaps of missing information. In the Chinese program at USU, students can choose to learn the simplified or traditional version of written Chinese characters. Although creating PowerPoint slides and worksheets with two versions takes more time, it also decreases the confusion of content happening in the class and assists students to comprehend and communicate more smoothly during the tasks/activities.

**Conclusion**

The observations that I have carried out have not only helped me critically think and reflect on my challenges, but have also made me more aware of the imperceptible things I may ignore during teaching. Switching to the role of an observer in a language classroom has helped me enhance my attention on the learning of my Chinese students. I’m grateful that I have the honor to observe my colleagues’ language classes, where I have seen how to use CLT methodology effectively and how to cut down the gap
between theory and practice. During my teaching experiences at USU, I have especially appreciated my colleagues’ unselfish sharing of ideas and resources whenever I have struggled with issues in my own class. Whenever I discuss teaching ideas with my colleagues or go to observe their language classrooms, it oftentimes results in a productive brainstorming session regarding best practices in L2 teaching. I have benefited from these experiences of observations, and I will keep observing other language classes to help me continue reflecting on my teaching philosophy for further improvements in my teaching career.
SELF-ASSESSMENT OF TEACHING STATEMENT

Introduction

The Self-Assessment of Teaching Statement (SATS) is a reflection paper based on the model designed by Dr. Spicer-Escalante. The classroom observation protocol between the teacher and the observer includes a combination of detailed lesson plan, video recording of the class, self-reflection after watching the video recording and reading the feedback from the observer.

This paper examines the fifty-minute Chinese (CHIN) 1020 /second-semester language- lesson I taught at Utah State University on February 17, 2016. Following the teaching observation protocol, I sent my teaching materials to Dr. deJonge-Kannan as the observer before the observation. I adjusted the materials following her recommendations for improvement the night before and implemented these changes for the class. This paper includes the background of the class and details of the observation in the following sections: students; curricular context; teaching approach; teaching objectives; positive aspects; and further improvements.

Students

The seventeen students enrolled in the CHIN 1020 class were at the Chinese novice level and had completed CHIN 1010. They all spoke English as their first language (L1). All the materials, including the slides and worksheets that I provided, had two versions — traditional and simplified Chinese characters — since four of the students were learning traditional characters and the other thirteen were learning simplified characters.
**Curricular context**

The day’s focus was on Lesson 14, which was about a young man named Wu Wende who had just experienced his first heartbreak. The lesson in the book covered vocabulary that related to dating and troubles with dating. Students had already reviewed the text and the vocabulary, explored topics of ideal partners and ideal places for a date, and completed a dating survey. During the class in which I was observed on February 17, students learned vocabulary and expressions related to relationships and had two main activities: a role-play and speed dating based on real-world situations.

**Teaching Approach**

To help students use the target language to interact with people, my lesson plan was based on the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach to achieve my teaching objectives. I used Prezi to describe the stages and vocabulary of relationships for comprehensible input. For example, I zoomed into the stage of “dating” and taught the vocabulary “約會” (dating), then I zoomed out and back to the main slide with two different tracks: “break up” and “get married.” I zoomed in again to follow the track and introduced the vocabulary “分手” (break up) and “結婚” (get married) on different slides. The following task-based activities (i.e., role-play and speed dating,) were to help the students apply their communicative skills in the interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational modes in real-world situations.

**Teaching Objectives**

By the end of the class, students will be able to:

1. Describe aspects of dating, relationships, marriage, and break up in Chinese;
2. Express their feeling and provide a suggestion for friends to ask a person out in Chinese;

3. Have a short and personal conversation to get to know partners in Chinese.

Table 1: CHIN 1020 Lesson Plan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Modes</th>
<th>Format</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>09:30</td>
<td>Warm-up: Card Exchange</td>
<td>Interpersonal and Presentational</td>
<td>Pairs; Whole class</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1) Each student has a card with a question. Students mingle and ask</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>questions of their classmates. After each question, they exchange</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cards and move to the next person.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) Questions on the card are review questions from last class.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>3) Show students the virtual lantern festival on Google games that</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>allows them to write wishes on the virtual lantern in the animation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:40</td>
<td>Lecture</td>
<td>Interpretive</td>
<td>Whole class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1) Students learn the vocabulary related to this lesson: dating, in</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a relationship, marriage, husband, wife, to break up, lose love, and</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>single through Prezi Slides.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) They were familiar with some words which we have learned in this</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lesson, and they also learn new words which I think are useful and</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>important to this lesson.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:50</td>
<td>Activity 1: Role-play</td>
<td>Interpretive, Interpersonal and</td>
<td>Group of three</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1) Students get a handout of the situation. The words we learned from</td>
<td>Presentational</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lecture are listed on the handout.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2) Students have seven minutes to discuss in groups of 3.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3) I ask 1-2 groups to act out.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10:05</td>
<td>Activity 2: Speed Dating</td>
<td>Interpretive, Interpersonal and</td>
<td>Pairs; Whole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1) Students get a handout of the information sheet. They mingle and</td>
<td>Presentational</td>
<td>class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ask each partner three questions to know if they like their partners.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>If they agree like all the answers, they will give them a sticker.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>If they don’t like the answers, they will say “很高興認識你!” (Nice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to meet you!) and get to know</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
the next partner.
2) They need to meet at least two different people.

Positive Aspects

I watched the video recording of the class and reflected on the lesson plan before receiving the feedback from my observer Dr. deJonge-Kannan. I integrated my self-analysis and comments to reexamine my lesson as following.

The students understood my instruction of new materials and explanation of activities since I used lots of gestures and repeated my directions at least twice before carrying on the activities. In the lecture, I described “分手” (break-up) using two hands “手” (hand) holding together and then separate “分” (separate) to show students the literal meaning of these two characters. Besides, incorporating Prezi slides held students’ attention, and they were engaged with the interpretive mode. My observer noted “The first input round was very good, with lots of images and comprehension checks, and with interactive Q&A from teacher to students”.

In the activity of role-play, the scenario was that of a person who met someone he/she liked at a party and he/she was interested in asking the person out with a friend's help. The observer noticed my teaching assistant and I displayed friendly availability for my students. We walked around the classroom when they were discussing the dialogues for role-playing; we listened carefully and assisted students when they asked us for help. While explaining instructions in the target language (TL), the worksheets for role-playing were provided with instructions both in students’ L1 and TL. The observer commented that this bilingual set of instructions reduced the need for students to spend time conferring in L1 to figure out what they were expected to do. Students wrote the scripts
and each group was creative in their role-play story. They were interested in the topic related to their ages and willing to ask questions when they could not think of the words they wanted to use in the conversation.

The class went well because I had step-by-step activities that built on each other towards the teaching objectives. Using lots of body language and exaggerated facial expressions made the meaning clear, the instructional handouts and visual support helped the students comprehend the input. Students seemed to have fun and were engaged in the lecture and activities with a real-world purpose.

**Further Improvements**

Though the class went well with my lesson plan, I noticed room for improvement through watching the video recording and recommendations from my observer. The main concern I had was immersing the students in the TL classroom. Following my teaching philosophy, I stayed in the TL as much as possible from the first day of class using technology and visual help. However, I found that I used conjunctions in English a lot such as “or,” “ok,” and “then” in my teaching. It was not necessary to use these words, but I tended to use them to connect my Chinese words, sentences, and directions. Students might still understand my directions without these English words. Furthermore, I should teach these conjunctions as classroom language to help them become familiar with my directions.

For technological applications, I should check them in the classroom in advance. I prepared the PDF file of Prezi slides which could be used as an off-line presentation, just in case. However, I did not think there might be a different setting of the computer in the classroom. When I introduced the Google app of the lantern festival with which students
could use the mouse to write characters or wishes in the sky, the mouse in the class did not work the same as it showed on my computer screen in the office. Though I provided the link to the app on Canvas the day before class, I should be aware of that there might be technological problems in the classroom.

Considering the lower-level students in the class, I should speak more slowly to help them understand clearer with more meaningful introductions and conclusions. I should not interrupt students’ role-play even when the audience might not know some words in the presentation. Meanwhile, the observer noticed that there was a group still developing their role-play without paying attention in front. I should ask students questions to check their understanding after the role-play or provide a follow-up section on the handout to help them concentrate on the presentation. I was in a hurry to make sure the students understood the performance then neglected the respectful manner necessary for building a supportive atmosphere.

I reexamined the issue of heteronormativity that the observer reminded me in the email when she received all my materials for the lesson. I taught the Chinese words for husband, wife, and marriage in the Prezi slides. However, I should also teach the general word “partner” and select the pictures carefully to create a more welcoming environment for different identities in the classroom. In the speed-dating activity, students mingled and talked to each other in three questions to see if they could find an ideal partner. With the observer’s suggestion before the observation, I used the word carefully and did not impose them to look for different genders to complete the task. In addition, I could make slides with images to help students bind the meanings and ensure their understanding instead of going through the ten questions orally. Though no student appeared to feel
uncomfortable or excluded upon on the feedback after class, I should be more aware of
the issue related to sexual orientation in the future and create a supportive and inclusive
community in the classroom.

Through the SATS process, observing myself teaching with Dr. deJonge-Kannan’s assessment helped me to become a better foreign language teacher. I appreciate the time and effort Dr. deJonge-Kannan invested in my teaching observation with valuable assessments. By watching the video recording, I learned from students’ positive feedback and interaction with me what I did well. Integrating my self-assessment with the suggestions from the observer provided me with perspective for my reflection. I will keep my energetic classroom demeanor and provide comprehensible input that is directed toward communicative goals, and work on designing more meaningful activities concerning learners’ differences and staying in TL learning environment.
RESEARCH PERSPECTIVES
LANGUAGE PAPER

Enhancing Chinese FL Character Acquisition via MALL
INTRODUCTION & REFLECTION

This language paper was originally written with my colleague Alex Gatica for LING 6520 Technology for Language Teaching course taught by Dr. Joshua Thoms in spring 2016. The majority of references used in this paper are similar to the version that we submitted at the end of the course. In this latter version, I include the sources that I found most valuable. I have experimented with the application (i.e., Memrise) in my Chinese 1020 class at USU in spring 2016. In this paper, I include a hypothetical research study involving the application of Memrise in my Chinese language classroom and how to incorporate the application Memrise to help western Chinese beginning-level learners acquire Chinese characters effectively.

Chinese characters have always been considered by both teachers and learners an obstacle for beginners of Chinese as a second language. Most Chinese characters are made up of multiple components, and a Chinese vocabulary word may be made up of one or multiple characters to represent what in English would be a single word. Azabdaftari and Mozaheb (2012) state that “students often find that a lack of vocabulary knowledge is an obstacle to learning” (p. 48). Language learners have all experienced not being able to express themselves firsthand due to a lack of vocabulary in the target language. I imagine that many western Chinese learners experience similar feelings, especially given the fact that the Chinese, non-alphabet, character-based writing system requires a lot of time to learn/memorize the characters. As a result, my interest was piqued concerning effective learning strategies of acquiring Chinese characters through mobile applications.
Abstract

Previous research has shown the effectiveness of using the mobile application as a tool for vocabulary acquisition (Alemi, Sarab & Lari, 2012; Azabdaftari & Mozaheb, 2012; Lu, 2008; Walker, 2016; Wu, 2015); some research discusses the effective Chinese character learning strategies employed by non-native (i.e., English-speaking) learners of Chinese (Shen, 2004; Zahradníková, 2016). The aim of the following proposed study is to discuss the actual mnemonic methods and learning strategies used by first-year Chinese language students through using the mobile application Memrise as a tool of Chinese character acquisition. Compared with a paper-based control group, the study investigates if incorporating the mobile tool Memrise could have a greater impact on Chinese character acquisition and what different learning strategies may be used in the experimental group.

Introduction

For the past few years, learners have used mobile phones as a means of language acquisition through various language applications that are available. All of these mobile applications pertain to the field of mobile assisted language learning (MALL). According to Crompton (2013), MALL is “learning across multiple contexts, through social and content interactions, using personal electronic devices” (p. 4). With this definition, MALL is not limited to only mobile phones, but can also extends to tablets and laptops. The paper is focused on how effective the application Memrise is as a tool for Chinese character acquisition and explores the learning strategies learners use to memorize the characters.
Wu (2015) defines Memrise as “an online learning tool with courses created by its community” (p. 49). Learners can create their own mnemonic units and share them with other learners. The researcher is interested in exploring how the mems used within the Memrise tool (i.e., educational memes, which could be a photo, GIF, mnemonic, video, cartoon, example sentence, or etymology to help learners commit the word to a more long-term memory) can assist Chinese vocabulary acquisition and what other learning strategies may be used.

Based on Zahradníková’s (2016) ten frequently-used basic strategies of acquiring Chinese characters used by first-year Chinese language students, including story, radical, imagination, component comparison, word, similarity, drawing, emotion, etymology, and pronunciation, this research will investigate what different strategies may be used and/or if it’s more effective to memorize the characters through the Memrise application.

**Literature Review**

Chinese language teachers have always been searching for various techniques for teaching characters, trying to make the learning process more interesting, better structured, less painful, and mutually interconnected to the words (Zahradníková, 2016). Since the time dedicated to Chinese characters is limited in the classroom, the actual task and time of memorizing characters are often done outside of class. As a result, it is important to motivate and encourage students to spend time on Chinese character acquisition outside of the classroom. The following sections compare various MALL applications (i.e., SMS and Memrise) with other vocabulary acquisition methods and literature on Chinese character learning strategies.
MALL compared to other vocabulary acquisition methods

Azabdaftari and Mozaheb (2012) researched the effectiveness of vocabulary acquisition via mobile learning compared to the use of flashcards among EFL learners and determined the advantages and disadvantages of each learning strategy. The study was conducted at a university in Tehran, Iran. There were 80 participants, all of whom were undergraduate university students studying English literature and translation. The mean age of the participants was 20 years old. All of the participants’ English proficiency was upper-intermediate according to the TOEFL and Konkoor tests that they had all taken. Their gender was unspecified. The study took place over a span of seven weeks. The students studied about 1,200 new words during this time period.

Of the 80 students, 40 were selected to be part of the experimental group in which they would use their mobile phones as a means of vocabulary acquisition. The other 40 were part of the control group using traditional paper flashcards. For those with mobile phones, “the SRS (Spaced Repetition System) vocabulary acquisition program was selected to be used as the software for this study” (Azabdaftari & Mozaheb, 2012, p. 51). At the end of the seven weeks, all of the participants took a multiple-choice test to assess the vocabulary acquired. The results showed that the mobile phone experimental group scored an average substantially higher than the flashcard control group. Ten participants from each group were also interviewed about the advantages and disadvantages of each strategy. The experimental group participants indicated that the advantages of MALL included the ability to study anytime and anywhere, being able to receive instant feedback, and they could “surf the Internet and find different examples while encountering problems and mistakes” (p. 54). Azabdaftari and Mozaheb (2012) conclude
that while flashcards are an effective means of vocabulary acquisition, “m-learning is a better strategy which should be utilized by EFL teachers in this age of technology” (p. 54).

In another study carried out in Iran, Alemi, Sarab and Lari (2012) investigated the effectiveness of MALL via texting (i.e., SMS) compared to vocabulary acquisition via dictionary. There were forty-five participants with an upper-intermediate proficiency in English. The study lasted 16 weeks at a university in Tehran, Iran. The participants were divided into two groups, an experimental and control group. The experimental group was taught 320 words via texting and the control group was taught the same 320 words via dictionary. At the end of the 16 weeks, the students were given a vocabulary test and the groups’ test scores were compared. Both groups received similar scores but a delayed test was later administered. The results from the second test showed that the experimental group had outperformed the control group and the researchers concluded that SMS appeared to be a more effective method in terms of long-term vocabulary retention.

Stockwell (2012) focused on the effectiveness of mobile phone applications versus the effectiveness of using a PC for vocabulary acquisition. The study was conducted at Waseda University in Tokyo, Japan. It took place over a span of three years, consisting of three different groups, coming to a total of 175 participants. All of them were between 18 and 21 years old. Each group was enrolled in a 15-week English course that focused on improving vocabulary. The participants were considered to be pre-intermediate level L2 English speakers. The vocabulary program was called VocabTutor and the activities were based on that course’s textbook and were made available in both a mobile and PC format. The activities could also be completed interchangeably and the
progress would be saved. All 175 participants indicated that they had phones that were compatible with the mobile application. The participants were told that they could complete the vocabulary activities via the mobile application, the PC version, or a combination of both throughout the semester.

The participants’ information was tracked through their accounts on *VocabTutor*. The program recorded which platform the students used, for how long, activities completed and activity scores and divided the data into the same categories. Comparisons of data between the three groups were also analyzed. The results showed that a large number (60%) of students did not use their mobile phone at all and completed all the tasks on the PC. Only three students (1.7%) used their mobile phone for all of the activities. When the scores on the vocabulary activities were analyzed, “the scores achieved on both platforms were generally very similar” (Stockwell, 2010, p. 101), with scores being higher and lower in certain activities depending on the platform. In terms of completion time, students took significantly longer to finish the activities on their mobile phone compared to the PC. Stockwell (2010) noted that “it appeared that learners decided to swap from the mobile phone to the PC as a result of the amount of time taken to complete the activities” (p. 104). Stockwell (2010) concluded that mobile phones and PCs appear to be equally effective in terms of vocabulary acquisition, but L2 learners using solely mobile devices will experience an increase in time required to achieve the same amount of work that is done on a PC. This does not mean that mobile applications should be abandoned, but that appropriate activities and methods should be discovered to optimize the use of mobile phones in vocabulary acquisition.
Memrise and vocabulary acquisition

Memrise is an online learning tool with courses created by its community which can also be downloaded as an app on phone. Wu (2015) conducted a study on the effectiveness of Memrise with L2 Chinese-learning college students. The researcher defines Memrise as “an online learning tool with courses created by its community” (p. 49). Users can create their own mnemonic units and share them with other users. The study spanned over two academic years, with two intermediate college-level Chinese classes. There were five lessons for one semester and the learners needed to complete the posttest after each lesson. The ten students in the first class were used for the baseline as a comparison of character recognition scores. In the second (experimental) class, the eight students were assigned to learn and review the vocabulary for at least 15 minutes a day.

The students received regular reminders to study and review words to make sure if their virtual flowers were watered and kept growing through their smartphones or iPads in a game mode. The experimental group liked the technology features including the mems, the crowdsourcing feature, the mini quizzes, the spaced repetition study reminders, and the pronunciation. Furthermore, through the scores and interview, Wu (2015) found that the top two achievers in the experimental class were much more involved in creating content on Memrise. This suggests that the more a student wants to figure out the meaning of the word and retain it, the more a student remembers it.

In another article about using Memrise to enhance FL vocabulary acquisition was Walker’s (2016) discussion about the long-term retention of Latin vocabulary. Since the use of Latin is more common in reading ancient texts than speaking, the students have
fewer opportunities to produce Latin. The accessibility and portability of Memrise increases learners’ exposure to Latin vocabulary. The researcher conducted a four-week experiment of using Memrise with eight 11th grade students studying for a test in Latin. The purpose of the study is to ascertain the Latin students’ perceptions of learning vocabulary, their perceptions of learning vocabulary through Memrise, and if Memrise is more effective in improving Latin vocabulary test performance. The students were asked to complete a ten-question questionnaire on their perceptions of self-study habits. They held two group interviews with 11th grade students; one included a discussion on their questionnaire responses before using Memrise, and the other one was a follow-up interview on their experience of using Memrise after the four-week exposure. The results not only showed a positive attitude on learning vocabulary through Memrise, but also the notion of competition on the Memrise leaderboard, piquing the students’ interests. One of the students claimed “I’m at the bottom, and [my score’s] not even low” (p. 18). The Memrise program provided a collaborative learning environment through creating and sharing Mems, and a positive competition in the learning community.

**Texting (SMS) and vocabulary acquisition**

In Taiwan, many students only have two to four hours per week in high school to study English as a foreign language (EFL). Due to the constraint of class time, Lu (2008) explored the effectiveness of short message service (SMS) vocabulary lessons through mobile phones. The participants consisted of thirty high school students divided into two groups; one group learned English vocabulary via SMS messages and the other group via printed materials, such as textbooks, dictionaries, printed homework, etc. The students had pretests and post-tests on two sets of English words (28 target words in total) during
the two-week study. The researcher used quantitative methods to collect the
questionnaires and the qualitatively based data collection procedures to interview the
participants who experienced issues that arose during the study.

Overall, the students had positive attitudes regarding the SMS lessons because of
the bite-sized lessons and pushing messages two times a day and twice a week. In
addition, the mobile phone groups performed better on the vocabulary gains of post-test
and delayed post-test than the printed material groups. Lu (2008) states that MALL, with
a reward-based scheme, motivated students’ interests and maximized their exposure to
the target language. The students also claimed that the pushing messages offered more
cumulative lessons than the printed materials. Lu (2008) concludes that there are three
optimal conditions for vocabulary learning through mobile phones: a reward-based
scheme; a tracking mechanism; and an interaction function. The next article was inspired
by Lu’s (2008) study, where Wu (2015) discussed the limitations of SMS and designed a
new app for vocabulary learning specifically for ESL learners in China.

Wu (2015) developed a smart-phone app called Word-learning-CET6 to test the
effectiveness of this tool for enhancing the English vocabulary of Chinese college
students. The purpose of the study was to look for a new way to help EFL learners
memorize the English vocabulary in a more convenient and user-friendly way, and
provide a solution for educators who have difficulties teaching vocabulary with limited
knowledge of computer science. The researcher designed the app in a clear touch-screen
version and the 35 students from the test group could look up the words anytime and
anywhere. The students could create three separate folders from the glossary for
repetitive study based on the individual learning process and make a sample test from a
selection of their own words. The positive results showed that the test group memorized 88.67 more words than the control group, who acquired the vocabulary through their own vocabulary materials. *Word Learning-CET6* provided an accessible tool for ESL learners but it also needed to be upgraded for correcting errors or supplying new content for further improvements.

Rosell-Aguilar and Kan (2015) discussed the pedagogical principles and challenges when designing an app for language learning. There were a limited number of apps evaluated from a progressive and personalized manner. Before learning Chinese vocabulary, it’s important to recognize different characters individually and combine the characters together for only one meaning. The authors worked with the app developers to create a new app called *Chinese Characters First Steps* for their Chinese beginners in The Open University. Five principles behind their app were as following: a) bite-size learning and mobility; b) progressive learning; integrating writing, listening, reading, and vocabulary building; c) a gaming feature (i.e., an element of fun); and d) personalized learning. “In the writing section, learners can learn to draw with their fingers using the correct stroke order indicated on the screen, and they could also hear how to pronounce them” (Rosell-Aguilar & Kan, 2015, p. 23). It’s the first time that an app for Chinese learning has stroke-by-stroke writing. The evaluations of the app from the users and the pedagogical principles are a worthy consideration when teachers apply the MALL tools to their language classrooms.

**Chinese character learning strategies**

Reading and writing in Chinese contexts is a relatively difficult task for L2 Chinese beginner-level learners who come from a non-character background. As a result,
helping students to develop learning strategies of how to write and memorize Chinese characters are essential for western learners. Zahradníková (2016) discussed the mnemonic methods and learning strategies used by fifty first-year Chinese L2 learners in a Czech University for a period of one semester. In the second-semester Chinese class, 259 new characters and relevant information (i.e., the stroke order, pronunciation, meaning, component of the character, the etymology of each character, and the words containing the character) were introduced. As a weekly assignment, students were asked to copy four lines of each of the learned characters as a requirement and were encouraged to describe any strategy that helps them to memorize the character as a voluntary part. The valid data includes 2,319 strategies describing ways of memorizing individual characters; each character is described by 8.9 students on average. Strategies were analyzed regarding their contents and usage frequency. Ten frequently-used basic strategies included: story; radical (i.e., remember the character by its semantic root radical); imagination; component comparison (i.e., integrate a new character into the system of already-known characters by searching for common components); word (i.e., learn the character as a part of polysyllabic words); similarity; drawing; emotion (i.e., how a learner feels about the character); etymology (i.e., the original meaning of the character and its components generally provided by textbooks or teaching materials); and pronunciation.

Some of the above strategies were used individually to elaborate one piece of information; some of them were used in combinations (e.g., using a radical and story as two strategies to decompose the character into components and create an association with what the component represents) to analyze the character. The results show students’
tendency were to analyze characters into components, name individual components in one character, and focus on graphic and semantic information. Secondly, the emphasis of etymology instruction given in this research turned out that the students preferred to create their own stories of the characters. Thirdly, the results supported the importance of radical instruction, emphasizing on naming components of a character helped learners to memorize Chinese characters. As a result, teachers should help learners to process the root radicals systematically and solidly in teaching materials and exercises. Having an insightful exploration of students’ tendencies and preferences for employing strategies to acquire Chinese characters can help teachers better explain the characters more effectively, offer students a variety of strategy choices, and facilitate the development of students’ analytical thinking through sharing the strategies with everyone.

Conclusion

Seeing how many different strategies of using MALL for vocabulary acquisition are available can be seen as a testament to its effectiveness compared to other vocabulary learning strategies. MALL does appear to be more effective than certain vocabulary learning methods. Based on the ten frequently-used learning strategies of Chinese characters from Zahradníková’s (2016) study, I want to know what more efficient learning strategies of Chinese characters may come to light via the multimedia features in the mems to help non-native Chinese learners acquire Chinese characters.

Methodology

My proposed study will focus on evaluating students’ use of the mems (i.e., a photo, GIF, mnemonic, video, cartoon, example sentence, or etymology to help learners commit the word to a more long-term memory) in the application Memrise as a
teaching/learning tool in Chinese beginning-level learning classrooms. At the beginning of the semester, all participants will have a lesson on Chinese character learning strategies to raise their awareness of individual learning differences and the benefits of deeper processing on the word acquisition when compared to mechanical memorization. The research questions are the following:

1) Does using the multimedia (e.g., recording, pictures, and videos) via the mems in Memrise make a greater impact on the development of Chinese character acquisition than using prescribed homework sheets?

2) What learning strategies of acquiring Chinese characters do students use when using mems as a tool?

The participants in the study will come from two Chinese 1020 (i.e., second-semester of Chinese) classes at Utah State University. The experimental group will be assigned to use the application Memrise as a tool to memorize the vocabulary and the control group will be assigned to use prescribed homework sheets. In both groups, the study will carry out an assessment of pretests and post-tests on ten sets of Chinese vocabulary (i.e., 25 words in each lesson) to evaluate learners’ vocabulary development. For each character, students are asked to describe any strategy that helps them memorize the characters in both groups. In this one-semester study, the researcher will use quantitative methods to collect the results of assessment and the learning strategies shared by learners. At the end of the semester, participants of both groups will be interviewed about the experience of memorizing the Chinese characters with or without the application Memrise, the learning strategies they used, and the difficulties of memorizing the Chinese characters.
LITERACY PAPER

Digital Storytelling in FL Classrooms
INTRODUCTION & REFLECTION

This paper was originally written with my colleague Andrew Mikesell for LING 6500 Second Language Acquisition: Theory and Practice taught by Dr. Joshua Thoms in fall 2016. We focused on reviewing the literature of digital storytelling (DST) and how to incorporate the DST project into the curriculum to benefit Chinese and Japanese FL learners in speaking and writing skills. Learning more about DST in the STARTALK workshop that focused on Chinese instruction in the digital age at the University of Colorado at Boulder in 2016 inspired me to more deeply explore how to improve Chinese language learners’ 21st-century skills through the DST project. When incorporating media into stories, it is increasingly necessary for students to learn about media as well as with media.

When teaching my beginning-level Chinese language class at Utah State University, I focused on enhancing learners’ speaking skills more than writing skills in Chinese. Considering that my class only met fifty minutes each class meeting, five days a week, I ignored the importance of saving time in class to guide my novice students to write in the target language (i.e., Chinese). As a result, in this latter version, I added sources about enhancing learners’ writing skills through DST and how to design and incorporate DST into the curriculum appropriately. After investigating this topic, I look forward to incorporating DST into my Chinese language class to encourage students to share their personal stories in the target language and to improve their holistic language skills.
Abstract

This paper reviews the literature regarding digital storytelling in foreign language classrooms based on Vygotsky’s Sociocultural Theory (Lantolf, 2000). Digital stories can be used in all content areas through the incorporation of stories into the classroom and can improve learners’ holistic language skills in the 21st century. In the future, the paper plans to conduct research in two Chinese 2010 classes at Utah State University to examine whether there are improvements in speaking and writing skills in individual work (control group) and cooperative work (experimental group) during the digital storytelling project.

Introduction

How do language teachers encourage students to become more productive and express their own personal ideas, feelings, and knowledge in a foreign language? Considering the social dimensions of using a language, storytelling is not a one-way presentation but a form of interactive communication with others. Traditional storytelling is a communicative activity that requires storytellers to creatively express their imaginations and ideas. “Digital storytelling (DST) involves the integration of technology and the use of interactive media (which may include digital audio, video, movies, digital comic books, and multimedia images)” (Thang et al., 2014, p. 490). Research studies have discovered that digital storytelling combines the art of storytelling with multiple media tools which can benefit language learners in a variety of ways. Research has also shown that digital storytelling enhances learners’ motivation to learn, communication skills, and technological skills (Hayes & Itani-Adams, 2014; Thang, et al., 2014), which promotes the development of 21st-century skills, such as interactive communication
skills, technology literacy skills, and language skills. During the process of creating stories, learners also need to work on a draft and narration for their story as well as consider its impact on their audience. From the perspective of holistic communicative skills, learners must develop the ability to express themselves in the foreign language by writing and performing creative texts (Thang et al., 2014). In addition, the study will especially examine the differences in individual and collaborative pair work when applying DST in Chinese language classrooms.

**Literature Review**

**Defining Digital Storytelling**

Storytelling is an instructional approach in which students put effort into creating narrative sentences to interact with others in the target language (Hwang et al., 2014). It is an effective exercise in communication and a creative process that requires learners to visualize and use their imaginations (Thang et al., 2014). As technology continues to evolve at a rapid pace, technology, and digital devices have become increasingly used in education to facilitate learning. Digital storytelling (DST) emerged from the integration of multimedia and storytelling to meet the various needs of learners, such as self-expression and communication, and to gain competence in multiple language skills.

Talking about the educational purposes of using DST, Yuksel, Robin, and McNeil (2011) explored how educators, students, and others who were interested in digital storytelling around the world used DST and described the different perceptions of people in different cultures about this tool. The authors discussed how educators, students, and others were using DST to support the educational process, the cultural differences when using DST in education, and people’s perceptions about learning when using DST. The
researchers used quantitative research methods to collect data through an online questionnaire. The usable data of respondents were 154 out of 173 participants from 26 different countries. The questionnaire included five sections: demographic questions; perception of DST in the classroom; personal use of DST; training and support; and availability of technology. The findings showed that DST allows students to improve their understanding of subject area knowledge, writing, technical, presentation, and research skills. In addition, DST could be used in multiple subjects (e.g., technology literacy in Austria) and purposes (e.g., for therapy in Canada) through collecting the survey data from respondents of various countries. The researchers suggested that DST facilitates collaborative activities in which students worked in groups and promoted in-class discussion.

Norton (2015) defined digital stories as “brief personal narratives told through images, sounds and words, and which use new media technology” (p. 388). The process of digital storytelling involves the integration of technology, the use of interactive media (e.g., digital audio, video, movies, written texts, transition effects, digital comic books, and multimedia images), and video editing software or Web 2.0-based applications (Nishioka, 2016; Thang et al., 2014). In the foreign language classroom, DST has been increasingly applied as a pedagogical tool for enhancing target language skills, increasing interaction, and facilitating collaboration. Digital stories were first developed in the United States in the 1990s as a way of assisting young learners in creating narratives in a globally accessible mode (Hayes & Itani-Adams, 2014).

There are a number of resources online according to the elements and projects of digital storytelling and its learning applications. One of the pioneers of digital
storytelling, Joe Lambert, created the Center of Digital Storytelling (http://storycenter.org) to promote migrant stories and public workshops for society and educators. Scribjab (http://www.scribjab.com), initiated by Kelleen Toohey and Diane Dagenais at Simon Fraser University in Canada, is a website and iPad tool for transnational learners to create and read digital stories in multiple languages, view digital images, and create voice recordings. The African Storybook (http://www.africanstorybook.org/), developed by the South African Institute for Distance Education (Saide), opens access to learners’ stories which include text and pictures in African languages of which over eighty languages have been used by learners in sub-Saharan Africa. An extension of this project, the Global African Storybook Project (http://global-asp.github.io/), has been developed by Liam Doherty at the University of British Columbia. It is an accessible translation system website that lets readers translate digital stories from the African Storybook Project into multiple languages worldwide, including Mandarin, Japanese, Hindi, and Nepali (Norton, 2015). These online resources have much potential to be beneficial in increasing learners’ investments in language practice and the development of various language skills.

**Theoretical Framework**

Vygotsky’s Sociocultural Theory (SCT) provided an important framework for this study on digital storytelling. SCT views language learning as a social process in which learners developed their language cognition through social interaction. Through interaction with others, learners then integrate knowledge into their own individual mental structures. From a Vygotskian perspective, the main task is to “understand how human social and mental activity is organized through culturally-constructed artifacts”
(Lantolf, 2000, p. 1). An important concept from SCT relevant to this study is collaborative dialogue. According to Swain (1997), collaborative dialogue is “the joint construction of language –or knowledge about language– by two or more individuals; it’s what allows performance to outstrip competence; it’s where language use and language learning can co-occur” (p. 115). As learners work together to create digital stories, they are likely to engage in collaborative dialogue, in which they co-construct knowledge about the target language. Mediation is another important concept in this theoretical framework. Mediation refers to the use of either the L1 or L2 as a tool for creating a new language or knowledge about the language (Swain, 1998). When students interact in the L2, they are not only using the language as a tool to collaborate with a fellow student, but they are also acquiring the L2 at the same time.

**Learner Interactions**

An important consideration for this study are the types of interactions that take place among students. Just as no two individuals are the same, interactions among different pairings and groups of students will be very different and will ultimately affect the outcome of any task or activity. Watanabe (2008) investigated the types of interactions that occur among learners of different proficiency levels and their perceptions and attitudes toward such interactions. The data used in this study was taken from another study conducted in 2004 by Watanabe (2008), which investigated 12 Japanese learners in a non-credit ESL program at a university in Canada. For this study, Watanabe (2008) focused on nine of the original participants and their interactions with a higher- and lower-proficiency peer. She designed the study so that each ‘core participant’ would interact with both a lower-proficiency and a higher-proficiency peer in a joint
writing task. To collect data, Watanabe (2008) made audio and video recordings of the pair interactions and took observation notes. She transcribed pair talk in the categories of words, language-related episodes (LREs), and patterns of interaction. She also interviewed each ‘core participant’ and conducted stimulated recall sessions. Watanabe (2008) found that the interactions that took place among each pair were very different in nature and that participants’ attitudes also varied. Three of the interactions were collaborative, one dominant/passive, one expert/novice, and one expert/passive. All participants reported a preference for working with peers that shared many ideas. Watanabe (2008) also notes that the participants’ attitudes toward interaction were more related to their interaction pattern than to the proficiency level of their peers. The most positively perceived interactions were those that were collaborative.

Nishioka (2016) also investigated interactions among learners that worked collaboratively on a DST project. There were three participants in this study of varying levels. One student was at an upper-intermediate level, one at an upper-beginner level, and one at a beginner level. The project was part of a group assignment in the participants’ ‘Tourism Japanese’ class and they were asked to work together to create a digital story describing a popular tourist destination in South Korea. Nishioka (2016) used a variety of data collection methods including: questionnaires; observations; audio-recordings with stimulated recall sessions; artifacts produced by the participants; and post-tests. Four categories of LREs were investigated in this study: 1) grammar-related; 2) vocabulary-related; 3) expression-related; and 4) co-occurrence of grammar and vocabulary-related. Nishioka (2016) discovered that the participants had generated a total of 135 LREs. Sixty percent were vocabulary-related and 20 percent were grammar-
related. Expression-related and co-occurrence of vocabulary and grammar-related LREs accounted for about 10 percent of the LREs each. There was also a correlation of higher speaking proficiency with higher LRE retention rate. Nishioka (2016) also notes that it was difficult for the beginning-level student to engage with his higher-level peers and did not gain as much from the LREs. This suggests that pairing learners of similar proficiency levels may be more beneficial and lead to better learning outcomes.

**Benefits of DST**

In 2009, the Intermediate Japanese Digital Storytelling Project (DST Project) conducted at Australian National University (ANU) was implemented to encourage learners to develop more holistic communicative skills. Hayes and Itani-Adams (2014) explained that as the project has progressed, it has become clearer that learners have to focus on the narratives of their stories and consider their impacts on the viewing audience (readers) if they are to effectively tell their stories. In an analysis of the DS project, the researchers noted that Japanese learners, “develop the ability to express themselves in Japanese by writing and performing creative/imaginative texts” (Hayes & Itani-Adams, 2014, p. 177). The assessment of students’ outcomes consisted of three stages: draft writing; narration recording; editing; and revising with interactive media. This enabled the teacher to provide targeted feedback in each stage: first on the content and use of language based on linguistic correctness and story structure; second on the narration delivery, which included pronunciation, intonation, and verbal expressiveness. The final assessment was in the overall story composition and the impact on the audience. The researchers claimed that digital storytelling provided a meeting space combining the textbook and communicative practice which promoted interaction between the student
storytellers and their audience. In addition, DST added the advantage of developing learners’ effective technical literacy, which reflected one of the priorities of Australian higher education in the 21st century (Hayes & Itani-Adams, 2014).

Since DST is a dynamic tool, it can be used for a variety of purposes in different contexts and be created either individually or within groups (Sarıca & Usluel, 2016). According to the book *Digitales, the Art of Telling Digital Stories* (as cited in Thang et al., 2014), DST helps to build and practice a number of 21st century skills, such as interactive communication, interpersonal skills, personal and social responsibility, technology literacy, visual literacy, project management mentality, curiosity, creativity, and risk-taking. DST allows learners to achieve the above-mentioned goals by using interactive media to engage the audience with peers to transnational communities.

**Speaking Skills**

As a task that requires students to record audio, DST has a lot of potential as a tool for developing students’ speaking skills. Hwang, Shadiev, Hsu, Huang, Hus and Lin (2014) conducted a study in which they compared the differences of DST to that of traditional storytelling methods among EFL students. The authors investigated the effectiveness of applying storytelling activities (individual/interactive) on speaking skills through evaluating the differences in prior knowledge (pre-test) and learning achievement (post-test). The participants were two sixth-grade classes learning EFL at an elementary school in Taiwan. The control group consisted of 29 students total; 12 boys and 17 girls. The experimental group consisted of 30 students total; 15 boys and 15 girls. Both classes were taught using the same material and by the same instructor; 3 hours a week for 6 weeks. Both classes were assigned to create stories, however, the control group used a
traditional storytelling method and the experimental group used a web-based multimedia tool created by the researchers. Each student in both groups was asked to create five stories on their own and four more stories with a partner collaboratively. Hwang et al. (2014) found that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group on a summative assessment of students’ learning achievement (post-test). They also discovered that there was a higher learning gain (a difference between pre-test and post-test) for the experimental group. This suggested that learners made greater gains on: the use of more vocabulary; the easier memory of vocabulary; and more frequent speaking practice when they used a multimedia tool compared to traditional storytelling methods. The authors attributed the effectiveness of DST to the fact that it created an environment where the students were surrounded by the target language and in which students were learning actively through the creation and continuous improvement of their own personal stories. Using a multimedia system also provided students with more opportunities to practice in general than traditional storytelling methods do (Hwang et al., 2014). Furthermore, a multimedia system allowed students to process different elements of the storytelling project separately which prevented cognitive overload. In particular, DST allowed students to make audio recordings which they could share or reflect upon for further practice of speaking and listening skills. The recording tool which supported the unlimited speaking practices assisted language learners in building knowledge for communicative competence and considerable self-confidence (Kim, 2014).

Kim (2014) conducted a study with five ESL students in an ESL video class at City College of San Francisco. All participants were high-level students but had expressed a desire to improve their oral proficiency skills. The students were assigned
nine different weekly topics related to daily or personal preferences as a guideline to encourage their speaking practice by recording with Vocaroo and vozMe during fourteen weeks. Students recorded personal stories using Vocaroo and recorded a text to speech program VozMe. The hypothesis of this study was that participants’ oral proficiency would improve when using self-study resources (i.e., Vocaroo, vozMe, and VoiceThread) and storytelling in an autonomous learning environment, which was outside of the classroom. The students then emailed their recordings to the instructor each week to receive feedback on their performance. To assess participants’ oral proficiency improvement, the study used four assessments of storytelling tasks with silent movie clips on VoiceThread for asking them to record their own stories. Through an analysis of data collected during the study, Kim (2014) discovered that the students made significant progress in their “overall proficiency in terms of vocabulary, sentence complexity, discourse, and pronunciation, but there was no significant improvement in grammar” (p. 25). The researcher then explained there was no feedback on grammar on the holistic rubric and participants’ grammar scores may be influenced by feedback. Through the experiment, the participants had a positive attitude towards the use of Vocaroo and VozMe programs and they considered that DST encourages self-reflection and improves oral skills in summarizing the contents, making longer sentences, and pronunciation.

Digital storytelling has been widely used to help learners communicate their personal stories effectively to the audience and it can improve learners’ oral proficiency (Kim, 2014; Norton, 2015; Thang et al., 2014). One specific feature of DST—recording stories in the target language with audio files—created an environment that enabled students to practice their speaking skills more frequently for self-studying and reflection
(Hwang et al., 2014; Kim, 2014). With self-assessment and peer evaluation rubrics, students can evaluate their own audio files on content to discover their mistakes and then re-record with more modified and improved content.

**Writing Skills**

In writing, ideas are pulled out from the memory during the planning process of the transcript and reorganized more than once to improve how information is communicated to readers. “No matter what technology comes in the future, people will use it to fulfill the inherent need to tell their story. At the core of storytelling within education, however, is the concept of literacy” (Greenwood, 2008). While writing may not be the final product of a digital story, it is an important part of the process of creating digital stories (Ohler, 2013; Sarical & Usluel, 2016). Cultivating writing skills enables learners “to express and support one’s ideas in a well-organized and comprehensible manner” (Smith, 2013, p. 12). It is used as a method of communication to talk about ourselves and interact with others through a required form of symbols and signs.

Sarıca and Usluel (2016) focused on the effects of DST on the structures of writing skills (WSs) and visual memory capacity (VMC) in the educational context. The research aimed to investigate the effects and differences of DST on students’ VMC and WSs. The participants were 59 second-grade primary school students enrolled in the ‘Journey of Myself’ education program of the ‘Educational Volunteers Foundation of Turkey’ during the fall semester of 2013-2014. The researchers used the five-stage digital story creation method (Ohler, 2013, as cited by Sarıca & Usluel, 2016) in the experimental group over a period of thirteen weeks. The students created and revised the story of ‘My World’ and ‘Here is My life’ on paper with an activity sheet during the first
five weeks of the first stage. Pre-production activities were formed at the second stage in which students used desktop PCs with applications (e.g., KidsDoodle, Rainbow Doodle, and Animated Paint) to paint pictures, take photographs, and videos between the fifth and ninth weeks (p. 304).

During the production process of the third stage, students chose to use the programs ‘Microsoft Photo Story’ and ‘Movie Maker’ to develop their digital stories. The post-production stage included a final review and a printout if necessary. The final delivery stage included a performance on stage and CD recordings. The findings demonstrated that DST did not create a statistically significant difference regarding visual memory capacity. However, there was a statistically significant difference in writing skills between the experimental group and control group. Since the students developed their stories individually, the researchers suggested analyzing how digital stories could be developed as a group, and the role of cooperative learning processes should be investigated in future studies. As a result, one of the research questions in this study is to analyze the development of writing skills in creating digital stories between an individual working group and a cooperative working group.

**Conclusion**

Research shows the benefits of DST in developing students’ oral proficiency skills, and it also has benefits for students’ writing skills development. Furthermore, when engaged in a collaborative DST project, students will certainly encounter a number of types of interaction. However, at this moment of reviewing the literature regarding DST, there is no research that implements DST in Chinese foreign language classrooms. Furthermore, no research exists that compares individual work with collaborative work in
DST in the aforementioned context. As FL teachers, it is important that we understand the benefits of students working individually or with each other and how to best manage these types of learning environments to lead students to successful learning outcomes.

**Methodology**

The proposed study will focus on the use of DST as a teaching/learning tool in Chinese language classrooms. The primary interest is in how DST can be used as a tool for the development of speaking skills through Chinese-as-a-foreign-language learners. The secondary interest focuses on the impact of DST on the development of writing skills. The study will investigate the differences in the effectiveness of individual versus collaborative work in a DST project.

The research questions are as follows:

1) Does working collaboratively in digital storytelling tasks have a greater impact on the development of speaking skills than working individually?

2) Does working collaboratively in digital storytelling tasks have a greater impact on the development of writing skills than working individually?

3) What types of interaction do students engage in when working on a DST project collaboratively?

The participants in the study will come from two Chinese 2010 classes at Utah State University. One section will be assigned to create digital stories individually and the other section will be assigned to create digital stories collaboratively with a partner. The study will be conducted over one semester.

In both groups, (i.e., in the individual and collaborative groups), the study will carry out an assessment to evaluate formative speaking and writing performances by pre-
and post-tests throughout the experiment. In this one-semester-long project, before conducting the collaborative and individual DST activities, students will be given a pre-test in both speaking and writing as to ascertain their starting proficiency levels. At the end of the semester, students will also be given a post-test to assess both oral and written proficiency. Further data will be collected through audio/video recordings, observation notes, interviews with the stimulated recall, and questionnaires. When gathering information on interaction types between students in the collaborative groups, the researcher will use Language Related Episodes (LREs) as a unit of measurement and both qualitative and quantitative methods to analyze the data collected in this study.
CULTURE PAPER

Learner Identities in Foreign Language Learning
INTRODUCTION & REFLECTION

This paper was written for the course of independent study with Dr. deJonge-Kannan following my experience of serving an internship at the English Language Center (ELC) in Cache Valley during summer 2016. Taking the course Diversity in Education taught by Dr. Saavedra at the same time also sharpened my perspectives of the role culture has when teaching a second language.

In this paper, I explore the literature on learner identities and how they influence learners in second language learning, especially the relations among learners’ positionality, older age, and investment. Before getting acquainted with the English learners from a diverse background at the ELC, I did not pay much attention to getting to know the backgrounds of my students in the Chinese beginning-level language class during my first semester of teaching at Utah State University. Most of my students have grown up in the United States, and there was only one student from Japan in the class. Reflecting on my past teaching practice, I recognize I could have done more to make connections with my students’ own culture to the second language culture (C2) with an aim to benefit their language learning.

Each student’s identity is made up of different backgrounds and personalities and can even have various positionalities and attitudes on more than one identity. In this paper, a background, personal lives, and culture of a person will be referred to as ‘positionality’. The internship at ELC and my own research that followed related to issues related to identity inspired me to care and pay more attention to students’ diverse identities, to motivate students’ investment in language practice, and to provide students
the occasion for seeing a better future for themselves through interacting in the target language.

Either teaching English or Chinese as a foreign language in the future, I will incorporate more cultural topics relating to the various grammatical and lexical units through online and in-class discussion; I will encourage my students to share their perspectives and personal stories in the target language along with showing respect to other peers’ opinions. I have become more aware of learners’ investment which may be motivated by their identities and the cultural backgrounds to foreign language learning.

Abstract

This paper reviews the literature of learner identities focusing on positionality, the role of culture in second language learning and teaching. Based on previous research, I will explain means and examples through which language teachers can encourage learners to invest more in language practice and build a positive teacher-student relationship to facilitate a multicultural learning environment. Moreover, due to the experience of observing immigrants learning English at the ELC and teaching Chinese to USU students, I will also discuss the advantages and disadvantages of learning a language later in life and present examples of applying effective pedagogies to lessen the disadvantages in the foreign language classroom.

Introduction

In the mid-1990s, Norton (1997) published two central arguments of the ‘identity approach’ to second language acquisition (SLA). First, she indicated that SLA theorists need a comprehensive theory of identity that explains how individual language learners interact with the social world. Second, she stated that SLA theorists should also discuss
how relations of power in the social world influence language learners’ learning in the target language community. Regarding the former, from a sociocultural perspective, the researcher explains what forms of knowledge and language learning happened during the L2 interaction. This paper is focused on the latter to explore foreign language learning in relation to culture, social power, positionality, and multiple identities.

In addition to linguistic development, there are other forms of knowledge including culture, social knowledge, ideologies (e.g., of nationality, of language itself), affect (e.g., positive or negative emotions in language learning), and identities (e.g., of L2 learner, of workplace, of family) (Duff & Talmy, 2011). The relationship between learner identities and L2 community has been given increased attention in second language research, which illustrates how learner identities can impact their L2 learning process (Duff & Talmy, 2011; Norton, 2015; Norton, 2016).

Identity is defined as “the way a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is structured across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future” (Norton, 2016, p. 476). In this view, every time learners interact with people, they are negotiating and renegotiating themselves to a larger social world, and reconstructing that relationship with multiple positions in their lives. With regard to L2 social interaction, Holland et al. (1998) discussed how identities were formed through activity and participation in learner’s daily lives; they explained positional identity as “a sense of relative social position” (p. 165) in particular contexts. For example, being a mother in the family is one context, and being a teacher at school is another context. We position ourselves differently in the world with various situations, and so do our students.
Awareness of Positionality

Positionality is a term that refers to both the facts and particular conditions of a given social situation, and it maintains the factors that stabilize the position and the specific implications relating to the position (Foth, 2009). I recognized that how I construct my identities as a language teacher, how the backgrounds of Taiwanese culture, history, and life experiences influence me, and how I interact with the people in the United States and renegotiate my values are all unique contexts that shape my voice and identity. “Positional identity is directly related to an individual’s life experiences, which are lived in culturally constructed worlds, such as gender, class, race, ethnicity, age, and religion” (Moore, 2008, p. 685). As learners generate perspectives through various positions of life, such as workplace and school, these perspectives allow them to function, behave, and interact in the world and then reflect on how these contexts shape their views. The perspectives of race, class, and gender are relational, complex, and fluid in our positional stances, so teachers need to be aware that their voice may form a function of position through the process of schooling (Martin & Van Gunten, 2002). The more I learn, the more I notice that I am not the one to provide my students with straight and accurate answers, especially relating to cultural and social perspectives. I see my role now as offering sufficient resources and strategies to assist my students in learning collaboratively with peers, to be able to notice and solve questions, and to reflect on their values and behaviors in their lives.

I encourage students to embrace and show respect for the complexities of multiple positionalities through group work and discussion. For example, in the unit about dating in my Chinese language class, the students learn about cultural differences through
interviewing their Chinese language partners as well as discussing their individual opinions and experiences of dating with their classmates. The students learn to respect different positionalities through sharing, listening and thinking. The interconnectedness of multiple cultures and identities should be developed through class exploration with the teacher’s assistance. Multicultural positionality and perspective can provide students with awareness through reflection on their personal experiences (Martin & Van Gunten, 2002). During the learning process of discussion with partners, learners’ critical thinking skills would be provoked and cultivated. Teachers can then switch the main role to students in the classroom. The techniques to promote student-centered learning beyond lecturing, beyond ‘covering the material,’ is ‘uncovering the material,’ including helping the learners do more critical work by themselves (Dallalfar, Kingston-Mann, & Sieber, 2011). The following is an example that demonstrates that group working can enhance students’ critical thinking and reflection on the C2 and their own culture.

I was impressed by one of the group projects at the end of the semester in my novice-level Chinese class. The students selected a topic that they had learned about during the semester and presented to their classmates via video recording. My students looked up the song ‘Let It Be’ by The Beatles in a version with Chinese captions. They hiked up to Green Canyon to film a music video to accompany the Chinese rendition. In the reflection paper, the students said that they were surprised by the Chinese lyrics which were very different from the original English lyrics. It focused on the Chinese rhyme scheme and Chinese characters with the same tones which gave the song a new and unique meaning. The students learned the linguistic content from exploring and comparing the materials in their collaborative work with group members and assistance
from Chinese language partners. They taught the class some useful phrases, different expressions of the Chinese lyrics, and explained the song ‘Let It Be’ with a new perspective. Most importantly, they developed critical consciousness of a cultural issue through comparing the western and Chinese versions of the song.

Lastly, the teacher should model positive attitudes and behaviors towards learning. The learning of those who teach “lies in their seeking to become involved in their students’ curiosity and in the paths and streams it takes them through” (Freire, 2005, p. 32). Freire provides a great example of the importance of representing concrete reality through reading. One of Freire’s students from northeast Brazil comprehended the world with a different understanding after reading an article about a man who sculpted clay vases by hand for a living. Reading the story and writing a reflection demanded a higher level of critical thinking and making a connection to the world she had read about. She redefined the context and reflected on her perspectives of lives. Promoting constant learning and guiding effective strategies for individual learning are the important tasks for educators.

Now I am more aware that my positional identity as a language teacher, shaped by my various relative positions and the knowledge I possess from my identities, impacts my teaching and interaction with students. As a result, I believe that well-designed tasks help learners uncover cultural materials and enable them to discover the power of difference and then reflect on their individual experiences. The time for students to reconstruct their multiple positions with new knowledge and standpoints is essential in the learning process. Through social interaction with language partners and peers with
different identities, positions and backgrounds, learners can shape their views in a more respectful manner and behave in a more culturally sensitive way.

**The Cultural Role of the Teacher**

“Class was more than just a question of money; it shaped values, attitudes, social relations and the bias that informed the way knowledge would be given and received” (hook, 2010, p. 178). When I assisted adult learners at the English Language Center (ELC), I learned personal stories from students of various backgrounds. The ELC serves immigrants, refugees, and international students, all of whom work hard to make their lives better through studying English in the local community.

At the ELC, I noticed that mismatches between teacher and students regarding socio-economic status could lead to some difficult interactions. I helped an older student work on the project of ‘Places I’ve Been to’ during a computer class at the ELC. The students were supposed to edit a 2x3 table, putting the places in the columns and the pictures in the rows of the table. When the teacher was discussing with the student about the cheapest ticket to Mexico, the student said, “That ticket is too expensive. I’m poor.” There were a couple of seconds of silence. “I’m poor,” she repeated it again in a clear voice without any emotion. At that moment, I realized how little I could assist students with their personal problems and difficulties. It caused me to think more deeply about what I could do to help the learners make their lives better of their own accord through language learning. The classroom is a miniature of society. Learners may feel more confident of themselves if the teacher could engage students’ cultural identities more in the language classroom; learning may become more powerful if the teacher could create a collaborative learning community with students’ multicultural backgrounds.
I believe one of the responsibilities of a teacher is to assuage the ills of society, especially the pressure from the unjust treatment and the mismatches of social-economics that influence the learners’ learning in the classroom (Freire, 2005). It is important to note that all the ELC learners are adult learners, their ages are from eighteen up to around seventy. Some of the older learners at the ELC struggle with these life issues which may influence their language learning. I am more aware that promoting students’ cultural identities appropriately contributes to an effective learning environment. “Social scientists, in particular, must agree that nothing people do is divorced from culture, including systems of knowledge, technology, and education. Everything is contextual in culture” (Cajete, 2000, p. 3). Teachers need to spend time on their students, aiming to understand their needs and backgrounds before and during teaching. Knowing our students and being understanding of our students is essential for effective teaching.

In addition, it is important to include teacher training on attitude and behavior when facing students with diverse backgrounds, so that teachers should not view cultural ‘difference’ as ‘deficiencies’ (Harry & Anderson, 1995; Lindsey, 2004). It is important for teachers to note that the first step toward recognition and respecting students’ cultural identities is to acknowledge their own cultural identities (Lindsey, 2004). If a person shows little or no appreciation for how the role of culture plays in his/her growing development, it is unlikely that he/she would understand others’ cultural perspectives and how important they are in their lives. Then to foster a positive relationship between teacher and learners, for instance, I would share personal stories relating to my identities of Taiwanese culture and encourage students to share their cultural backgrounds accompanied with a communicative task via in-class or online discussion.
As a language teacher, building a positive teacher-student relationship, designing a multi-cultural curriculum, and involving cultural identities are essential factors in the language classroom as a community (Codrington & Fairchild, 2012). In the unit on clothing, students could be asked to bring traditional clothing or pictures to show the special clothing they wear for various festivals and share relevant background knowledge. It is effective to start with students’ known cultural areas and provide related tasks to challenge their use of the target language. Being the ‘expert’ in topics of their interest or knowledge motivates students’ learning and cultivates a positive attitude with respect to cultural identities.

“Culture and identity are deeply intertwined” (Lindsey, 2004, p. 9). Teachers need to be aware of their cultural identities and be trained with pedagogy in dealing with students from diverse cultural and ethnic backgrounds. Individual identity is linked to group identity, and is reconstructed with the relationships to the people that they are interacting with across time and space (Lindsey, 2004; Norton, 2016). It is important to enhance students’ confidence and knowledge of their own culture and to cultivate students’ respect of other’s cultural roles and identities. We know we are different, but this is also what we have in common. Knowing the difference and showing respect to each other, fostering the ability to proactively deal with prejudice, and using the target language as a tool for real-life communication are the main foci in my language classroom.

**Language Learning Later in Life**

When assisting the immigrants at the ELC in their pursuit of learning English, I struggled for quite some time with how language should be learned and how to make the
best learning possibilities with students of an advanced age. I explored the difficulties that older learners may encounter (e.g., the purpose and pressure of learning L2), and the effective teaching strategies based on the benefits of learning language later in life. First, one aspect of the language class that we should consider is that not all the people come to class to learn English; some of them come for a psychological relief as they view the classroom as a refuge (Norton, 2015). Through interacting with the older learners possessing multiple positional identities, I understood that for some learners, the ELC serves as a refuge where they can forget their life difficulties for a while. Regarding the obstacles that older learners might struggle to achieve competence in English as a foreign/second language in the United States, Lightbown and Spada (2006) discussed that older learners often feel embarrassed by their lack of pronunciation and frustrated in trying to say exactly what they mean. “Silence protected them from humiliation” (Duff, 2002, p. 312). However, comparing the older learners with child learners, the former acquire some language skills better such as cognitive maturity, metalinguistic awareness, and problem-solving skills. Knowing older learners’ anxieties and strengths helps me consider the different and essential elements to design the proper tasks/activities in the language classroom.

Lightbown and Spada (2006) further explain that many adult learners, especially those with good metalinguistic knowledge and whose previous language learning experience was based on grammar practice, prefer structure-based approaches. One of the beginning-level ESL classes in which I assisted was focused on grammar translation with a structure-based approach. The learners worked hard on practicing the grammatical morpheme with peers in speaking and writing; they switched to different partners to work
on the same grammatical form and filled in the blanks in their workbooks. However, some students would write something down and still not understand what they wrote because their peers would just show the answer to them. The practice was focused on the accuracy, but problems arose when another form was introduced or the drill setting was slightly changed, the students could not use the form correctly.

One student practiced the new form “Is this a book?” in the workbook. “A” is an indefinite article in this question and the class had learned this before. However, the student wrote down “Yes, this is book,” and ignored to use the indefinite article with other objects. The practice of repetition and drill of decontextualized sentences did not give learners sufficient opportunities to develop their comprehension, fluency, and communicative abilities (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). They practiced a lot of drills in the class, but they could not really communicate despite knowing how to use these grammatical patterns. It’s important to emphasize that form-based instruction does not significantly favor accuracy in language learning, but provides less opportunity for a meaningful communicative practice. “If you can’t use the language, you don’t know a language” (Liskin-Gasparro, 1987, p. 26). How can it be that the learner has the motivation to learn the language, but does not know how to use the target language in the long run?

Motivation represents an important concept in language learning in SLA research. However, Norton (2013) pointed out that insufficient attention is being paid to unequal relations of power between language learners and target language speakers. “Language is not only a linguistic system of words and sentences but also a social practice in which identities and desires are negotiated in the context of complex and often unequal social
relationships” (Norton, 2016, p. 476). Learners may have high motivation in target language learning but have ambivalence or little investment in the language practices of the classroom or community.

At the ELC, many of the immigrants’ first language is Spanish. I felt that I was not that close to them since they usually spoke some Spanish to me and expected me to understand, though they knew I do not know Spanish. They often spoke to the teacher in Spanish when they did not know how to express themselves and spoke English when they were asked to practice within the familiarity of rote repetition or pattern practice drills. To lessen learners’ dependence on their first language, I believe teachers should claim on the first day of the class that the class will stay in the target language mainly and the teacher should put forth efforts to do so. Learners were motivated to learn since they came to the ELC for three hours after tiring work three times a week. However, it seemed to me that they were not “invested” in the language practice of the classroom, perhaps also because of the unequal relations of power between English learners and well-speaking English speakers (Norton, 2013). Learners’ investment in the target language (English) influenced their social interaction with their teacher, other native Spanish-speaking peers, and the people outside of the classroom. It, in turn, lessened the negotiation of their L2 identities and the possibilities of becoming professional L2 users.

It is not possible to customize instruction for every individual’s learning preferences, even though individual differences are likely to influence learner’s language learning. Nevertheless, the goal of the language classroom should be enriched with a wide variety of instructional activities so that learners with different identities, abilities, and preferences can be successful in learning the language (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).
Secondly, teachers should stay in the target language and design the communicative tasks related to their daily lives. Language learning requires “using the language to interpret and express real-life messages” (Lee & Van Patten, 2003, p. 6). The emphasis of language learning should be placed on the meaningful communication, rather than the accuracy of grammar and structure practice. Furthermore, I wish to be a teacher who can “harness the social, cultural, and linguistic capital that language learners already possess, and to better understand their hopes for the future” (Norton, 2015, p. 389). Learners can see their possibilities through using the target language when I carry out meaningful practices in the classroom, and feel comfortable to invest to the language practices actively. With a supporting and safe learning community of the language classroom, I expect students to take the initiative to make differences beyond fitting better into their real lives.

**Conclusion**

The experience of serving in the ELC taught me that I should be aware of the rich culture behind learners’ multi-faceted identities and incorporate cultural topics into the curriculum. Designing a multicultural curriculum for diverse students, assisting students to embrace the diversity with respectful manners, and affirming their cultural identities are important means to make students invest more in foreign language learning.

I believe it is essential to recognize my positionality and cultural role as a teacher before getting to understand my students. The learning of those who teach “lies in their seeking to become involved in their students’ curiosity and in the paths and streams it takes them through” (Freire, 2005, p. 32). Reflecting the idea from Confucius, the Chinese social philosopher, by the online translation from Muller (1990), “Reviewing
what you have learned and learning anew, you are fit to be a teacher” (p. 2). There is no
teaching without learning. Teachers should not impose a general framework on every
student; instead, teachers should help students to discover their different assets in
language learning and learn from them.

I cannot make learners’ lives better or decrease the mismatches of social-
economics through language learning directly. What I can do as a foreign language
teacher is help the learners to develop a more open mind of seeing multiple possibilities
and cultivate their critical thinking skills through using the target language in social
interaction. Learning how to think means learning how to exercise control over how and
what you think, staying conscious and choosing how you construct the meaning from
exercise (Wallace, 2005). Being a master of one’s own mind and using the target
language to complete tasks that reflect real-life communication are my main goals to
facilitate my learners’ acquisition of the target language. Recognizing the importance of
culture as a teacher, I know now that I can serve better as a FL language teacher to foster
learners’ learning by providing a classroom as an enjoyable and supportive community
and by encouraging learners’ investments in language practices through drawing upon
their identities.
INTRODUCTION

In this section, I include three annotated bibliographies which are related to my teaching and research perspectives: communicative language teaching; technology in FL classrooms; and learner identities. On the topic of communicative language teaching, I include the books that inspired me to apply a communicative language teaching approach to my language classrooms and the articles that further sharpened my perspectives on making differentiation to fit the needs and contexts of students an integral part of my teaching practice. The second topic corresponds to my research interests in integrating technology applications into foreign language classrooms within the objectives of each class as well as to achieve the greatest possible linguistic gains for students. In the last annotated bibliography on the topic of learner identities, I provide an overview of sources that help me understand more about the aspects of learner identities that can influence the language learning process and the methods that a teacher can employ to create a better possible learning experience for students through incorporating learner identities in the curriculum.
COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

I was first introduced to a communicative language teaching (CLT) approach when I entered the Master of Second Language Teaching (MSLT) program. I view CLT as a teaching approach to facilitate learners’ use of target language in a meaningful communication within a student-centered classroom setting. My understanding of CLT has been guided by some professors of the MSLT program, experimentation with it in the Chinese language courses that I teach, and reinforced by the research literature. This annotated bibliography presents my understanding of CLT based on the sources I have read during the MSLT program. Most of the sources I read demonstrate the methods and advantages of applying CLT to language classrooms; some of the sources show the limitations of CLT and the immediate adjustments that should be taken. The sources regarding CLT in this annotated bibliography help me to keep up with current research and adapt the methods and techniques in my Chinese language classroom.

The first time I encountered CLT was when I read the book *Making Communicative Language Teaching Happen* by Lee and VanPatten (2003). The book provides a good amount of materials and strategies to help novice language teachers develop a communicative classroom environment. This approach involves the teacher acting as a facilitator while the students are the main figures in the classroom that interact and exchange meaningful messages with via the teacher’s guidance. Secondly, Lee and VanPatten explained the ways in which classroom communication could be more effective in a real-world situation and demonstrated how classroom communication could be conducted through the use of information-exchange tasks. The task of information exchange (e.g., an information gap activity) involves learners with different pieces of
information orally conveying that information to each other. It requires the participants to ask effective questions as information givers and to listen carefully as recipients during the conversation.

Whereas information-exchange tasks are communication-centered, the authors also explained and focused on the importance of whether and how to teach grammar through the use of structured output (i.e., focus on form in language production) activities. “Form here is defined as surface features of language (e.g., inflections, articles, particles)” (Lee & VanPatten, 2003, p. 138). To differentiate from the traditional activities of drill structures without any focus on meaning, the communicative activities with the forms of structures is that there is no single correct response and learners need to understand the stimulus and what they are saying to complete the exercise (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). To push my Chinese beginning-level students to communicate in the target language, I consider the forms are helpful for them not to struggle so many features of language (i.e., content, grammar, tones, and Chinese characters) at the same time when processing output in Chinese.

To know what and how to lead a communicative classroom, the second book I encountered was *The communicative classroom* written by Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, and Mandell (2001). The authors emphasized that communicative teaching and learning should follow the *Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century* (SFLC) (NSFLEP, 2006). Communication in language learning is composed of three modes: interpersonal; interpretive; and presentational. The interpersonal mode is characterized by conveying meaningful messages and negotiation among individuals. It’s a two-way communication between individuals, either listeners and speakers, or readers and writers.
The interpretive mode is a personal process through which comprehensible input becomes filtered intake. It involves the skills of reading and listening. For the presentational mode, learners present what they know, using their speaking and writing skills. I bear these three modes in mind when examining my lesson plans and observing my peers when they teach in their language classes. The three modes are the means correlated with five broad goals that define the purposes of language learning, referred to as ‘The Five C’s’ by the Task Force of the National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project (NSFLEP) (2006).

The Five C’s are communication, cultures, connections, comparisons, and communities. Communication is at the heart of second language acquisition, whether the communication takes place via face-to-face, in writing, or through reading literature (NSFLEP, 2006). As students gain proficiency in the language, the component of culture should be emphasized through the contexts. Without knowing the cultural background associated with the language they are learning, students cannot truly master the language (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, & Mandell, 2001). The connection between learners’ first language and the foreign language they are learning should be considered when planning a lesson. Comparing the language they are learning with the world in which it functions, learners can develop critical perspectives through learning and exploration. To combine communication, cultures, connections, and comparison together enable and extend students’ ability to live in multilingual and multicultural communities in a global society. Knowing the foreign language standards along with the examples of classroom scenarios in all levels of instruction from this book enables me to be more prepared for teaching Chinese as a foreign language in the United States. “Having knowledge of the standards
has become practically synonymous with being a current foreign language professional” (Shrum & Glisan, 2010, p. 57).

The *Teacher’s handbook* by **Shrum and Glisan (2015)** provided the novice teachers a great guideline linking the underlying theoretical ideas about language acquisition with practical methods through a variety of topics. The book included effective communicative strategies and techniques, assessment of standards, and technology to contextualize instruction. In this book, I have learned another effective teaching method called PACE which is a story-based approach to incorporate teaching grammar through communicative contexts instead of solely presenting learners with overt, form-focused, output activities. “Storytelling is a natural activity that is socially mediated on a daily basis outside the walls of the classroom” (Shrum & Glisan, 2010, p. 222). A story-based approach not only makes a connection to learners’ real lives, but also facilitates learners’ comprehension and establishes the meaning of the content of the story. The PACE/story-based approach incorporates the following stages: 1) presentation of meaningful language; 2) attention of the grammar feature; 3) co-construction of the explanation; 4) extension activities to practice the grammatical structure. The story-based PACE approach enables learners to comprehend the meaning and experience the function of grammar through integrated discourse in the form of a story (Shrum & Glisan, 2010). I taught a unit of indicating a person’s whereabouts in Chinese using a story-based PACE lesson, and the students could connect to the discourse and comprehend the meaningful texts with some grammar structures from the very beginning of the lesson. Following the standards of foreign language education and the principles of a CLT approach, I have seen the great language outcomes from my students in the Chinese language classes that I
teach. However, during my first semester of teaching Chinese at USU, I doubted whether or not I applied the CLT approach effectively and wondered how or what to adjust to improve the learning experience for my students.

I first explored Bax’s (2003) article *The End of CLT: A Context Approach to Language Teaching*. The author claimed that a context-based approach should be placed first before the dominant CLT approach. The article included information regarding teachers’, trainers’, and material writers’ attitudes regarding CLT and concludes that “if you don’t have CLT, then you are backward, and you can’t learn a language” (Bax, p. 280). Teachers cannot insist that CLT is the whole and complete solution to language learning. Bax posited that CLT should be removed from the priority in the language teaching profession and that we should make room for a context approach based on contextual analysis. There was no clear definition of the meaning of context in the article; the author explained context as referring to students and their learning variations, the course book, local conditions, the classroom culture, school culture, national culture, and as far as possible the time of teaching (Stephen Bax, 2003). The author encouraged teacher trainers to use this context approach to help teacher trainees cultivate the contextual awareness and context analysis skills needed to be an effective language teacher. In this way, teachers can make a decision regarding the most appropriate approach(es) for each particular classroom and adapt that approach over time in that specific context. What I learned and echoed a true voice in this article is that all teachers may use an eclectic approach to adjust their teaching to better fit varied classroom settings and students. I noticed that the importance of analyzing the context (i.e., knowing my students and their needs, understanding the classroom culture as well as the local
culture) before and during my teaching; I should adjust my approach and activities based on learners’ needs.

Bax’s idea of adopting a context approach prior to (or in lieu of) a CLT approach caused a debate in later articles. In the article *Communicative language teaching: unity within diversity*, Hiep (2007) identified the key theoretical tenets of CLT and discusses a case study of three EFL college teachers’ beliefs and implementation of CLT in college-level EFL classes in Vietnam. When the CLT approach is conducted in a particular context, there are issues that can arise, but the author argued that it is questionable whether these issues would invalidate the potential usefulness of CLT. All three teachers in the case study emphasized the effectiveness of applying CLT to their classrooms, stressing the success of CLT in real-life communication, students’ motivation, and a positive learning atmosphere (Hiep, 2007). However, the author pointed out when implementing the CLT techniques (e.g., collaborative work, authentic language input, and meaningful communication) in Vietnam or China, a range of context issues emerge, such as the social-cultural, political, and physical conditions of these countries and how they were different from those in western countries (e.g., North America).

Three college EFL teachers in Vietnam firmly exposed the primary goal of CLT approach — use the target language (i.e., English) in a meaningful way — was consonant with students’ ultimate goal of learning English in the context. But the teachers faced different challenges when it came to concrete practice in the classrooms, including a lack of a real environment for students to use English, a large class size (i.e., 40-50 students), the use of the first language (i.e., Vietnamese) during group discussion, and the concern for examinations. Adapting CLT to fit the needs of the students, Hiep (2007) encouraged
teachers in Vietnam or non-western countries should enhance classroom techniques within a CLT approach and called for more research on the use of CLT in non-western contexts. Reading and writing in Chinese contexts is a relatively difficult task for L2 Chinese beginner-level learners who come from a non-character background. As a result, I further investigated the teaching and learning strategies of how to write Chinese characters as well as making the characters become more meaningful and more easily memorized for western learners.

In the article A qualitative inquiry of character learning strategies by Chinese L2 beginners written by Zahradníková (2016), the author discussed the mnemonic methods and learning strategies used by fifty first-year Chinese L2 learners in a Czech University for a period of one semester. In the second-semester Chinese class, 259 new characters along with other information (e.g., the stroke order, pronunciation, meaning, component of the character, the etymology of each character, and the words containing the character) are introduced. As a weekly assignment, students were asked to copy four lines of each of the learned characters as a requirement and encouraged to describe any strategy that helps them to memorize the character. The valid data included 2,319 strategies describing ways of memorizing individual characters; each character was described by 8.9 students on average. Strategies were analyzed regarding their content and usage frequency. Ten frequently-used basic strategies included: story; radical (i.e., remembering the character by its semantic root radical); imagination; component comparison (i.e., integrating a new character into the system of already-known characters by searching for common components); word (i.e., learning the character as parts of polysyllabic words); similarity; drawing; emotion (i.e., knowing how a learner feels about a character);
etymology (i.e., understanding the original meaning of the character and its components provided by textbooks or teaching materials); and pronunciation.

Some of the above strategies were used individually to elaborate one piece of information; some of them were used in combinations (e.g., use radical and story as two strategies to decompose the character into components and create an association with what the component represents) to analyze the character. The results showed students’ tendency were to analyze characters into components, name individual components in one character, and focus on graphic and semantic information. Secondly, the emphasis of etymology instruction given in this research turned out that the students preferred to create their own stories of the characters. Thirdly, the results supported the importance of radical instruction, emphasizing on the naming components of a character to help learners memorize Chinese characters. As a result, teachers should help learners to process the root radicals systematically and solidly in teaching materials and exercises. Having a deeper investigation of students’ preferences and the strategies they use when learning Chinese characters helped me to more effectively explain the characters, offer my students a variety of strategy choices, and further develop their analytical thinking through sharing the strategies with all students.

To apply CLT into Chinese FL classrooms with different effective techniques, I further read the article *The effectiveness of learning through Drama in teaching Chinese as a second language* written by Wen (2015). The author claimed that drama-oriented teaching/learning could facilitate interpersonal interactions and communicative skills. The goals of this research were: 1) to investigate the FL teaching approaches through drama via several case studies; and 2) to analyze the effectiveness of students’ Chinese
FL learning through drama. In the three case studies of second language teaching, Wen (2015) discussed the use of process drama strategies and with related teaching theories (e.g., the 5C standards of ACTFL) to examine the effectiveness of the teaching process and the learning outcomes. Drama education provides learners with comprehensive learning. According to Wen (2015), the essential components are as follows: 1) meaningful contexts for learners to learn the culture (i.e., Chinese idioms and puns); 2) collaborative learning (i.e., group work or teamwork); 3) thematic teaching (i.e., a topic that students care about and with related experiences); 4) physical involvement (i.e., the use of body movements to create images into a fictional setting with characters); and 5) skillful questions to facilitate interpersonal activities in communication. For example, one of the cases selected Shakespeare’s Macbeth in an advanced-level EFL class of seventeen-year-old students in Taiwan. The meaningful and cultural context helped students to immerse in a real play and enhanced their ability to analyze and act it out through several rounds of peer-reflection guided by the instructor.

Wen (2015) further observed an advanced Chinese language class and used a qualitative method to conduct a semi-structured interview with the participants (i.e., an instructor and his nine college-level students). The author discussed the difficulties of learning Chinese for American students, the teaching process, and the teaching activities. The results showed that teaching Chinese through rehearsed drama could motivate students’ learning enthusiasm, improve students’ intonation, and enhance students’ use of the target language through improvisation. Wen (2015) suggested that the curriculum design should contain five components: warm-up games; scaffolding activities; rehearsal practices; improvisation sections; and assessments of rubrics. However, the author also
pointed out using drama as a teaching method needs an amount of time for teachers and students to develop content and rehearse repeatedly, and it is better to implement drama-oriented teaching/learning in an advanced-level Chinese language class.

The books and articles I have read regarding communicative language teaching enhance my positive beliefs of applying CLT to the Chinese FL language classroom. In particular, it is especially more clear to me what the language standards mean and I now have a better understanding about the various language teaching techniques/methods that make use of real examples/sources. Considering the needs of western Chinese language learners, I am more aware of analyzing the contexts before and during my teaching, making the Chinese writing system (i.e., Chinese characters) more meaningful and connected to students’ learning, and examining the concepts and meanings of each activity for my students.
TECHNOLOGY IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

This annotated bibliography includes a largely similar version of what I wrote with my colleague Alex Gatica for the LING 6520 Technology for Language Teaching course with Dr. Joshua Thoms in spring 2016. This latter version contains new sources of information about computer assisted language learning (CALL) that originally piqued my interest in applying technological applications to the foreign language (FL) classroom. I further explore the theme about digital literacy with foci on the application of eComma and the implementation of digital storytelling in FL classrooms.

One area of CALL that has received much attention relates to the ways in which L2 learners acquire vocabulary via technology. A number of software innovations related to the teaching and learning of L2 vocabulary have made their way to mobile devices. This lead me to further investigate the literature regarding L2 vocabulary acquisition via a subfield of CALL referred to as mobile assisted language learning (MALL). What follows is a review of the literature about enhancing vocabulary acquisition via MALL.

Computer assisted language learning (CALL)

Students today have grown up with technology, which affects how this new generation learns and processes information. The first book I encountered is written by Ducate and Arnold (2011). They organized papers with a joint focus on CALL and theories of second language acquisition (SLA). New technologies provide more opportunities for language teachers and learners, but how do teachers implement them in the curriculum effectively? They discussed the importance of the connection between CALL and theories of SLA and pedagogy. Teachers should not only stay up-to-date on
the newest CALL tools but also be aware of applying only the tools that match their teaching pedagogies.

There are four chapters centered around the ACTFL standards’ 5C’s (*National Standards for Foreign Language Education*, n.d.), which are devoted to the interpersonal, interpretive, and presentational modes of communication. In chapter five about CALL technologies for L2 reading, the researcher introduced ten instructional implications for L2 reading. With Web. 2.0 tools, such as wikis, blogs, and social networking sites, students can not only access authentic materials but can also communicate their thoughts with a larger community through a virtual platform. In addition, even though some of the applications being introduced now may one day be replaced because of the evolving nature of technology, the authors provided a firm foundation of teaching with and evaluating CALL. After reading Ducate and Arnold’s (2011) co-edited volume, I was more aware of how to select and make efficient use of CALL tools in my curriculum.

When reading Chinese as a second language, there are no spaces between each vocabulary word in a sentence except punctuation, which oftentimes results in Chinese FL learners struggling to understand the sentence/content. Current e-reading applications of CALL enable readers to annotate their own comments on texts and share annotations through collaborative reading. Blyth (2013) discussed an open source tool called eComma for collaborative L2 reading. The CALL application *eComma* was created and designed by the University of Texas at Austin in 2009. “The tool’s main purpose was to enable a group of readers to build a commentary on a text and to search, display, and share the commentary online in a more pliable form than had previously been available” (Blyth, 2013, p. 33). eComma changes the individual reading experience to a digital
social reading environment. That is, readers discover the meaning through the social interaction online. It helps learners to make different contributions to the text as well as have a close reading with word clouds for further analysis of the text.

In 2010, the Center for Open Educational Resources and Language Learning (COERLL) pilot tested eComma in L1 and L2 classrooms at universities throughout the United States (Blyth, 2013). The purpose of the pilot testing was to examine the usability of eComma for further improvement and determined how the tool influenced teachers’ understanding of L2 literacy instruction. Blyth (2013) discussed various cases of applying eComma in different French L2 classrooms. The cases included French language courses at the beginning and higher levels, and graduate courses on literacy through literature and linguistic variation in French-speaking societies. The participating teachers concluded that eComma was helpful to see students’ different learning processes through annotating the texts, to discover and compare different highlighted forms (e.g., singular vs. plural) in a consciousness-raising activity, and was demonstrated students’ effective reading strategies, especially for lower-level learners. Blyth (2013) concluded that eComma provided L2 readers guidance during the reading process through collaborative work and it helped L2 language learners be able to deal with more unknown vocabulary and grammar with learning strategies.

Based on the former study, Blyth (2014) further explored the teachers’ perceived pedagogical affordances of the application eComma for digital social reading. The author pointed out that digital social reading violates many teachers’ expectations of what it means to read by “blurring the line between private interpretation and public discussion” (p. 201). Blyth (2014) discussed the debates between digital literacy — including digital
social reading — and printed texts in print culture. Critics of digital literacy considered today’s online readers are easily distracted and cannot concentrate to unravel the complexities of a longer text. However, according to Hayles (as cited in Blyth, 2014), such criticism neglected the facts that understanding literacy itself is essential in reading and that digital media enable readers to sort through more information more quickly for identifying information in a text. To conclude, it is important to apply a different reading pedagogy through using digital media to enhance students’ L2 reading skills. Blyth (2014) suggested that “teachers did not view digital social reading as a way to do the same thing better, but rather as a way to do new and different things” (p. 222), such as a follow-up discussion on analyzing the group patterns of interpretation. The print culture is not being replaced by digital literacy; instead, the digital media provides more learning possibilities since reading literacy is becoming more participatory.

**Digital Storytelling (DST)**

To develop foreign language learners’ language skills in writing and speaking, I further investigated the effectiveness of digital storytelling and how to incorporate it as a teaching/learning tool in FL classrooms. Writing is an essential and important part of the process of creating digital stories. In “The effect of digital storytelling on visual memory and writing skills,” Sarica and Usluel (2016) focused on the structures of writing skills (WSs) in a specific educational context and visual memory capacity (VMC) on the effects of digital storytelling (DST) (Sarica & Usluel, 2016). The research aimed to investigate the following research questions: 1) What are the effects of DST on students’ VMC and WSs?; 2) After DST, have the VMC and WSs of the experimental group developed significantly?; and 3) Is the difference created by DST in the experimental
group’s VMC and WSs significantly greater than the difference created in the control group (p. 301)? The participants were 59 second grade, primary school students enrolled in the ‘Journey of Myself’ education program of the ‘Educational Volunteers Foundation of Turkey’ during the fall semester of 2013-2014.

The researchers used the five-stage digital story creation method (Ohler, 2013) in the experimental group over a period of thirteen weeks. The students created and revised the story of ‘My World’ and ‘Here is My life’ on the paper with the activity sheet in the first five weeks of the first stage. Pre-production activities were formed at the second stage in which students use desktop PCs with applications (e.g., KidsDoodle, Rainbow Doodle, and Animated Paint) to paint pictures, take photographs, and videos between the fifth and ninth weeks (p. 304). During the production process of the third stage, students chose to use ‘Microsoft Photo Story’ and ‘Movie Maker’ programs to develop the digital stories. The post-production stage included a final review and printout if necessary; the final delivery stage included a performance on stage and recording by CDs. The findings demonstrated that DST did not create a statistically significant difference regarding visual memory capacity. However, DST did create a significant difference in writing skills between the groups. Since the students developed their stories individually, the researchers suggest analyzing how digital stories can be developed as a group, and the role of cooperative learning processes should be conducted in future studies.

Telling a story with technology and interactive media can enhance learners’ holistic communicative skills. In “Effects of storytelling to facilitate EFL speaking using Web-based multimedia system”, Hwang et al. (2014) investigated the effects of using a web-based multimedia storytelling system on learners’ language development. The two
research questions presented in this study were: “1) Do students who have used the Web-based multimedia storytelling system during learning activities perform better on post-tests than those who have not used the system?; 2) What is the relationship of speaking performance and of animation representations with the system actual usage and with learning achievement?” (Hwang et al., 2014, p. 216). The participants were two sixth-grade classes learning EFL at an elementary school in Taiwan. Both classes were taught using the same material and by the same instructor for 3 hours a week over 6 weeks. Both classes were assigned to create stories, however, the control group used a traditional storytelling method and the experimental group used a web-based multimedia tool created by the researchers. Each student in both groups was asked to create five stories on their own and four more stories with a partner.

To collect data, the researchers administered a pre-test and a post-test. They also conducted a questionnaire and interviews with each student to understand the participants’ perceptions and attitudes toward using the web-based multimedia tool. The researchers also kept a participation log (i.e., recordings of students working on their stories). However, this was only done with the experimental group and the researchers note that it was difficult to record the content of stories created by the control group. The findings of the study were that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group on a summative assessment of students’ learning achievement (i.e., post-test). It was also found that there was a higher learning gain between pre- and post-tests for the experimental group. This suggested that learners made greater gains on vocabulary acquisition and more speaking practice when they used a multimedia tool compared to traditional storytelling methods.
After that, I further delved into the topic about implementing plenty of Web 2.0 CALL tools to FL learning contexts to fit different goals of classrooms. According to Wang and Vasquez (2012), the term Web 2.0 dated back to the first Web 2.0 conference (O’Reilly, 2005). The difference between Web 1.0 and Web 2.0 is that with the latter, people do not merely get information from the internet, but also participate in creating and sharing information. Furthermore, Web 2.0 concepts have led to the evolution of web-based communities, where people can collaborate and communicate in a virtual environment. The article reviewed eighty-five research articles published between 2005 and 2010 on the use of Web 2.0 technologies in the second language learning context. Earlier research tended to focus on the four traditional language skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening), while the more recent research concentrated on learners’ identities, online collaboration, and learning communities. The findings indicated that blogs and wikis have been the most studied Web 2.0 tools.

However, there were limitations, the first of which was that many of the less-studied Web 2.0 technologies still need to be investigated, such as Facebook, Twitter, Podcasts, MySpace, and Second Life. Moreover, widely used Web 2.0 tools such as social bookmarking and mind-mapping applications should be studied in the future. Fifty-eight percent of the studies reviewed by Wang and Vasquez focused on English as a foreign language or second language (EFL/ESL). Hence, the second limitation was that less commonly taught languages, such as Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Russian, have not yet been widely investigated. After reviewing these Web 2.0 tools, I experimented with some of them in my Chinese FL classroom, such as incorporating Memrise and a Facebook page into the curriculum based on the objectives of class to achieve the greatest
possible linguistic gains (i.e., Memrise) and create a more engaging learning community
(i.e., Facebook page). Since almost every student has a smartphone, I became even more
interested in further exploring the MALL literature to better understand CALL
applications that target L2 vocabulary acquisition.

Mobile assisted language learning (MALL)

Duolingo and vocabulary acquisition

One well-known technology application for vocabulary acquisition is Duolingo.

Munday (2015) conducted a study that focused on the benefits of incorporating Duolingo
into two university-level Spanish courses and how it can complement a typical/standard
course. In the study, Munday (2015) stated that Duolingo’s main goal is “to teach
vocabulary and grammar” (p. 84). There were 62 participants in the study. Forty-six
students were from a first-year Spanish class and 16 were from a more advanced Spanish
class. The study took place over a 16-week semester. The students used the app outside
of class, both in the mobile version and desktop version, as a complement to their
homework. For the first-year Spanish students, they needed to complete 5 Duolingo
lessons per week. The more advanced class had different tasks. The “goal was to have
students review basic vocabulary and grammar that they should know at that level”
(Munday, 2015, p. 96). They were required to finish the entire Duolingo program in
Spanish by the end of the semester. At the end of the semester, all of the participants took
surveys in which they shared their perceptions and opinions of the app. Munday (2015)
found that the students enjoyed the app due to its mobile accessibility, its various
gamification aspects, and the variety of different language tasks that were available.
Munday (2015) concluded that Duolingo is a valuable tool to incorporate into college-level language courses and that is an effective method of enhancing L2 vocabulary acquisition. One of the ways that Duolingo achieves this goal of enhancing vocabulary acquisition is through spaced repetition algorithms that detect when L2 learners need to review vocabulary. Spaced repetition is the reviewing of words that may have been forgotten after time so as to better facilitate the memorization of vocabulary. Munday (2015) stated that “spaced repetition has proven to be very effective for acquiring vocabulary in particular, since repetition is essential” (Munday, 2015, p. 85).

The next article that I encountered was Jakova (2014)’s Ph.D. dissertation on Duolingo as a new language-learning website and its contribution to e-learning education. She conducted a study in which she inquired about the general public’s opinions and views on the effectiveness of Duolingo and how it can be improved. Jaskova (2014) sent questionnaires to 300 people living in the Czech Republic that had experienced using Duolingo. Of the 300 questionnaires sent out, 118 responded to the surveys. These 118 participants consisted of “men and women, teenagers and adults, students and working people” (Jaskova, 2014, p. 50). Jaskova (2014) stated that her rationale behind such a wide variety of participants was due to the fact that “Duolingo is accessible to all people and it is designed for the general public” (p. 50). The language that the participants had studied on Duolingo was not specified. The questionnaire consisted of questions asking about their satisfaction with the application and whether it is an effective tool for vocabulary acquisition. The majority of the participants stated that they were satisfied with Duolingo, noting that they “prefer e-learning to the classic way” (Jaskova, 2014, p. 59), in which they could use Duolingo on their mobile devices. The
participants also indicated that due to its “incredibly well-elaborated methodical and didactic system” (Jaskova, 2014, p. 60), Duolingo was indeed an effective means of vocabulary acquisition.

**Memrise and vocabulary acquisition**

I further encountered a case study on the actual usage of Memrise conducted by Wu (2015), a crowdsourcing program with periodic vocabulary review for college-level, Chinese-learning students. “When asked what experiences they would like to share with other users, students overwhelmingly suggested using a smartphone” (p. 56). The researcher examined students’ attitudes about technological tools and specific features of Memrise in personal interviews. Wu (2015) believed that intentional vocabulary learning should address word associations in a diverse number of ways, such as audio with captions through the Memrise program. He explained that “Memrise is an online learning tool with courses created by its community” (p. 49). Users could create their own mnemonic units and share them with other users. The study spanned over two academic years and involved two, third-semester, college-level Chinese classes. There were five lessons for one semester and the learners needed to complete a posttest after each lesson. Ten students in the first class were only used for a baseline as a comparison of character recognition scores. In the experimental class, eight students started the Memrise project after the second quiz. The students were assigned to learn and review the vocabulary for at least 15 minutes a day. The students received regular reminders via their smartphones or iPads to study and review words; if they did, their virtual flowers were ‘watered’ and kept ‘growing’. 
Though the relatively small amount of data was a concern, the results demonstrated the effectiveness of Memrise in helping the students learn Chinese vocabulary. The experimental group liked the technological features, including Mems (i.e., materials that help learners create a connection between a word and its meaning), a crowdsourcing feature, mini quizzes, spaced repetition study reminders, and pronunciation help. Furthermore, through the scores and interviews, the researcher found that the top two achievers in the experimental class were much more involved in creating Mems. This suggested that the more a student wants to figure out the meaning of a word and retain it, the more a student remembers it.

The next article that I read about using Memrise was Walker (2016), who discussed the impact of learning Latin vocabulary on the long-term retention of words. As the use of Latin today more often involves reading texts, learners have few opportunities to produce output in Latin. The accessibility and portability of Memrise compensated this issue and increased students’ exposure to Latin vocabulary. The researcher conducted a four-week experiment of using Memrise on eight 11th grade students studying for a test in Latin. The purpose of the study was to ascertain the Latin students’ perceptions of learning vocabulary, their perceptions of learning vocabulary through Memrise, and if Memrise was more effective in improving Latin vocabulary test performance. The students from grades eight to eleven were asked to complete a ten-question questionnaire on their perceptions of self-study habits. They held two group interviews with the 11th grade students; one included a discussion on their questionnaire responses before using Memrise and the other was a follow-up interview on their experience of using Memrise after a four-week period.
The results not only showed positive attitudes on learning vocabulary through Memrise but also the notion of competition on the Memrise leader board which piqued students’ interests. One of the students claimed, “I’m at the bottom, and my score is not even low” (p. 18). The Memrise program provided a collaborative learning environment through creating and sharing Mems, and a positive competition in the learning community. Some students suggested several changes for the improvement on the design of Memrise. One related to the email reminder for reviewing words; many of the students found this aspect of the tool annoying. The other one was that they wanted to drop the words they had already mastered, but the system would keep testing them if they made slight mistakes in typing or spelling. In all, the Memrise program was found to provide a collaborative learning environment through creating and sharing Mems, and lead to positive competition in the learning community.

Research to examine the actual usage of MALL tools by learners and the effects on long-term learning processes are limited, especially data on L2 Chinese learning. However, the literature regarding the language apps Memrise and Duolingo motivated my colleague Alex Gatica and me to implement these two tools into our Spanish and Chinese FL classrooms at USU for enhancing students FL vocabulary acquisition.

**Texting and vocabulary acquisition**

Due to the constraint of class time in Taiwan (i.e., two to four hours per week in high school for EFL learning), Lu (2008) explored the effectiveness of short message service (SMS) vocabulary lessons through mobile phones. There were thirty high school students divided into two groups; one learned English vocabulary through SMS messages and the other learned from papers. The two groups switched their learning media after
one week, so all the participants could evaluate their experiences of using SMS lessons. The students had a pretest and posttest on two sets of English words (28 target words in total) during the two-week study. The researcher used quantitative (e.g., questionnaires) and qualitative methods (e.g., participant interviews) to collect and analyze data. Overall, the students had a positive attitude toward the SMS lessons because of the bite-sized nature of the lessons and that messages were ‘pushed’ to them two times a day, twice a week. In addition, the mobile phone groups performed better on the vocabulary gains on the posttest and delayed posttest when compared to the paper-based groups.

Hence, Lu (2008) stated that the mobile phone, with a reward-based scheme, motivated students’ interests and maximized their exposure to the target language. The students also claimed that the pushed messages offered cumulative lessons instead of the paper materials, which was more helpful for them to memorize the words. However, the limitations of this study included the fact that it was: 1) a two-week experiment, 2) only involved 14 target words each week, and 3) there was no tracking mechanism. The researcher suggests that there are three optimal conditions for vocabulary learning through a mobile phone: a reward based scheme; a tracking mechanism; and an interaction function. These three suggestions were helpful and I expected to see further research on ESL vocabulary learning through more different MALL methods/applications.

The next article I read was inspired by Lu’s (2008) study, where Wu (2015) discussed the limitations of SMS and designed a new vocabulary learning application for ESL learners in China. Since 2005, Chinese university students need to pass the College English Test-Band 6 (CET6) in a majority of Chinese universities, so the educational
system from the Chinese Ministry of Education needs to be emphasized in this research. Wu (2015) developed a smartphone application called Word-learning-CET6, which included 1,274 English words to test and discuss the effectiveness of this tool for enhancing English vocabulary on Chinese college students. There were two purposes for his research: 1) to look for a new way to help EFL learners memorize the English vocabulary in a more convenient and user-friendly way; and 2) provide a solution for educators who have difficulties teaching vocabulary with limited knowledge of computer science. The 71 out of 100 participants whose scores fell into the same standard on a vocabulary pretest were divided into a test group and a control group at random.

There were three deficiencies in SMS; the illegibility of one large and long message, passive waiting for receiving messages, and the choice of self-learning. Wu (2015) designed the app in a clear touch-screen version and the 35 students from the test group could look up the words anytime and anywhere. The students could create three separate folders from the glossary for repetitive study based on the individual learning process and make a sample test from their own words’ selection. The study’s results show that the test group memorized 88.67 more words, which represented a 6.96% improvement when compared to the control group who practiced the vocabulary with their own vocabulary materials. The Word Learning-CET6 provided an accessible tool for ESL learners but it also needed to be upgraded for correcting errors and supplying new content for further improvements. The study is meant to be an example for language teachers and learners showing that with limited knowledge of technology, MALL tools are not hard to design and incorporate into the curriculum.
Through examining these sources, I have embraced a new aspect of second language teaching via the CALL and MALL fields. “Once a teacher decides on a theoretical framework to guide the pedagogy, the decision to integrate the technology into that pedagogy must be made according to learning theory and within the guidelines of the discipline’s methodology” (Ducate & Arnold, 2011, p. 47). After reading books and articles concerning CALL and MALL, I was more aware of how to incorporate technological applications into the curriculum properly. Teachers should apply technological tools and apps not only because it is fascinating to the students and themselves, but based on the goals and objectives of class to achieve the greatest possible linguistic gains for students and for their overall understanding of the L2 under study.
LEARNER IDENTITIES

This annotated bibliography was written when carrying out research for a cultural paper about learner identities in connection with my internship at the English Language Center (ELC) in Logan, Utah. This internship provided me the opportunity to know more about students from diverse backgrounds and their investments in English language learning. I noticed that the complicated relations among identity, power, and race might influence students’ learning and the relationship between learners and teachers. The internship inspired me to motivate students’ investment in language practice (e.g., through digital storytelling) and to provide students the occasion for seeing a better future for themselves through language learning.

Since there are many adult immigrants learning English at the ELC, I am interested in discovering the relation between age and second language learning, and how to help adult learners make the most of their individual strengths and learning preferences. As a result, I read *How languages are learned* written by Lightbown and Spada (2006). In the book, the authors explained topics related to second language acquisition supported by empirical research in the SLA field. In chapter three, which is about the effects of individual differences on language learning, helped me to consider what might be going on in older learners as they struggle to achieve competence in English as a new language in the United States. Older learners often feel embarrassed by their lack of mastery of the language, especially pronunciation, and also feel frustrated in trying to say exactly what they mean. However, pronunciation in relation to foreign accent is not the only characteristic that indicates proficiency in the L2. If teachers know information about older learners’ personalities, their motivation, their general and
specific intellectual abilities, and their age, they can predict these differences and help learners to be successful in second language learning.

Cognitive maturity, metalinguistic awareness, and problem-solving skills are the benefits of older learners because they are better able to notice and transfer the linguistic knowledge across languages in comparison with child learners. Furthermore, there are attitudinal, cultural, and cognitive differences between individual learners. It remained difficult to predict from the research what particular characteristics would influence an individual’s language learning. However, knowing what anxieties and strengths the students may have helped me to be more aware of my teaching as a graduate instructor. As a result, one of the goals for any teacher is to create a learning environment offering a range of instructional activities so that learners with individual strengths and preferences can all benefit from the L2 classroom.

Reading hooks’s book *Teaching Critical Thinking: Practical Wisdom* (2010) brought my attention to examine what I should care most about in my language classroom. The author used a self-reflective analysis to have an honest conversation about education with students and educators. Hook’s thoughtful insights were extracted from her learning in the classroom as a black female student in a predominantly white university and her teaching experience in higher education. In her view, the classroom is a miniature of society. “Class was more than just a question of money; it shaped values, attitudes, social relations and the bias that informed the way knowledge would be given and received” (p. 178). She also discussed embedded issues such as race, class, and gender complexities in U.S. higher educational institutions. This inspired me to involve more deliberately my students’ identities through sharing their own stories or opinions on
controversial topics by designing a multi-cultural curriculum. Furthermore, it made me more aware that my personal perspectives may influence students’ viewpoints of seeing the world.

Incorporating critical thinking pedagogy in the classroom calls for everyone’s participation. Both teacher and students are responsible for creating a learning community and participating actively. “Teachers must be open at all times, and we must be willing to acknowledge what we do not know” (p. 10). What I have learned from hooks wass that teachers must critically evaluate their instructional methods and practice to produce true education. Hooks moved beyond the theory to the practical application. When reading the selection of “Teaching 14: Crying Time,” I reflected on one time when there was a girl crying in my classroom. What I would have done differently is to value the emotional expression and make skillful use of emotion in the classroom. After reading “Teaching 10: Sharing the Story,” I realized that I should offer more opportunities to engage students in discussions on their personal experiences in the classroom. Being the ‘expert’ in the knowledge of one’s background helps motivate students’ learning and cultivates a positive attitude and respect for diverse identities. Noticing students’ reactions and performance in the class helps me build a more caring learning environment. Hooks made me aware of the power of bringing students’ identities and perspectives into class discussion.

Paulo Freire significantly influenced hook’s teaching pedagogy. Reading the book Teachers as Cultural Workers: Letters to Those Who Dare Teach, Freire (1998) inspired me to consider what I can do better as a language teacher, especially in my social
role as a teacher. He spoke directly to educators, especially to the beginning teachers, about the lessons he has learned as an educator and a social theorist.

Firstly, constant learning is the task for educators. The teacher should model positive attitudes and behaviors towards learning new things. The learning of those who teach “lies in their seeking to become involved in their students’ curiosity and in the paths and streams it takes them through” (p. 32). Secondly, Freire provided a great example of the importance of representing concrete reality through reading. One of his students from northeast Brazil comprehended the world differently after reading an article about a man who sculpted clay vases by hand for a living. Cultivating learners’ literacy skills enables them to think critically at a higher level and to make a connection to the world they read about. Thirdly, teachers must “speak of love without the fear of being called ridiculous, mawkish, or unscientific, if not antiscientific” (p. 5). One important responsibility of the teacher is to assuage the ills of society, especially the pressure from unjust treatment and the inequalities of socio-economic circumstances that influence the learners’ learning in the classroom. I knew that learners at the ELC struggle with these issues, too.

The task of a teacher is full of joy and full of rigor. Freire showed that a successful teacher is committed to permanent learning and training. Teachers should examine their multiple aspects of the role in the classroom critically, and push students to think on a higher level by linking the learning to the real world. Understanding various roads students may take to learn, teachers can reconstruct their roles and instruction continuously to be able to benefit every learner in the classroom.
To understand my students from diverse backgrounds better, I became interested in knowing how I can draw upon the learner’s identity to foster language learning. Norton (2016) laid out her research and that of other social science scholars on critical ideas regarding identity, investment, and imagined communities in language learning. I struggled with what a language teacher could do since some of the older immigrant learners at the ELC brought up ‘I’m poor’ several times in the class discussion. I did not know an appropriate way to respond to students’ suffering in their daily lives. Then Norton taught me the notion that “language is not only a linguistic system of words and sentences but also a social practice in which identities and desires are negotiated in the context of complex and often unequal social relationships” (p. 476). Following this thought, learners anticipate that acquiring the target language will increase their cultural confidence and social power. If teachers could assist learners to invest their efforts with lasting motivation and if teachers offered real-world target language practice in the classroom, then learners may demonstrate more progress.

Norton defined identity as “the way a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is structured across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future” (p. 476). This caused me to think about how I may reinforce learners’ investments, imagined identities, and imagined communities to construct their hopes on possibilities for the future by using the target language. I was excited that Norton addressed the promising future of identity research which would include an increased interest in language teacher identity. I plan to explore more how to incorporate my positionality appropriately in the classroom based on a productive relationship between literature and practice.
Having learned that imagined identities are related to the social construct of investment, I became curious about how learners’ L2 self-image as part of the intensity of motivation can be beneficial to the language classroom. An article by Dörnyei and Chan (2013) investigated how learners’ capability to generate mental imagery was linked to their learning accomplishment in a sample of one hundred seventy-two Chinese students (aged 13-15) in Hong Kong, by collecting self-reported questionnaires and objective measures. All of the participants were of the Chinese ethnicity and spoke Cantonese as their first language. In addition, all of them learned English and Mandarin as well.

Learners’ future L2 self includes the ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self. The ideal L2 self is concerned with what an ideal self with L2 speaking proficiency might want to become; the ought-to L2 self means the properties that learners believe they “ought to possess to avoid possible negative outcomes” (p. 438) such as social pressures. Therefore, L2 teaching should consider learners’ eagerness to become effective L2 users, learners’ pressures to master the L2, and the actual L2 learning process learners have (p. 439).

The obtained results reveal here was a distinct association between the future L2 self-guides, intended efforts, and actual course grades. The study confirmed the multi-sensory dimension of mental imagery which was influenced by both visual and auditory assistances. Besides visualization, I should apply more meaningful tasks involving auditory practices in my classroom to cover different student needs. In addition, my instruction should be more engaging and include more training to facilitate students’ L2 self-images in a language classroom without anxiety.
To assist students to build on the confidence of an ideal self with L2 proficiency, I read the article by Norton (2015) about linking learners’ identities and the promising language practice of digital storytelling. To increase learners’ investments with imagined identities, the author highlighted the successful experiments of applying digital storytelling (DST) in L2 English classes located in Canada, Uganda, China, and India. Norton defined digital stories as “brief personal narratives told through images, sounds and words, and which use new media technology. DST incorporated students’ past and present lives in the learning process, and their hopes for the future” (p. 388). Digital storytelling can be used as a tool to develop all four skills in L2 learning: speaking; listening; reading; and writing. Creating a digital story is often done collaboratively as a group, however it can be done individually. It also entails receiving feedback from peers and engaging in group discussion and provides learners with open spaces express their voices/perspectives.

One administrator noted in Norton’s research that not all the people came to class to learn a language or English, some of them came for a psychological relief as viewing the classroom as a refuge. What I have learned from this article was the importance to create a friendly learning environment as a refuge where learners can forget about their life difficulties, and also apply the teaching pedagogy of digital storytelling through which learners can share their personal stories. I wish to be a teacher who can “harness the social, cultural, and linguistic capital that language learners already possess, and to better understand their hopes for the future” (p. 389). Learners are able to see their possibilities when I offer them meaningful practice in the language classroom, even when that is mediated by/through technology.
I appreciate the opportunity of serving my internship at ELC since I got to know the learners and their difficulties of balancing their lives with language learning. The experience fostered my interest in exploring more about learner identities. Knowing that older learners benefit from their cognitive maturity and metalinguistic awareness, I am better able to implement the multiple aspects of curriculum to cultivate learners’ critical thinking skills, and to meet the needs of students with different strengths. I am happy that I encountered digital storytelling as an effective pedagogy to link learners’ personal voice to their language learning, an aspect of language learning and teaching that piqued my interest in exploring further in my literacy paper about developing language skills through telling digital stories. Recognizing my social role as a teacher, I know now that I can serve better as a language teacher by providing a classroom as a safe and supportive space and by encouraging learners’ investment in language practice through drawing upon their identities to foster their language learning.
LOOKING FORWARD

As I complete my degree work in the MSLT program, I am optimistic that a variety of professional opportunities will open up to me. I especially appreciate the opportunity to work as a Chinese graduate instructor that has allowed me to put theory into concrete practice during my two years in the MSLT program at USU.

To continue my teaching career, I certainly want to pursue opportunities teaching Chinese as a foreign language at the college level based on my previous experience of teaching novice-level Chinese courses at USU. I am also willing to challenge myself to teach a higher level of Chinese learners in Utah’s Dual Language Immersion program. I believe no matter which career path I choose, it will provide me an unparalleled opportunity to develop my professional skills as a teacher and mentor.

I would also like to pursue a doctoral degree in instructional technology with emphases in applied linguistics or second language acquisition after one or two years of teaching experiences. If I return to Taiwan at some point in the future, I may consider to be a teacher trainer to help teacher trainees become effective language teachers or teach college-level English as a foreign language classes in Taiwan.
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APPENDICES
Appendix A
Handout of activity 1: role-play – CHIN 1020 lesson plan

角色扮演 (Role-play)

You just met someone you really like at a party and are interested in asking that person out, but you don’t know if he/she wants to go out with you. You and your friend need to discuss how to introduce yourself to him/her, compliment him/her on appearance or personality, and try to ask him/her out to do something.

简体生词 (Simplified)
对象, 跳舞, 有才能, 约会, 想, 要, 可以, 愿意, 什么时候, 有时间, 见面, 地方, 谈恋爱, 失恋, 男朋友, 女朋友, 分手, 单身

繁體生詞 (Traditional)
對象, 跳舞, 有才能, 約會, 想, 要, 可以, 願意, 什麼時候, 有時間, 見面, 地方
談戀愛, 失戀, 男朋友, 女朋友, 分手, 單身

Translation of the vocabulary above:
对象 (partner as boyfriend/girlfriend), 跳舞(to dance), 有才能(have talent), 约会(date), 想(to wish), 要(to want), 可以(can), 愿意(be willing to), 什么时候(what time), 有时间(to have free time), 见面(to meet), 地方(place), 谈恋爱(to be dating), 失恋(to lose one’s love), 男朋友(boyfriend), 女朋友(girlfriend), 分手(to break up), 单身(single)
Appendix B
Handout of activity 2: speed dating (simplified version) – CHIN 1020 lesson plan

快速约会

1. 你觉得几岁可以谈恋爱？
2. 第一次约会应该去哪儿？
3. 你想要你的对象有什么样的性格[xìng gé]？
4. 你喜欢什么运动[yùn dòng](sports)？
5. 你觉得谁应该请客[qǐng kè]？男的还是女的？还是AA制？
6. 你喜欢什么颜色？
7. 你喜欢看什么电影？
8. 你的专业[zhuān yè]是什么？
9. 你以后要不要小孩？
10. 你周末[zhōu mò](Weekend)喜欢做什么？

Step 1: Pick 3 questions to ask your partner.
Step 2: If you like and agree on all of his/her answers, you give him/her a sticker. If you only agree 1~2 answers or you do not like his/her answers, you say “很开心认识你!” (Nice to meet you!)
Step 3: Pick 3 other questions and keep going to know the next partner.

Translation of the ten questions on speed-dating activity:
1. What is the appropriate age to date?
2. Where should you go for the first date?
3. What are the personalities that your partner should have?
4. What kind of sports you like?
5. Who should pay the bill for the first date? Man or woman? Or all average?
6. What kind of color you like?
7. What kind of movie you like?
8. What is your major?
9. Do you want children in the future?
10. What do you like to do on the weekend?