Global Goals, Global Languages

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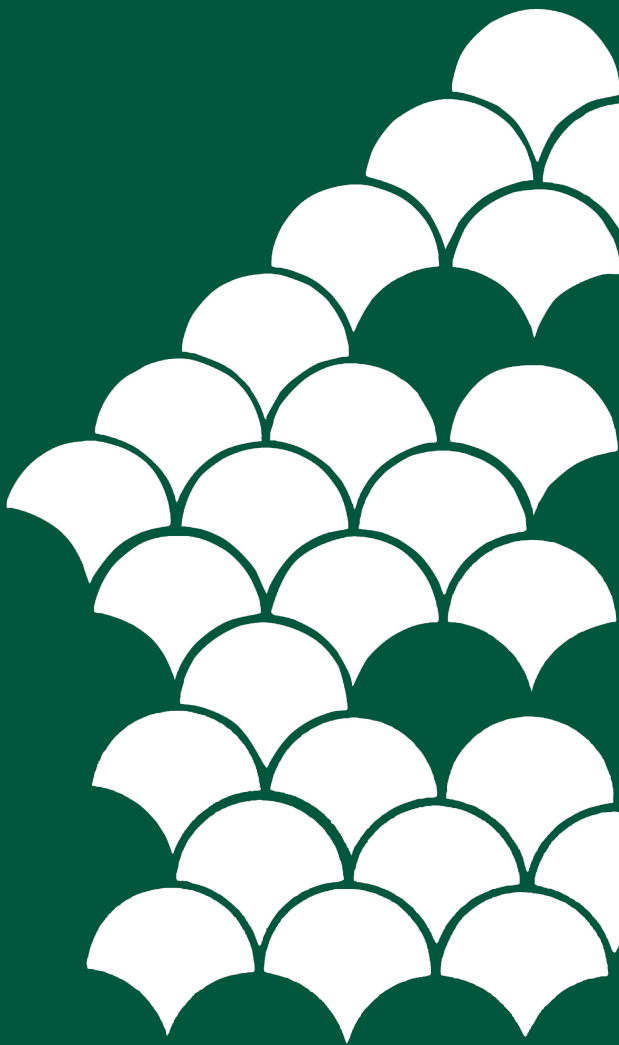

2025 Report of
The Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

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The Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages Report 2025

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Preface

Global Goals, Global Languages

The 2025 Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages was held in Kansas City, Missouri on March 13–15. The Central States Board was thrilled to host an outstanding professional event that brought together hundreds of language instructors, administrators, researchers, and advocates.

This year's theme, *Global Goals, Global Languages*, highlighted the partnership of the United Nations' 17 Sustainable Development Goals (Global Goals) and language curricula. The Global Goals were created to address urgent social, environmental, political, and economic issues facing our world. By focusing on goals in our language classrooms, we advocate for agency, for our ability to make choices, and for the chance to take action. In our language classes we certainly develop communicative proficiency, but we also develop critical thinking skills, intercultural competence, responsible stewardship, and global citizenship. At all instructional levels we connect our curricular themes to local and global issues and the Global Goals provide us with a vetted road map to do so.

In turn, languages are crucial for achieving the Global Goals because they act as the primary means of communication, enabling collaboration, information sharing, and effective implementation of development initiatives across diverse communities. Effective communication in local languages is vital for building trust, fostering participation, and gathering community input in decision-making processes.

The Central States Conference provided many opportunities for language professionals to learn, connect, and collaborate. We had over 150 sessions, workshops, and language immersion workshops and we were proud to welcome presenters who are locally, regionally and nationally recognized in the field of language education. Dr. Megan Ferry joined us from Union College to give an excellent keynote address titled Harnessing *Our Language Superpowers for Global Sustainability: Challenges and Opportunities.* Conference attendees came from 29 states representing 15 languages.

The Central States Conference is also known as The Friendly Conference, and our programming reflected that as well. We celebrated the amazing contributions and successes of our colleagues at the Central States Awards Ceremony and Reception. We partook in a variety of wellness programming to enhance mental and physical well-being. And, we enjoyed networking, good food, and great company at the Advisory Council Reception, at the Friendly Luncheon, and at Central States After Dark.

The 2025 edition of *The Central States Report,* titled *Global Goals, Global Languages*, is a call to language educators to harness the power of languages and work towards sustainable peace and prosperity. Many thanks to the authors for sharing their areas of expertise and for being a guiding light for our professional community.

Shannon Millikin
2025 Program Chair

Introduction

The Central States Conference has returned to Kansas City in 2025 after a long hiatus. Similarly, and appropriately (most likely coincidentally, although we do not believe in coincidences), the editors of the current issue of *The Central States Report* both work in Kansas, which is the first time in many years that editors have hailed from the Sunflower State. For both the conference and the *Report*, local WL educators share excitement for World Language (WL) professional development and for research on Second Language Acquisition (SLA). However, that excitement is not limited to simply to Kansas City or to Kansas and Missouri. The 2025 Central States Conference and *The Central States Report* theme and title, *Global Goals, Global Languages*, reminds all of us of the ever present need for SLA for all, not only in Kansas and Missouri, or in the Central States region, but beyond. As WL educators, we represent the epitome of global goals every time we engage our students in a language that is not their home language. We encourage our colleagues in our own discipline and our colleagues across all disciplines as we advocate for languages, languages that are not hindered by geographical limitations. The present edition of *The Central States Report* contains research that embodies the globality of our profession, of our varied experiences, and of our world.

This 2025 edition of the *Report* begins with Clara Burgo's work, "Spanish for the Professions in a Global World." Burgo's article offers insights into Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) courses, like Medical Spanish or Business Spanish. Key concepts that stand out involve cultural competence and intercultural communication in LSP courses, the need for standardized assessment, clear learning goals, instructor training, and interdisciplinary collaboration. These concepts can inform ongoing research into effective curriculum design, assessment, and teacher development in WL education.

Next, in "Secondary Students' Perceptions of Proficiency-Based World Language Pedagogy," Brigid M. Burke offers insights into current WL educational research, particularly around proficiency-based pedagogy (PBP) and its impact on secondary students' language learning experiences. Noteworthy, is the integration of language and culture in WL pedagogy, student-centered, proficiency-based instruction, and student perceptions and enjoyment of language learning. PBP is critical as educators continue to refine their teaching practices in alignment with communicative and proficiency-based pedagogies.

The third article, "Beyond Product: Exploring Practices and Perspectives in Cultural Learning," by Rebecca Chism, inspires educators to consider the role of the 3 Ps in pedagogy and their contribution to language proficiency. Her survey of French students demonstrates that, generally speaking, students tend to center on products instead of on practices and perspectives when they think about culture. Chism's article reminds us of the fact that practices and perspectives also contribute to cultural awareness.

In article four, Carolyn Gascoigne addresses WL education research in the context of hybrid and flexible learning environments like hyflex or blendflex courses. She explores the impact of modality flexibility on classroom climates, social

interactions as catalysts for learning, and student perceptions of hyflex/blendflex formats. Her valuable contribution becomes more relevant every year as more and more institutions adopt flexible and hybrid learning models. Gascoigne encourages educators to differentiate across media in order to reach as many students as they can.

Syed U. Hashmi's piece, "Digital Influence on Identity within Multilingual Educational Contexts," focuses on how digital technologies help to develop identity and linguistic capacity. Hashmi draws attention to possible equitable access for learners in digitized spaces and culturally-responsive pedagogies for teachers so that these technologies can lead to learner empowerment. His proposal of the Multilingual Competence Framework (MCF) urges WL educators to consider their own practices so that students can mature in their L2 through appropriate use of technology and so that they can be emboldened by technology instead of feeling anxious about it.

The sixth article in this year's *Report* highlights the work of Jennifer Irish-Mendez and Sergio Salazar Rodriguez, who provide several significant concepts that could have a broad impact on WL education research, particularly for intermediate-level language learners. Key concepts from their work include translation-based pedagogy and vocabulary retention, cognates versus non-cognates in vocabulary learning, and motivation and content relevance. These concepts can help influence future research surrounding student success in vocabulary learning.

Then, Liu Li evaluates how training can support teachers to embrace technology in her article, "Impact of Training on Teachers' Perception and Application of Technology." Li investigates how technology's role in students' lives continues to grow stronger, yet many teachers are increasingly concerned about how to effectively utilize it in their WL classrooms. She advocates for professional development programs that provide training on integrating technology, pedagogy, and content. Such integrations can enhance teachers' confidence and improve their technological adaptability.

The subsequent study "Teaching as Advocacy: Bridging the Gap Between World Language Classroom and Community" by Xianquan Chrystal Liu, Guy Trainin, Chunmei Guan, and Hangxin Yu, analyzes how teaching as advocacy encourages informal and formal partnerships between students and speakers of the languages they study within their communities. Liu, Trainin, Guan, and Yu emphasize cross-disciplinary efforts, service-learning endeavors, partnerships with community ethnic groups, and strategic social media use. They argue that each of the aforementioned forays into the community not only amplifies the impact of language education on the students and their community, but also creates teachers who are advocates for global change.

The ninth intervention in this year's *Report*, "Teacher Perspectives on Motivating Language Learning in K–12 and Beyond," explores how WL educators can better understand how articulation is established and maintained within and across language programs. Meg Montee, Caitlyn Pineault, and Yoon Hee Nho's analysis reveals how internal and external factors shape program consistency. Their research data draw attention to many interrelated policies and practices that teachers identified as pivotal to program articulation in K–12 context. Montee,

Pineault, and Nho's research motivates readers to consider how to fortify coherence within their WL programs.

The 2025 Central States *Report* ends with the article, "Motivational Factors that Attract Students to German" by Melinda R. Wells and Teresa R. Bell. Wells and Bell offer several insights that significantly impact the field of ML education research. They address student motivation and its impact on language enrollment and retention, the role of cultural engagement and extracurricular activities in language learning, and challenges in language program continuity and course availability. Such concepts contribute valuable insights into motivation, cultural immersion and program structure, factors that contribute to improving language learning outcomes and retention at the high school level.

The references to this year's 2025 *Report* theme, *Global Goals, Global Languages*, abound in the articles that follow. Each suggests ways to enhance our techniques in global ways. As you read and study the articles, we invite you to find one aspect that you can implement to strengthen and lift up those with whom you work. As you incorporate simple tweaks to your methods, you will reinforce your own classroom practice and you will contribute to our global cause more than ever.

Grant D. Moss
Leah McKeeman

Co-editors
2025 Central States *Report*

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Spanish for the Professions in a Global World

Clara Burgo
Loyola University Chicago

Challenge Statement

What methodologies can align with communicative and professional goals to interpret how culture informs choices for the Latinx population? This article advocates for a cultural framework to design an efficient Spanish language for specific purposes (LSP) course, considering there are heritage speakers (HSs) with different linguistic proficiencies in the classroom.

Abstract

Business Spanish and medical Spanish are the most common courses in language for specific purposes (LSP) (Thompson & Brown, 2019). However, these are not the only Spanish LSP courses offered in higher education. The aim of all these courses is to make students competent in a global economy and to contribute to the improvement of Latinx communities (Ruggiero, 2022). Despite the relevance of these courses in this globalized world, what they have in common is the lack of standardization of the curriculum and the lack of training for LSP instructors. Therefore, this article presents a cultural framework as a guide for instructors willing to design a new LSP course following Ruggiero's lead (2022). Examples of case studies of medical Spanish are also provided since they can serve as models for the implementation of LSP courses that should include authentic practices such as translanguaging. LSP courses with a service-learning component would be especially helpful for HSs so that they can meet their professional goals. Finally, main challenges and benefits of these courses are described to be considered when designing a curriculum of these characteristics.

Keywords: Language for specific purposes; interdisciplinary programs; translanguaging; assessment; intercultural competence.

There has been a significant increase in language for specific purposes (LSP) course offerings in the past 20 years (Sánchez-López et al., 2017), and specifically in Spanish since the Hispanic population is expected to increase to almost 30% of the general population by 2060 (US Census Bureau, 2018). According to Long and Uscinski (2012), 62% of foreign language departments have offered LSP courses. These courses are usually offered in language departments rather than in discipline-specific departments, and 81% of language departments offer LSP courses taught by non-LSP instructors. One explanation behind these high percentages is that these courses have been vital in overcoming the decline in language course enrollments and departmental budget cuts and represent a practical way of learning language (Salgado-Robles & Kirven, 2018). In LSP courses, language is the means to provide learners with the tools they need to be able to communicate in the target language for professional purposes (Barajas, 2013). The primary characteristics of these courses are: specificity regarding the course and the students, assessment of the communicative requirements of the students, communicative knowledge of professional contexts, task-based instructions and service learning, and flexibility according to the needs of students (Sánchez-López, 2013). They should also be concerned with the cultural and ideological conditions of Spanish in the US (Lacorte, 2017). Ultimately, the aim of these courses is to make students competent to navigate in a global economy and to contribute to the improvement of their local communities (Ruggiero, 2022).

Business Spanish is being taught in many universities in interdisciplinary programs so that students are able to communicate in a globalized world. There are multiple benefits of taking this course such as improving professional, communicative, presentation, and decision-making skills (Cortijo, 2016). Doyle (2012) designed a theoretical model for business Spanish courses based on theory, methodology, and application, but it does not offer practical guidance on designing a curriculum (Torres & Serafini, 2016). Interestingly, business Spanish courses may be taught from a neoliberal perspective, viewing language as a commodity and using an approach to language that serves capitalists needs. However, these capitalist discourses can be resisted through critical pedagogies that expose the issues, engaging students in criticizing hegemonic assumptions to deconstruct these neoliberal ideologies with an aim for equity (Rubio, 2020).Business Spanish and medical Spanish are the most common courses in LSP (Thompson & Brown, 2019). Galarreta-Aima et al. (2023) focus on medical Spanish, incorporating not only real-world patient interactions, but also cultural pragmatics and authentic US Spanish linguistic practices such as translanguaging, as well as terminology that is essential for healthcare contexts. This is especially relevant because one of the learning goals of medical courses should be how to work with a professional interpreter (Alemán & Zapién-Hidalgo, 2024). The fact that Galarreta-Aima et al. (2023) focus on the US Latinx patient in their book provides the student with an authentic resource with activities and readings on sensitive cultural issues that relate to the Latinx culture such as how immigrants may feel when trying to assimilate in the US. However, what LSP courses have in common is the lack of standardization of the curriculum and the lack of training for LSP instructors. Therefore,

this article advocates for the need for structured methodologies that align with communicative and professional goals to overcome these challenges with a focus on the role of culture in interpreting and how culture informs choices for the Latinx population following Ruggiero (2022).

Heritage Speakers and LSP Courses

Heritage Speakers (HSs) come from different cultural backgrounds and have different language proficiencies, which is a real challenge for language teachers, mainly in terms of placement (Zapata & Lacorte, 2018). The implementation of LSP courses in a HS curriculum should focus on adding a service-learning component to help HSs meet their professional goals. Service learning provides students with the opportunity to observe authentic language use, networking opportunities, and become familiar with the issues that affect the community. Furthermore, there is an increase in their ethnolinguistic pride (Pascual y Cabo et al., 2017). For a service-learning project to be sustainable, the learning needs and objectives of both the student and the community should be met. It must be a mutually beneficial relationship (Ruggiero, 2022). How can service learning increase professional linguistic knowledge for HS? Professional community internships meet HSs' linguistic needs by preparing them to be bilingual professionals with mentors from similar backgrounds to prepare them for the expectations that will be placed on them (King de Ramírez, 2017). Service-learning activities are the ideal platform for the acquisition of pragmatic and sociolinguistic strategies to expand their linguistic resources (Belpoliti & Pérez, 2019).

Heritage language education, service learning, and LSP courses empower HSs both academically and professionally, since this combination allows for more Latinx engagement in higher education. HSs can become more motivated and involved if they enroll in LSP courses since they would increase their marketability and their contribution to the community (Thompson & Brown, 2019). In sum, LSP courses offer a solution for the community and connections with other disciplines (Jackson & Polchow, 2015). However, there is a two-fold perspective on the benefits of professional courses for HSs. We may think they can present themselves as professional bilinguals, but at the same time they are afraid of suffering systemic violence against Spanish speakers (Edstrom, 2024). Therefore, Lafford et al. (2018) claim that the incorporation of HSs into the Spanish LSP classroom must be done carefully considering the student profile at the linguistic and cultural level to maximize their contribution to their own communities.

Medical Spanish and Translanguaging

Teaching a medical Spanish course with HSs and L2 learners may be used as an opportunity to include a strong Latinx cultural component with a focus on the needs of this population considering the variability in their linguistic proficiencies in both Spanish and English, added to the general content related to health settings. A reflective teaching method would maximize student learning for a course with these characteristics (Ruggiero, 2022).Due to the fact that medical Spanish courses intend to develop practical skills to deal with real patients, it is crucial that

students be taught real linguistic practices of US Spanish. Translanguaging is an example of a real linguistic practice through which speakers use features from multiple languages. Translanguaging can be defined as a pedagogical practice that allows learners to leverage their linguistic resources to promote the equal participation of all (García & Kleyn, 2016).

Unfortunately, many medical Spanish materials only portray the standard and lack the representation of real US Spanish linguistic practices. Therefore, translanguaging may empower HS to advocate for equity in health settings (Tan et al., 2024). An example of a translanguaging practice is brokering; that is, a peer student crossing borders at the linguistic and cultural level and mediating for their peers (Orellana & García 2014). This practice is particularly useful in a healthcare setting to make sure communication is successful. As Tan et al. (2024) explained in their study on translanguaging attitudes and practices in a medical Spanish course, faculty reported that they were open to teaching different varieties of Spanish so that students could be exposed to an array of dialects to reflect the linguistic realities of Latinx communities. Including translanguaging practices (such as Spanglish) in the curriculum would align better with authentic real-world interactions with Latinx patients. Additionally, translanguaging practices would also align well with a task-based language teaching (TBLT) approach since it offers a bridge between the current medical curriculum and research-based teaching practices (Coss, 2023).

There are some medical Spanish programs that have been shown to be successful and could serve as models for those instructors willing to teach a course like this, such as that reported by Morin (2010). It was an intermediate medical Spanish course with a service-learning component with an emphasis on connections and community, and with the purpose of increasing linguistic competence in the field and understanding the needs of Latinx patients. More recently, Pérez (2020) implemented an intensive two-week nursing Spanish course that assessed Spanish language abilities and underlined the need for more assessment options for advanced Spanish and HS courses with these characteristics.

In the same vein, the Spanish Pathway Program from the College of Pharmacy of Roseman University was created with three objectives: Introducing Latinx students to pharmacy careers, recruiting Latinx students by offering educational opportunities, and preparing students to serve the healthcare needs of Latinx communities with the ultimate goal of increasing the number of Spanish-speaking pharmacists to serve the Latinx population (Chu et al., 2024). Finally, it is important to highlight an innovative study by Miller De Rutté (2024) about a medical course with a virtual reality component for intermediate Spanish students to prepare them to speak with future Latinx patients without the need of an interpreter. Results showed that students had a higher motivation to visualize themselves as health care providers.

Challenges

There is not standardization of the curriculum for Spanish for specific purposes, which may lead instructors to feel alone and to have to spend too much time preparing materials for the course. Medical courses, for example, suffer

shortcomings in the learning objectives, content, and assessment. Learning goals are not usually clearly defined, content is not tailored to student needs, and the relevance of the assessments is not clear (Coss, 2023).

Despite the need for Spanish for healthcare or business courses, these classes are random and stand alone as electives instead of in a sequence, despite their relevance outside academia (Doyle, 2017). Furthermore, most instructors of these courses (61%) are either non-tenure track faculty, or adjuncts (Miller DeRutté, Kentengian, et al., 2024), or even not experienced in the field (Ene, 2012). There is a lack of growth of Spanish for business courses at the college level and faculty who are hired to teach these courses may find that the administration does not value their research or expertise in the field (Coria- Sánchez, 2019).

There is also the need for a medical course for HSs since this would offer multiple benefits such as expanding their Spanish knowledge, acquiring a professional register, and serving their communities, which ultimately would lead to language maintenance and identity pride (Martínez, 2010). Another challenge is the lack of training for instructors to teach these professional courses since they are usually trained to teach language and literature only (Klee, 2015).

Regarding the characteristics of students taking these courses, most of them are not majors in anything related to health care; they are usually language majors (Hardin, 2015). Therefore, these courses are not usually intended for students with a low proficiency in Spanish (Bernal de Pheils & Saul, 2009). There is also limited pedagogical training and resources for LSP instructors (Thompson & Brown, 2019). On another note, there is the need for more research with larger sample sizes and more rigorous methodologies for best practices, and more research on other languages (Salgado-Robles & Thompson, 2022).

Lafford (2024) argued that there is a lack of communication between LSP instructors across different regional areas; there is the need to develop communicative competence to address the needs of US Spanish speakers. It is fundamental to offer students opportunities to develop critical consciousness to address the challenges that US Spanish speakers must face.

The differences between the challenges that Spanish LSP instructors face versus those of other instructors are: the profile of the students and their needs, the curriculum, and the staff and culture of the institution. In general, the biggest challenge is the diversity in language proficiency and background knowledge (Lafford et al., 2018); hence the importance to maintain ecological validity for each LSP student and their needs (Lafford, 2012). Moreover, it appears that there are no graduate programs in the US with a focus on LSP, so Ruggiero (2014) claimed that US universities offer a deficient curriculum ignoring these students' needs. Lafford (2017) argued that this lack of graduate programs may be due to the lack of graduate faculty trained to teach these courses.

Benefits of LSP Courses

In a time when language programs are in need of a boost in student enrollment, we should consider implementing an interdisciplinary curriculum to attract students from other disciplines. We should reconsider our missions to assess

whether we are meeting our students cultural and linguistic needs to be competent in a professional market (Barajas, 2013). Ortega, Martínez, and Diamond (2020) propose that medical schools implement education approaches such as virtual strategies to teach communication skills in the target language and culture to medical students to improve health care of minorities since the pandemic. Additionally, student motivation may increase due to the student-community focus on LSP courses (Ruggiero, 2017). Other benefits are the increase of empathy and compassion due to the acquisition of intercultural competence and awareness of sensitive issues that are part of the learning goals of these courses (Ruggiero, 2018).

Recommendations—Curriculum Design

In terms of medical Spanish textbooks, the proficiency level should be at least intermediate, vocabulary should be centered around medical topics, nonstandard varieties and the grammar that is needed for medical tasks should be included, and, as always, cultural and pragmatic information in authentic situations (Hardin, 2012). Constructing lesson plans to tell a story to convey and idea about culture is a strategy that can be implemented in any LSP courses. This approach can further be developed into reflective activities such as the World Café. The World Café is a discussion-based reflection activity to break the ice for a meaningful integration of culture in LSP courses. Ruggiero (2022) provides instructors with examples like these of standardized assessments that can align with learning goals.

There is little research on discourse markers and speech acts as well as patience inference and understanding in the field of medical discourse (Hardin, 2020). In the US, currently there is no articulation between first and second-year language courses and LSP courses (Hardin, 2024). Ideally, medical language curricula should be standardized with clear learning goals. In the case of business Spanish, Ruggiero (2022) suggests clear learning goals following ACTFL's Can-Do Statements such as identifying relevant vocabulary and grammar, acquiring appropriate training, recognizing cultural approaches within a business context, comparing and contrasting cultural approaches to business with professional contexts, and demonstrating appropriate use of vocabulary, grammar, cultural competence in a business context. These learning goals can be applied and adapted to other LSP courses since they allow for the development of the 5Cs of ACTFL (communication, cultures, connections, comparisons, communities). Therefore, this article advocates for the use of these learning goals as a guiding framework for LSP courses in general. In terms of lesson plans, within this framework, they may revolve around cultural texts or expressions and may incorporate activities such as presentations or writing. They approach a topic through culture and teach language learning objectives at the same time. They also promote reflection on the intersection of language, culture, and the topic itself.

Recommendations—Assessment Tools

There is a need to shift from a focus on terminology to communicative competencies (Belpoliti & Pérez, 2016). Miller De Rutté, Galarreta-Aima, et al. (2024) recommend community service-learning and role-playing as useful assessment

tools to measure language proficiency and cultural competence. As a starting point, ACTFL can-do statements can be adapted to the learning goals of the course. Also, there are specific tasks that are important in all the professions such as reflection journals, project-based learning activities, class presentations, or writing assignments. Within the framework proposed in the present article, these tasks would help to fill the culture and community gaps in these kinds of courses that should not be only about language development (Ruggiero, 2022). Yet very few LSP courses address practical tasks such as telephone conversations and writing effective messages (Abbott, 2011). Additionally, there is a lack of standardized rubrics (Miller De Rutté, Galarreta-Aima, et al., 2024). The lack of formal assessment challenges the sustainability and the efficiency of these courses (Romero Arocha et al., 2024). Therefore, Ruggiero (2022) proposed two types of assessments: a test to measure the mastery of a topic and a test to assess student-learning abilities to achieve significant learning that encompasses intercultural sensitivity and competence, which is particularly relevant for the framework recommended in this article. Reflective journals are a good example of significant learning since students are given an opportunity to express themselves at an affective level regarding the content of the course and show how they are understanding the topics. In the case of HSs, there should be more emphasis on conversation and taking advantage of the variation in their linguistic proficiencies to learn about cultural differences. An example of an activity adapted to HSs for LSP courses could be writing a CV and cover letter to discuss career choices and cultural representation, raising questions for discussion, reflection, and finally writing the CV and the cover letter envisioning themselves as professionals and reflecting on the qualities needed for that profession in particular.

Arizona State University has developed a Spanish for the Professions minor with six courses that could serve as model for a similar program: Spanish oral communication for the professions, Spanish written communication for the professions, Spanish grammar and stylistics for the professions, Spanish in the US community, US Latinx cultural perspectives, and professional Spanish internship (King de Ramírez & Lafford, 2013).

Recommendations—Instructor Training

In order to efficiently teach LSP courses, instructors should be familiar with the general principles of LSP, their areas, and their contexts of use. They should be able to apply the right teaching methodologies specific to these courses, to become familiar with the analyses of their existing needs, and to implement them when creating a course. Furthermore, they should design, develop, and assess materials and courses, and be informed on the use of technologies and the importance of intercultural communication in the context of the classroom (López-Zurita & Vázquez Amador, 2022). Unfortunately, few instructors receive adequate training, leading to ineffective pedagogy. It is crucial to consider interdisciplinary collaboration (Hardin, 2024). Instructor recruitment, therefore, should be focused not only on the linguistic proficiency of the instructor and the knowledge in the field they will teach, but also on their understanding of cultural issues that have an im-

pact on the profession (Molina & Kasper, 2024). Sociocultural training is needed not to perpetuate stereotypes, but to obtain appropriate understanding of medical encounters, for example (Hardin et al., 2023). In schools with a high rate of Latinx students, instructors must affirm their heritage (Martínez & Schwartz, 2012) and US Spanish dialects. In fact, standard Spanish may even be detrimental since the goal is communicative competence (Zapata et al., 2022).

Recommendations—Institutional Collaboration

There should be administrative support to make curricular changes and review materials (Molina & Kasper, 2024). Furthermore, if Spanish LSP courses were cross-listed and students could get credit for the Spanish major and/or minor and they were a core requirement in other departments such as International Studies, students would be more motivated to take these courses (Lafford et al., 2018).

Conclusions

Due to the increase in the Latinx population, Spanish LSP courses have grown over the past 20 years (Sánchez-López et al., 2017) with medical and business Spanish being the most popular in US higher education Thompson & Brown, 2019). This article proposes a cultural framework to design an efficient Spanish LSP course, considering there are usually HSs in the course, and with a focus on the Latinx community. There are also recommendations to design a curriculum for LSP courses in Spanish following Ruggiero (2022). A service-learning component is very beneficial for these courses, especially for HS, preparing them to become bilingual professionals to increase their marketability. Medical Spanish courses should include US Spanish and actual linguistic practices such as translanguaging so that health professionals can interact with US Latinx patients. There is still a lot of work to do regarding assessment due to the lack of standardized rubrics and the failure to focus on the acquisition of communicative and cultural competence. This lack of standardization of the curriculum and the deficiencies in training for LSP instructors are two of the main challenges despite the multiple benefits of these courses such as the boost in student enrollment in world languages.

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2

Secondary Students' Perceptions of Proficiency-Based World Language Pedagogy

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Challenge Statement

Even though world language (WL) teachers learn about proficiency-based pedagogy (PBP), many experience barriers to implementing these practices. Much of the blame seems to be placed upon students, claiming they resist proficiency-based instruction. What do students learn, enjoy, and wish they could change in WL classrooms where teachers use PBP?

Abstract

World language (WL) teacher candidates are expected to "develop students' communicative proficiency in the target language within meaningful cultural contexts" and focus on national and state standards during field experiences (ACTFL/CAEP, 2013; SCALE, 2019, p. 1). The assumption seems to be that after graduation in-service teachers will continue to use proficiency-based pedagogy because they were trained to use it during university methods courses and passed high-stakes licensure exams that required it. However, little to no research has been conducted to find out how secondary students react to PBP. This study investigated secondary students' experiences (n=249) in nine WL teachers' classrooms who graduated from the same university but varied in teaching experience. Student data (grades 7-12) were collected through classroom observations (field notes and artifacts) and exit slips. Results revealed that students enjoyed proficiency-based instructional strategies, such as group work, performance-based tasks, games, and student-centered activities. Students learned vocabulary in context, developed cultural knowledge, applied grammar, and communicated about real-life events, culture, and literature. The majority of students (66%) said they would not change anything about their teachers' instruction. Students valued and enjoyed learning world languages with teachers who used proficiency-based pedagogy.

Keywords: proficiency, pedagogy, instructional strategies, students' perceptions

The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages/Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (ACTFL/CAEP, 2013) program standards for the preparation of WL teachers require teacher candidates to integrate national and state standards into their instruction and assessment. Additionally, in certain states, student teachers are required to pass the edTPA by designing and implementing a learning segment, which consists of three to five lessons and develops students "communicative proficiency in the target language within meaningful cultural contexts" (Stanford Center for Assessment, Learning, & Equity, 2019, p. 1). Teacher candidates must develop and improve students' communicative proficiency while focusing on the "5Cs": Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities. Furthermore, ACTFL/CAEP (2013) recommends that French, German, and Spanish teacher candidates achieve Advanced Low on the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) and the ACTFL Written Proficiency Test (WPT) to earn licensure. For all intents and purposes, even if teacher candidates pass the edTPA, achieve Advanced Low oral and written proficiency, and then gain employment as a WL teacher, it seems that the ultimate goal is to improve WL education so K-12 students develop their communicative and cultural proficiency to become multilingual, global citizens. By requiring these high standards of teacher candidates, the hope is that in-service WL teachers use the target language 90% or more of classroom time and design learning experiences to develop students' communicative and cultural proficiency after they earn their degree and become certified. Reflecting deeply on the purpose of these high standards and the effects of them on instruction, it seems critical to research what in-service teachers do in their classrooms after earning their degree and teaching license, and more importantly, what their students think of their experiences with these teachers.

The research presented here is part of a larger study that was conducted to investigate if in-service teachers who graduated in 2010-2018 from Bowling Green State University (BGSU) in Ohio continued to use proficiency-based pedagogy (PBP) in their classrooms that they had learned about, experienced, and implemented as pre-service and student teachers. An immense amount of data were collected from students, parents, teachers, and administrators. One part of the study examined the teachers' instruction including the lesson topics and teachers' pedagogy as well as teacher and student target language use, which will be reported in another paper. However, it is important to mention that during the data analysis, the in-service teachers' lessons were determined to be aimed at developing students' communicative and cultural proficiency. They integrated the three modes of communication (presentational, interpretive, and interpersonal) during their lessons. Additionally, target language use by teachers and by students, in their own estimations, were similar. Teachers believed they used the target language during 86% of class time, while their students estimated their teachers' target language use at 85.09%. Teachers believed their students used the target language during 63.25% of class time, while their students estimated using it 59.13% of class time.

For this purpose of this paper, the researcher focused on the students' perceptions of their teachers' instruction since it is rare that secondary students' voices are heard in research journals as many steps must be taken prior to recruiting them. This study addressed the following research question: What are secondary students' perceptions of proficiency-based WL pedagogy? Specifically, 1) What do students learn?; 2) What do students enjoy?; 3) What do students wish they could change?

Literature Review

The purpose of this study was to research students' perceptions of the strategies their WL teachers use to develop students' proficiency. Therefore, it is important to review relevant literature that explains the philosophy, instructional strategies, and curriculum design that enable teachers to implement proficiency-based WL pedagogy.

Defining Proficiency-Based WL Pedagogy

In several educational contexts, the terms "proficiency," "proficiency-based instruction," "proficiency-based assessment," and "proficiency-based grading" have been used in a variety of ways (Custable et al., 2019; Gonzalez, 2019; Gobble et al., 2017; Omaggio, 1984; Twadell et al., 2019). Twelve years before the first U.S. WL National Standards (1996) were published, Omaggio (1984) described a "proficiency-orientated classroom" (p. 50). She suggested reevaluating "our rich heritage of resources and practices" in "terms of the organizing principle of proficiency" (p. 43). Omaggio recommended WL educators use the ACTFL Provisional Proficiency Guidelines (1982) to design materials and classroom tasks that would allow students to achieve their "ultimate goals" and develop the highest level of proficiency in their WL (p. 44). As language teaching has evolved, Gonzalez (2019) believes these six shifts have occurred in WL teaching, which are influenced by ACTFL's list of recommended core practices for WL learning (ACTFL, n.d.).

1. Students learn to use the language instead of only being taught about it.
2. Communicative activities are given priority over workbook activities or worksheets where there is one correct answer.
3. Grammar is taught in the context of other meaningful activities instead of in isolation.
4. Students examine authentic cultural resources instead of reading cultural notes from their textbooks.
5. Instruction is planned using backwards design instead of using the textbook's plan for instruction.
6. Teachers regularly provide appropriate feedback, measuring the progress of students instead of only measuring what they cannot do.

While Omaggio's hypotheses were more theoretical, Gonzalez provides some guidance for teachers about what strategies they should use to develop and improve students' communicative and cultural proficiency.

The Center on Advanced Research for Language Acquisition (CARLA) (2019a), explains that proficiency in WL classrooms comprises content (the topics of communication), function (a task; the purpose of a spoken or written commu-

nication), and accuracy (correctness or appropriateness in pronunciation, writing, grammar, culture, and vocabulary choice). CARLA (2019a) explains proficiency-orientated language instruction is a pedagogical framework in which students practice the four skills "in order to communicate meaningfully, effectively, and creatively in their target language for real-life purposes" (para. 1). Teachers develop students' intercultural communication by integrating language and culture through authentic contexts. Proficiency-based instruction "is student-centered and builds upon what students need, already know, and can do, and it respects diverse learning styles, while encouraging the development of a wide range of skills and learning strategies" (CARLA, 2019a, para. 1).

Proficiency-Based Pedagogy

Recently, as a result of ACTFL's (2010) position statement recommending teachers and students use the target language 90% or more of the time, the use of the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) and the edTPA for teacher licensure, the development of the integrated performance assessment, the NCSSFL-ACTFL (2017) Can-Do Statements, and many states' revised WL standards, WL educators have written about strategies and practices that teachers should use if they want to develop students' communicative and cultural proficiency (Adair-Hauck et al., 2006; Glisan & Donato, 2017, 2020; Henshaw & Hawkins, 2022; Ritz & Toro, 2022). All of these recommendations have deep roots in second language acquisition research, namely the theory of communicative competence (Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1971). WL teachers who have understood this theory have been able to engage in communicative language teaching (CLT). CLT is an approach to instruction that WL teachers use to develop students' communicative competence (Burke, 2006; Savignon, 1972, 1983, 1997, 2002). Burke (2006) found that CLT teachers focus on communication in the WL and facilitate students' development of communicative competence by using immersion, contextualized lessons, and student-centered instruction. They teach grammar most often implicitly while using language in context, but use explicit grammar lessons when students need to understand specific grammar rules to enhance their communication. Culture is taught using the target language to encourage communication and to improve students' communicative competence (Burke, 2006).

Within the past decade there has been a semantic shift to describe WL methods that enable students to develop communicative competence as proficiency-based instruction, perhaps because of the difficulty teachers had in understanding and implementing CLT, using a "weak version of CLT" (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011, p.7) and becoming a GT (grammar-translation) teacher or hybrid teacher (using a mix of CLT and grammar-translation methods) (Burke, 2006, 2012; Henshaw & Hawkins, 2022; Ritz & Toro, 2022). Glisan and Donato (2017, 2020) developed two volumes that provide teachers with what they term "high-leverage teaching practices" to enact the work of language instruction. These in-depth, practical guides provide teachers with ways to develop students' communicative and cultural proficiency, including maximizing target language use, integrating culture and communication, developing students' literacy, building classroom commu-

nity, providing corrective feedback, teaching contextualized grammar, and implementing performance-based assessments. In order to bridge the SLA-WL pedagogy gap discussed by Spada (2022), Ritz and Toro (2022) break down and align how SLA theories such as comprehensible input, output, and interaction can be translated into communicative units, lessons, and activities. With a similar goal in mind, Henshaw and Hawkins (2022) provide a text for pre-service and in-service teachers with "sufficient examples that make a direct connection between second language acquisition (SLA) principles and the reality of language classrooms" (p. ix). They address communication modes in the classroom, the difference between proficiency and performance, thematic units, and IPAs. Essentially, these texts provide teachers with the theory and practice they need to implement CLT and use PBP.

Integrative Curriculum

One area that is not addressed thoroughly in the texts discussed in the previous section is how teachers can develop communicative and cultural proficiency with culture driving their curriculum and instruction. Research conducted at 10 U.S. universities where language study has been thriving found that "emphasis on the cultural component of language learning is essential, in response to both student interest and the needs of local communities and businesses" (Modern Language Association, 2023, p. 3). Also, encouraging "language application in real-life contexts" motivated students to continue studying languages (p. 3). Students enjoyed opportunities to interact with local community members to use the WL while learning about diverse cultures and developing skills that would give them viable credentials for their careers (Modern Language Association, 2023).

Burke (2007, 2017) explained how Expeditionary Learning design can be applied to WL classrooms where teachers design learning expeditions, in-depth investigations, and learning experiences where culture is at the core of planning. Teachers design experiences where students engage in interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational communication while discovering and developing deep understandings of cultural products, practices, and perspectives. Expeditionary learning design allows teachers to weave instruction of language, literacy, technology, and culture while also having students engage in fieldwork and service (Burke, 2017). Big C culture and little c culture can be the focus of learning so that novice, intermediate, and advanced-level WL students understand diverse perspectives while examining various products and perspectives (Cutshall, 2012; Glisan & Donato, 2017).

WL students who participate in learning expeditions can develop what Orozco-Domoe (2015) describes as "global interculturality" (p. 66-67). Orozco-Domoe explains that "certain internal attitudes and dispositions are prerequisite" to the development of global interculturality (p. 66). When students with these preconceptions "investigate the world, they gain socio-linguistic knowledge, historical perspective, and geographical awareness" (p. 66). Consequently, students internalize global awareness and recognize diverse perspectives, gaining knowledge about different cultures and become "more cognitively flexible and develop a sense of empathy and ethnorelativity" (p. 66). As students learn to appreciate cultural diversity and desire to collaborate and communicate with diverse groups of people,

they become motivated to develop interpretive and interpersonal communicative skills (Orozco-Domoe, 2015). For Orozco-Domoe, "emphasis on communication and linguistic skills within this model provides the added element of interculturality" (pp. 66-67). As students become global citizens, they "apply their knowledge, skills, and dispositions to take action on issues of global significance" (p. 67).

Procedure

For this study, the researcher wanted to investigate secondary students' perceptions of proficiency-based WL pedagogy. The researcher had taught the student participants' teachers for at least two WL pedagogy courses during their teacher training and had been their academic advisor at BGSU. The researcher conducted the study during a semester-long faculty improvement leave in 2019. After gaining Institutional Research Board (IRB) approval, the initial questionnaire (Appendix A) was completed by 23 6th-12th grade WL teachers who had graduated from BGSU's WL education program from 2010-2018 and lived in Ohio. At the time of the study, 29 alumni were teaching in the state of Ohio. After alumni completed the initial questionnaire, participants were sent a recruitment email inviting them to continue participation in the study, asking them for permission to observe their classes for three school days over five months. Fifteen alumni agreed to participate; however, in order to visit each teacher three times, the researcher needed to limit the number of participants. Nine teachers were recruited based on what levels and how many levels they taught, where they taught (urban, rural, suburban), and their years of teaching experience. The teachers' schools were located in or near Cleveland, Columbus, and Toledo. The researcher desired to achieve credibilty as a qualitative researcher by including a variety of student participants from various contexts who were taught by teachers with different years of teaching experience. The nine alumni and their administrators agreed to allow the researcher to collect data at their schools, with two schools requesting additional forms for administrative permission to conduct research beyond the IRB approval.

From January to May 2019, the researcher visited each of the alumni and their students during the entire school day three times. On the first visit, each teacher and the researcher decided which classes and/or levels would be the focus groups for the study. The researcher spent the entire day at the schools shadowing the teachers and recording observational and field notes during lessons (Appendix B). Between the first and second visits, students (grades 7-12) agreed to participate in the study. Parents completed either an online or paper questionnaire and approved their child's participation. During the second visits, the researcher spent the entire day at the schools and collected exit slips (Appendix C) from students in the focus classes/levels. During the final visits, the researcher spent the entire day at the schools, collected exit slips from students in the focus classes/levels, recorded observational and field notes, and collected artifacts from lessons.

Participants

Even though the results reported here focus on the student participants, it is important to provide background about the teachers. Three alumni were at the beginning of their careers (Diamela, Zelda, Martina), three had been teaching for

five or six years (Carlos, Alicia, Mario), and three had been teaching for seven or eight years (Konstanze, Roland, Ursula). Pseudonyms were given to protect the identities of the alumni. Data from the teacher questionnaire were used to create Table 1 to provide readers with information about the diversity of the teachers' backgrounds, levels of teaching experience, and school contexts. Table 1 (next page) summarizes the relevant background knowledge of the teacher participants, explains the focus classes that were chosen and the number of students who participated in those classes, and provides the participants' school demographics.

Data Collection

For this study, qualitative data were collected through a teacher questionnaire (Appendix A); observations, artifacts, and field notes (Appendix B); and two student exit slips (Appendix C). The teacher questionnaire was used to gather background information about the teachers. Numerous observations were conducted by the researcher during the three visits using the observational data sheet. The researcher also collected various handouts, assessments, and student work. Field notes from observations recorded teacher and student interaction, explanations of topics and assignments, interesting phenomena that occurred during various lessons, and reflections and comments or information teachers shared with the researcher. Student participants in the two focus classes for each teacher completed exit slips (ES1 n=245, ES2 n=249) at the end of their class period during the researchers' second and third school visits. The researcher read a script before distributing the exit slips during which students were told that their responses would not affect their grades and that they would be kept confidential. They also were reminded that they could withdraw from the study at any time. Exit slips were used because they are a common classroom technique used by teachers. They were turned into the researcher before students left class for the day.

Data Analysis

A plethora of qualitative data was collected from the students through the exit slips. For this study, responses for questions 1-3 were analyzed from Exit Slip 1, and responses from question 1 were analyzed from Exit Slip 2. The other questions on the exit slips will be presented and discussed in another paper. The researcher first typed up students' responses for each teacher by grade level/class according to the various categories: what students learned, enjoyed, and would change (Exit Slip 1, ES1); and what new words/expressions they learned (Exit slip 2, ES2). Relevant student quotes were recorded for each teacher to represent students' voices in the findings. The constant comparison method of qualitative analysis was employed to analyze students' responses and compare and contrast them with each other as well as with the researcher's field notes from observations (Corbin & Strauss, 2015; Glaser & Strauss, 1999). Data analysis software was not used. After examining the data for each teacher, the researcher printed out the data organized by teacher and then coded it using letters and colors to correspond to various themes and subthemes. Data analysis generated categories and subcategories with a variety of frequencies. Then, tables were created for each category and presented each theme and subtheme, referencing which teachers' students had written the

Table 1

Background of Teacher Participants and School Demographics

Name	Level/ Grades	# of student participants	School Information
Diamela	Level I 8th		Rural-Public
1st year	Level II 9th	20	*Middle School*
Spanish	10th		573 6-8th grade students
B.S. WLED	11th	5	65% White, 28% Hispanic, 4% Black, 3% 2+races
OPI=AL		6	62% Free & reduced lunch
WPT=AL		1	*High School*
			734 9-12th grade students
			69% White, 21% Hispanic, 7% Black, 2% 2+races, 1% Asian
			50% Free & reduced lunch
Martina	Level I 9th		Rural-Public High School
1st year	Level II 10th	9	306 9-12th grade students
German	11th		89% White, 8% Hispanic, 1% Black, 1% 2+races, 1% Asian
B.S. WLED		9	27% Free & reduced lunch
OPI=IH, AL		1	
WPT=AL			
Zelda	Level IIA 7th		Urban-Private
2nd year	Level IIB 8th	12	543 PK-12th grade students
Spanish			61% White, 25% Asian, 7% Black, 6% 2+races, 2% Hispanic
B.S. WLED		12	Free & reduced lunch-Not reported
OPI=AH			
WPT=AM			
Mario	Level IV 12th		Urban-Public High School
5th year	Heritage 9th	6	1850 9-12th grade students
Spanish	10th		44% White, 28% Hispanic, 21% Black, 4% 2+races, 3% Asian
B.S. WLED	11th	13	65% Free & reduced lunch
M.A. Spanish	12th	8	
OPI=AL		2	
WPT=IH, IH, AL		1	
Alicia	Level IIH 9th		Suburban-Public High School
5th year	10th	17	534 9-12th grade students
Spanish	Level V 12th	2	68% White, 26% Black, 4% Hispanic, 1% 2+races, 1% Asian
B.S. ED			33% Free & reduced lunch
Integrated Studies		7	
OPI=IH, IH			
WPT=IH, IH			
Roland	Level I 8th		Rural-Public
6th year	Level 4	18	*Middle School*
French	11th		761 6-8th grade students
B.S. WLED	5/AP	13	93% White, 2% Hispanic, 2% 2+races, 2% Asian, 1% Black
OPI=AM	12th		8% Free & reduced lunch
WPT=AL		2	*High School*
			1026 9-12th grade students
			95% White, 2% 2+races, 2% Asian, 1% Hispanic
			7% Free & reduced lunch
Carlos	Level III 11th		Rural-Public High School
7th year	12th	11	763 9-12th grade students
Spanish	Level IV 12th	6	95% White, 2% Hispanic, 1% 2+races, 1% Black
B.S. WLED			16% Free & reduced lunch
OPI=IM, AL		14	
WPT=IH, AL			
Konstanze	Level IA 7th		Urban-Public Middle School
7th year	Level IB 8th	16	774 7th-8th grade students
German			46% Black, 40% White, 8% 2+races, 4% Asian, 2% Hispanic
B.S. WLED		14	33% Free & reduced lunch
OPI=AL			
WPT=AL			
Ursula	Level II 9th		Urban-Public High School
8th year	10th 12th	5	883 9-12th grade students
Spanish	Level 4/5 10th	5	41% Black, 28% White, 22% Hispanic, 8% 2+races, 1% Asian
B.S. ED IS	11th 12th	1	55% Free & reduced lunch
M.Ed. Curriculum & Teaching		1	
OPI=IM, IH		6	

comments. High and low frequencies were relevant to the researcher when analyzing the data. While analyzing the data at various stages, the researcher returned to the original student questionnaires when necessary to verify students' comments and quotes.

Results

As mentioned in the introduction, the research discussed here is part of a larger study. This paper addresses the research question: What are secondary students' perceptions of proficiency-based WL pedagogy? In this section, the results are presented about what students believed they learned during the lessons, what they enjoyed, and what they would change.

What Students Learned

When prompted on the first exit slip (ES1) to write about what they learned in WL classes that day, many students wrote about cultural lessons (Table 2).

Table 2
What Students Learned

Theme	# of times mentioned by student participants (ES1 n=245, ES2 n=249)
Culture Big C Culture Little c culture	56 (ES1) 8 (ES2) 49 (ES1) 5 (ES2) 5 (ES1) 1 (ES2)
Vocabulary	46 (ES1) 302 (ES2)
Review for test	38 (ES1)
Conjugation	22 (ES1) 10 (ES2)
Accents	20 (ES1)
Assessment Interpretive listening Presentational writing Interpretive reading	16 (ES1) 4 (ES2) 4 (ES1) 6 (ES1) 6 (ES1) 4 (ES2)
Grammar	15 (ES1) 14(ES2)
Presentational speaking	12(ES1) 1 (ES2)
Character & community	7 (ES1) 2 (ES2)
Nothing/nothing new	5 (ES1) 49 (ES2)
Interpersonal communication	5 (ES2) 3 (ES1)

Students in Zelda, Diamela, Carlos, and Konstanze's classrooms described lessons that incorporated Big C culture, namely cultural products:

"Spain has very nice trains and America's trains are bad." (Zelda, Spanish II, 7th)

"We learned the weather and climate for many Spanish/Latin places." (Diamela, Spanish I, 8th)

"Spanish countries often have different movie titles than in English." (Carlos, Spanish IV)

"Germany has 16 states." (Konstanze, Germany I, 7th)

"Putting German foods into a healthy diet." (Konstanze, German I, 8th)

Little c culture topics (cultural perspectives and practices) were mentioned by Mario, Konstanze, and Alicia's students. Mario's Spanish IV students wrote about how they were learning and reflecting on the author Julio Cortázar and his work, Konstanze's 7th grade German 1 students noted they discussed the "Christopher Celebration" that occurs in Germany, and Alicia's Spanish V students reflected on how they learned "how Mexicans may feel about being immigrants."

Students also wrote about how they learned new vocabulary for the first exit slip. They learned new words for food, drinks, family, movies, and clothing. For the second exit slip, the prompt was "What new words or expressions did you learn today, if any?" Students from all nine teachers' classes listed the vocabulary they learned during the lessons. Table 3 provides examples of vocabulary mentioned by students according to their class/level and teacher.

Table 3

Vocabulary Learned by Students

Teacher	*Class/Level*	*Sample vocabulary*
Zelda	*Spanish II*	*casarse [to marry someone]; descansar [to take a break]; residir [to reside]*
Diamela	*Spanish I*	*menos [less]; plátanos [bananas]; final para [end for]*
Diamela	*Spanish II*	*estaban [were]; se llamaba [they were called]; tenían [they had]*
Martina	*German I*	*Was für Obst ist du gern? [what fruit do you like?]; Was für Gemüse ist du gern? [what vegetables do you like to eat?]; Weintrauben [grapes]*
Martina	*German II*	*die Bilder [the pictures]; Waschbecken [bathroom sink]; der Ofen [the oven]*
Mario	*Spanish IV*	*tartamudo [stutterer]; cobarde [coward] ; raíz [root]*
Mario	*Heritage Spanish I*	*repuso [he replied]; caprichosa [a person who makes decisions]; huerto [vegetable patch]*
Alicia	*Spanish II*	*verter [to pour]; triturar [to crush]; escurrir [to drain]*
Alicia	*Spanish IV*	*la jaula/ la jaula de oro [the golden cage]; olvidar [to forget]; prisionero [prisoner]*
Carlos	*Spanish III*	*siguiente [next]; irregulars of the conditional form (podría [could], tendría [would have], habría [there would be]); llamar [to call]*
Carlos	*Spanish IV*	*pretzel – la galleta salada [pretzel, the salty cracker]; tubo [tube]; aplicado [applied]*
Konstanze	*German I, 7th*	*sein [to be]; habe [how to use]; ameisenbär [anteater]*
Konstanze	*German I, 8th*	*Fladenbrot [flat bread]; Kalorien [calories]* *rotweiß [ketchup and mayonnaise]*
Roland	*French 1, 8th*	*la saladè [salad]; Qu'est-ce que vous mangez? [What do you eat?] is used in formal settings;* *Vous voulez finir? [Do you want to finish?]*
Roland	*French IV/V/AP*	*interdire [to prohibit]; paralysé [paralyzed];* *les grévistes [people who go on strike]*
Ursula	*Spanish II*	*aprendí [I learned]; imperfecto [imperfect]; hacia [toward]*
Ursula	*Spanish IV/V*	*excursiones [excursions]; ruinas [ruins]* *los hostales [the hostels]*

The vocabulary listed in the chart for each teacher was mentioned by multiple students in the class. For each lesson with every teacher, students learned vocabulary implicitly. The words they noted were learned in context based on the lesson the teacher taught.

Students discussed learning conjugations in all teachers' classes except Mario's when reflecting on the lesson in the first and second exit slips.

"I learned how to conjugate verbs that are irregular and go verbs." (Diamela, Spanish II)

"How to use imperfect progressive and vocabulary in context." (Alicia, Spanish II)

"Irregulars of the conditional form (podría, tendría, habría)." (Carlos, Spanish III)

"More about preterite and imperfect." (Ursula, Spanish II)

Mario's students discussed how they learned about accents in the first exit slip.

"Accents and acute, flat, or spherical words [*Aguda, llana, y esdrújula*] and where to put accents on the words." (Mario, Heritage Spanish I)

Zelda's Spanish II students described learning "how to take a certain point away from a conversation" and "how to write an essay" during the performance-based assessments they experienced. Students also wrote about how they learned to apply grammar rules and conjugations in both exit slips.

"I learned how to put our new vocabulary in word order." (Martina, German II)

"I learned how to use our vocabulary in a story and apply the grammar to an emergency-like event." (Alicia, Spanish II)

"I learned the vocabulary better and I learned how to use the grammar we are learning." (Carlos, Spanish III)

"I learned a few new words and it can never be *donde es*, has to be *dónde está*." (Ursula, Spanish IV/V)

"Qu'est-ce que vous mangez [What are you eating] is used in formal settings." (Roland, French I)

Students also explained how they learned to communicate with one another and work together.

"We learned how to say what we like and don't like." (Konstanze, German I, 8th)

"I learned how to confidently say my Spanish presentation." (Diamela, Spanish I)

"I learned how to work with different people." (Martina, German I)

"The importance of teamwork and working through problems using French." (Roland, French IV/V/AP)

"I learned how to use the things I've learned in a conversation." (Martina, German I)

"I learned how to communicate more casually and be more patient with myself and others through problems."
(Roland, French IV/V/AP)

For Exit Slip 1, five students claimed they did not learn anything new during the lesson. And, for Exit Slip 2, 49 students did not believe they learned any new words or expressions during the lesson observed, claiming they used language they already knew. For both exit slips, some students from everyone's classes (n=53) except for Konstanze claimed they did not learn anything, or at least anything new, during the researcher's second and third visits.

What Students Enjoyed

According to the data from the first exit slip, the most common themes students noted about what they enjoyed during WL classes were interaction/group work and performance tasks (Table 4).

Table 4
What Students Enjoyed

Theme	#of student participants (n=245)
Interaction/group work	135
Performance tasks	55
Learning	35
Interpretive listening	17
Culture	13
Nothing/didn't enjoy	11

Specific comments students made about interaction/group work (n=130) were:

"[I enjoyed] the use of common board games and critical thinking needed to play said games." (Diamela, Spanish II)

"Working in groups was what I enjoyed most." (Martina, German I)

"I enjoyed the interactive experience: answering inquiries to test my knowledge and how much I remembered." (Roland, French I, 8th)

"It heavily involved student voices and opinions." (Konstanze, German I, 8th)

"The group activity was fun and the music was easy to listen to and it helped." (Alicia, Spanish V)

"I enjoy talking to my friends." (Carlos, Spanish III)

"We talked about each other's favorite types of movies and experiences with movies." (Carlos, Spanish IV)

"I enjoyed talking about how this story can be used to address issues in the real world." (Mario, Spanish IV)

"I enjoyed the small amount of teacher instruction because it forced us to try our true best and not just resort to English." (Roland, French IV/V/AP)

"I love the hands-on style and the need to speak French." (Roland, French IV/V/AP)

"[I enjoyed] how competitive and enthusiastic we were. We were all involved." (Ursula, Spanish II)

"Students also enjoyed learning stations in Diamela and Konstanze's classes. We had stations that were games." (Diamela, Spanish II)

"I enjoyed when we got to walk around to different stations." (Konstanze, German I, 7th)

Zelda, Diamela, Alicia, Mario, Konstanze, and Roland's students made positive comments about performance tasks (n=55) including:

"The lesson and the presentation brought the class together some more and gave us some energy." (Carlos, Spanish IV)

"We are getting better at writing in Spanish." (Mario, Heritage Spanish I)

"I enjoyed the articles and trying to infer what the words meant." (Konstanze, German I, 7th)

Students in all the teachers' classrooms except Alicia and Ursula also mentioned they enjoyed "learning" (n=35). One student wrote, "I enjoyed learning about the bad foods the Germans consider unhealthy" (Konstanze, German I, 8th). Another noted, "Monsieur Roland kept us engaged and made it enjoyable to learn" (Roland, French I, 8th). Some students discussed their enjoyment when developing their interpretive skills, such as this student, "I enjoyed hearing about the weather and actually doing a reasonably good job understanding it." (Diamela, Spanish I). Martina and Diamela's students (n=13) specifically discussed how they liked learning about culture during their lessons.

"I enjoyed hearing about the variety of weather in South America." (Diamela, Spanish I)

"[I enjoyed] learning about country capitals in Germany as well as their weather." (Martina, German I)

For Exit Slip 1, only 11 students who participated in lessons in Zelda, Konstanze, and Ursula's classrooms wrote that they did not enjoy anything. Two different students in Ursula's classes wrote about what they experienced during the lessons:

"[I did] not [enjoy] much because my folder is gone so I don't have any of my papers." (Ursula, Spanish II)

"I enjoyed nothing. I didn't do anything." (Ursula, Spanish IV/V/AP)

What Students Would Change

In the first exit slip, students were asked if there was anything they would have changed about the lesson. The majority of students did not want to change anything about their teachers' lessons (n=161) (Table 5, next page).

Table 5
What Students Would Change (ES1)

Theme	# of student participants (n=245)
Nothing	161
Time	20
Format	17
Target language use	6
Slower	5
Review/practice	7
More explanation	3

Carlos's students specifically noted why they liked his Spanish classes.

"We do a variety of activities. One deals with a fun way of doing vocabulary and another deals with culture,

etc." (Carlos, Spanish III)

"I like this class a lot. I enjoy how Profe does his lessons." (Carlos, Spanish III)

"I quite like how class goes every day in Spanish as it's a break from the norm and we get to just talk [in Spanish], within reason of course." (Carlos, Spanish IV)

Even though most students were content with the teachers' lessons, some would have liked more time (n=20) or a different format (n=17) for lessons and assessments.

"Probably give us more time to write the essay." (Zelda, Spanish II, 7th)

"Maybe we could have more station time next time." (Konstanze, German I, 7th)

"More time to work on the project." (Alicia, SPII)

"The time limit we had was restricted and if we had longer I think we would have made a better omelette." (Roland, French IV/V/AP)

"More time for conversation." (Carlos, Spanish IV)

"The amount of time we get to guess the food." (Ursula, Spanish II)

"Make it more hands-on, incorporate more speaking." (Konstanze, German I, 8th)

"Maybe talk with others about our answers." (Mario, Spanish IV)

"Make it a big game with the whole class instead of in separate groups." (Martina, German II)

Very few students complained about the target language use (n=6). Students in Diamela, Mario, and Konstanze's classes wrote the following:

"I also think she should have given us instructions in English." (Diamela, Spanish I, 8th)

"I would change the rubric of the project to English." (Diamela, Spanish I, 8th)

"Maybe allowing us to write the answers in English." (Konstanze, German I, 7th)

> "There were some parts of the story I would have benefited from a short summary in English." (Mario, Spanish IV)

A few of Zelda, Diamela, Alicia, Mario, Konstanze, Roland, and Ursula's students mentioned they would have liked their teachers to have spoken slower (n=5), to have reviewed the content more (n=7), or given more explanation about the subject/grammar (n=3).

Discussion

The research question for the study was: What are secondary students' perceptions of proficiency-based pedagogy? Specifically, the researcher wanted to discover what students learned, enjoyed, and wished they could change about their WL teachers' instruction. In the literature, it has been recommended that teachers design curriculum that integrates language and culture in authentic, contextualized ways (Burke, 2017; Cutshall, 2012; Glisan & Donato, 2017; Modern Language Association, 2023; Orozco-Domoe, 2015). The secondary students in this study discussed learning Big C and little c culture while using the WL. Students read authentic articles and literature "instead of reading cultural notes from their textbooks" (ACTFL, n.d.). They also discussed learning grammar in context and claimed they worked on assessments to develop their interpretive, presentational, and interpersonal skills. Students engaged in lessons that comprised content, function, and accuracy (CARLA, 2019a). For instance, they wrote stories about emergency situations that could happen, expressed their likes and dislikes, and made presentations about the weather and climate in various Spanish-speaking countries.

Students wrote about how they enjoyed student-centered instruction the most, describing interactive activities, group work, performance tasks, and games. When discussing the interaction they experienced during group work, students mentioned how they had to think critically and address real-world issues. They also liked how there was little teacher instruction and opportunities for students to discuss their opinions, which they believed built classroom community. The teachers rarely, if ever, used textbooks to design curriculum and instruction. The students enjoyed the integrative curriculum because it allowed them to learn more than just about the language. These are all common practices and integral components when using Expeditionary Learning design in WL classrooms (Burke, 2007, 2017). In various ways, students discussed how they applied their knowledge and skills during their teachers' lessons and felt they were improving their proficiency. Researchers have recommended that teachers use proficiency-based strategies to improve learning in WL classrooms, but these results showed evidence that the students enjoyed these instructional strategies and believed their interpersonal, interpretive, and presentational communication improved because of it (Adair-Hauck et al., 2006; Glisan & Donato, 2017, 2020; Henshaw & Hawkins, 2022; Ritz & Toro, 2022).

When asked what students would change about their teachers' instruction, the majority (66%) said "nothing." They enjoyed learning in their WL classrooms and valued the proficiency-based instructional strategies their teachers used. Some students suggested having more time or different formats for lessons and

activities. Only six students in three teachers' classes wished their teachers translated written or spoken directions into English. Teachers were observed implementing proficiency-based instruction they planned that put SLA theories, such as comprehensible input, output, and interaction into practice (Ritz & Toro, 2022). The nine alumni were using CLT and proficiency-based strategies after graduation and their students were enjoying their language learning experience.

Based on the results, the following pedagogical implications can be made.

1. When teachers design lessons, units, investigations, and learning expeditions, Big C and little c culture should be the focus of the planning. Curriculum should be culturally relevant to teachers and students instead of being dictated by textbook writers and instruction should encourage interpersonal communication in the target language between students to develop diverse perspectives.
2. Using a constructivist approach, teachers can determine what grammar, vocabulary, and literacy skills are needed for students to communicate about cultural products, practices, and perspectives. Students should learn vocabulary and grammar concepts that are meaningful to them and necessary for communicating in oral and written forms during lessons.
3. Teachers should limit their talking and allow students to work together to function in the WL. To encourage effective student-centered learning, teachers must consider character and community learning targets when planning. Students can learn to work together and communicate in the target language with one another. If students are confident and comfortable in WL classrooms, they will participate actively in communicative activities.
4. The majority of students enjoy learning languages with teachers using PBP. They also understand that the purpose of WL education is to be able to communicate in another language and understand other cultures. It is possible for students to see WL classrooms as "a break from the norm" and "just talk" in the target language (Carlos's Spanish IV student). Teachers should take time to help students understand the ACTFL proficiency levels and teach them strategies to improve their proficiency. When teachers give students time to process the language learning experience, they enjoy it.

Limitations

Many data were collected for this large study; consequently, only some results can be reported here. The focus was on understanding secondary students' perceptions of PBP, which is rarely represented in the literature. If nine other alumni who graduated from BGSU were observed for the same amount of time, it is not certain that this would garner the same results. However, by including a variety of participants from various contexts and with diverse experience as teachers, the researcher aimed to achieve credibility. Although collecting exit slips from every class for every teacher would have allowed for more participants, the decision was made to limit the classes due to the amount of qualitative data that were collected.

Conclusion

In the past thirty years, the expectations of pre-service and in-service WL teachers have changed vastly. National and state standards have been influenced by SLA theories and require teachers to translate these theories into practice. State teacher licensure exams require advanced levels of communicative proficiency as well as pedagogical knowledge and skill about CLT and proficiency-based pedagogy. SLA researchers and WL education researchers may claim that pedagogy has changed, but mentors who spend time supervising pre-service and student teachers in WL classrooms can agree that there are still pre-service and in-service teachers who use traditional non-communicative methods. Based on the changes for teacher licensure and national and state standards in the past few decades, it seems that the ultimate goal is to improve WL education so K-12 students develop their communicative and cultural proficiency to become multilingual, global citizens who recognize diverse perspectives and appreciate cultural differences. In this study, secondary WL students discussed how their teachers implemented experiential, student-centered curriculum and instruction that integrated culture and language that they enjoyed while improving their proficiency. These students' teachers had been trained to use CLT and profiicency-based strategies during their teacher training methods courses, but that did not guarantee that they would continue to plan and implement lessons that integrated communicative and cultural proficiency with culture driving their curriculum and instruction. The teachers believed that they could design experiences where students engaged in interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational communication while discovering and developing an understanding of cultural products, practices, and perspectives. To achieve the ultimate goal of improving WL education, more teachers need to understand that students appreciate and value proficiency-based pedagogy and they will rise to the challenges it brings.

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Appendix A

Initial Teacher Questionnaire

Background Questions

1. What is your name?
2. What world language (WL) do you teach?
3. How long have you been a WL teacher?
4. How long have you been a WL teacher at your present school?
5. Have you taught anywhere besides at your present school?
6. What levels of WL do you teach presently? (i.e. French 1, Spanish 4 AP, German 1 Honors)
7. What levels of WL have you taught in the past?
8. During your career have you left teaching for a certain period of time? If so, when and why?
9. What degree(s) do you hold? When and where did you earn your degree(s)?
10. What teaching certificate do you hold?
11. When did you study abroad, where, and for how long?
12. Describe your study abroad experience, explaining any benefits and drawbacks in 2-3 sentences.
13. Since you graduated, have you traveled abroad? If so, when, where, and for how long?
14. As an undergraduate, what was your score for the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI)? Please note how many times you took the OPI.
15. As an undergraduate, what was your score for the Written Proficiency Test (WPT)? Please note how many times you took the WPT.
16. Have you taken the OPI and WPT post-graduation? If so, what were your scores?
17. How do you maintain your communicative and cultural proficiency in the WL?
18. Does your school district offer students the Seal of Biliteracy? If so, what exams do your students take to earn the Seal of Biliteracy on their transcript?
19. In the past three years, in what type of professional development have you participated or provided? Please explain in 2-3 sentences.
20. Do your students participate in trips abroad or exchange programs with schools in foreign countries? Why or why not? Please explain in 2-3 sentences.

Pedagogy Questions (relevant to this study)

1. How often (total=100%) do you use the world language on a daily basis in class when teaching and for what purpose? Please specify if these are different amounts if you teach different levels.
2. How often (total=100%) do your students use the world language on a daily basis in class and for what purpose? Please specify if these are different amounts if you teach different levels.

Appendix B

Observation Data Sheet

Teacher:	Date:	Class:	# of Students:
Time	Pattern of Interaction	Activity	Sample talk
Ex: 8:42 am	Ss<>Ss	Question of the day	"Qu'est-ce que tu as fait hier soir?"

Appendix C

Student Exit Slips

Student Exit Slip 1

Please answer these questions in 1-3 sentences and return them to me on your way out the door. Thank you!

1. What did you learn today?
2. What did you enjoy about the lesson?
3. Is there anything you would change about the lesson? If so, what would you change?
4. How often do you usually speak in French, German, Spanish during class (total=100%)?
5. How often does your teacher usually speak in French, German, Spanish during class (total=100%)?
6. When do you think you and your teacher should speak English in your French, German, Spanish class and why?

You (please explain):

Your teacher (please explain):

Student Exit Slip 2

Please answer these questions in 1-3 sentences and return them to me on your way out the door. Thank you!

1. What new words or expressions did you learn today, if any?
2. What grade are you in and what level French/German/Spanish are you in?

Grade: _____ Level: _____

3. What is your **main reason** for taking French/German/Spanish?

4. What do you want to be able to do in French/German/Spanish by the **end of this year**?
5. How many more years of French/German/Spanish will you take? Why?
6. What do you think students should be able to do at the end of…
   - ***a.*** ***One year*** of French/German/Spansh?
   - ***b.*** ***Two years*** of French/German/Spanish?
   - ***c.*** ***Three years*** of French/German/Spanish?
   - ***d.*** ***Four years*** of French/German/Spanish?
   - ***e.*** ***Five years*** of French/German/Spanish?

3

Beyond Product: Exploring Practices and Perspectives in Cultural Learning

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Challenge Statement

To cultivate intercultural competence, educators must go beyond introducing products to integrating the practices, how can world language classrooms embrace a more holistic, multidimensional approach to cultural learning that equips students with the skills to navigate real-world intercultural interactions?

Abstract

This study explores the integration of culture in the world language classroom, focusing on the three interconnected dimensions of culture: products, practices, and perspectives. Products refer to tangible cultural elements such as art, literature, and food, while practices encompass social norms, traditions, and daily behaviors that define a culture's lifestyle. The perspectives aspect includes the values, beliefs, and worldviews that shape how a culture perceives itself and others. By prioritizing practices and perspectives in connection to products, the research argues that understanding the underlying values and beliefs of a culture leads to a more profound engagement with the language, fostering empathy and intercultural competence. The present study employs qualitative methods to assess how language educators can go beyond teaching products to facilitate deeper discussions of cultural practices and perspectives. The findings suggest that a focus on practices and perspectives helps students not only learn the language more authentically but also appreciate the complexities of cultural identity and worldview, thus preparing them to engage with diverse communities in a globalized world.

Keywords: culture, products, practices, perspectives, world languages

The teaching of cultural practices and perspectives with products in the world language classroom offers students an in-depth understanding of not only linguistic skills but also cultural insights that foster global awareness and empathy. The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) defines culture as consisting of products, practices, and perspectives. In their World-Readiness Standards (2024a), ACTFL outlines two primary goals for the development of cultural competence and understanding: (1) relating cultural practices to perspectives where learners use the language to investigate, explain, and reflect on the relationship between the practices and perspectives of the cultures studied, and (2) relating cultural products to perspectives where learners use the language to investigate, explain, and reflect on the relationship between the products and perspectives. This gives them a more in-depth and holistic view of cultural with an emphasis on understanding and empathy.

Moran (2001) describes products as tangible and visible. These can include tools, clothing, written and spoken language, buildings, social, educational, and governmental systems, etc. Practices encompass the full range of explicit actions that members of the culture carry out, including their use of products. Underlying the more explicit demonstrations of products and practices is the implicit foundation of perspectives. Perspectives represent the "perceptions, believes, values and attitudes that underlie the produces and that guide persons and communities in the practice of a culture" (p. 25). The construct of these three Ps represents progressively more complex layers of cultural competence and understanding; thus, the key in instruction is to highlight the interconnectedness of these dimensions and their relationship to language. Park-Johnson and Shin (2020) assert, "it is not enough to simply utter well-formed utterances; you have to understand the situation and setting and know what is appropriate for that circumstance" (p. 105). Nevertheless, Dema & Moeller (2012) note that "although teachers have begun to incorporate more culture in the lesson, the major concern that remains is finding effective ways for integrating culture and language that prepare the learners to communicate and collaborate effectively in the 21st century" (p. 77). Page and Benander (2016) state that "perspectives are the gateway to students being able to advance their intercultural development" (p. 1). Yet, this goal remains more elusive than the more readily accessible products. Byrd et al. (2011) found that instructors tended to neglect the perspectives aspect of the three Ps.

This prompted the consideration of several questions by the researcher/instructor, who queried her students to determine their current understanding of French culture and posed the following questions:

1. What do students think of when they think of French culture? Do they consider products, practices, and perspectives?
2. What has the most influence on their perceptions of French culture?
3. What do they think are the biggest misperceptions of French culture?
4. How do they think French culture should be taught?

This paper investigates the information gleaned from a survey (Appendix A) distributed to students and makes suggestions toward the further development of cultural awareness and critical thinking skills in the early levels of foreign language learning.

Literature Review

The teaching of culture has long been stressed as a goal of foreign language instruction (Brooks, 1968; Heusinkveld, 1997; Kramsch, 1998; Lafayette, 1988; Moran, 2001; Nostrand, 1978; Omaggio-Hadley, 2001; Seelye, 1993; Shrum & Glisan, 2010). The NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements (2024b) states the ability to investigate products and practices to understand cultural perspectives as one of its goals. Even with the guidelines proposed by the NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements, Garrett-Rucks (2013) writes that, "fostering and assessing language learners' cultural understanding is a daunting task, particularly at the early stages of language learning with target language instruction" (p. 1). Although ACTFL emphasizes the teaching of culture to include products, practices and perspectives, instructors often struggle with how to effectively integrate all of these into their foreign language program, particularly given the constraints on instruction (Durocher, 2007, p. 144). Chavez (2002) found that many students are unaware of the interconnectedness of product, practice, and perspective and do not always understand the relationship between language and culture. Her study focused on students' definitions of culture and how students wish to see culture in their classrooms; she found that students' definitions of culture did not match the goals set out by ACTFL. Additionally, Dubreil et al. (2004) found that while the exploration of authentic French websites by intermediate level students did increase cultural awareness overall, the focus remained on product over practice. Keeping these factors in mind, this paper investigates the responses of elementary language learners concerning their current perceptions of French culture. Based on the findings, the study proposes additional ways to go beyond product toward the integration of practices and perspectives in order to deepen cultural competence and understanding.

The Survey

The researcher/instructor has an advanced degree in second language acquisition and French and has spent significant time living and studying in France and is currently teaching elementary French at a large, Midwestern university. The class met two days a week for approximately 100 minutes. The course consisted of twenty-one students: fifteen females, five males, and one non-binary individual. A little over half the class had taken two years of French in high school, the remaining students had never taken French before. Of those students, most of them had studied another language in high school, including Spanish, Japanese, and Russian. Students who have studied a language before are encouraged to take a placement test; however, most self-place.

The students were recruited in class to complete the survey in order to assist the researcher/instructor with the study. They were assured that participation was voluntary and that lack of participation or desire to withdraw from participation would have no impact on their grade. They were told that their responses would be generalized for the report and that they would not be identifiable. They were

told the researcher/instructor was interested in finding out more about their perceptions of French culture. This recruitment took place approximately four weeks into the semester. The researcher/instructor uses the textbook Espaces (Mitchell & Tano, 2023). Vista Higher Learning (2024) states on their website that "culture from the French-speaking world [is] integrated throughout [the textbook]. Each lesson maintains a focus on the French-speaking world, starting with cultural themes used to engage students, continuing with readings that enhance students' cultural views, and videos that bring the culture to life" (n. d.). At the time that the survey was issued, the instructor had not drawn any particular attention to the cultural aspects mentioned in the textbook or its accompanying workbook and had not engaged students in any specific cultural lessons.

Results and Discussion

The students answered all of the questions on the survey; their responses appeared to be genuine and thoughtful in nature. The first question asked respondents to state what they thought of when they thought of French culture. The majority of students (90%) responded with a product. These included food and drink (baguettes, wine, cuisine), history and art (Paris, castles, education, works of art), and fashion (chic, well-dressed, fancy). All but one of those students mentioned practice, focusing primarily on the café culture in France, such as leisurely lunches. Only ten percent of the respondents addressed perspectives; for instance, some stated they believe the French are conservative and firm in their beliefs. One noted that they are passionate about their country. The survey did not ask them to further elaborate. Therefore, in consideration of the first question of the survey, "What do students think of when they think of French culture? Do they consider products, practices, and perspectives?" the majority thought mainly of product and practice; only a small percentage mentioned perspective. This is not surprising as products and practices are more readily visible and easily identified. Concerning the second part of the first research question (Do they consider products, practices, and perspectives?), , results were mixed. Forty percent of the students had no idea that culture could be described as product, practice, and perspective; an additional 40% attempted to explain what they thought the three Ps were, but were not on target, while the remaining 20% accurately described what they were. This shows that the majority of students did not readily consider the three Ps when thinking about culture.

The second question asked respondents to check what had influenced their perceptions of French culture and to check all that applied (See Appendix A). Ninety percent checked "prior study of French" as well as "current study of French." Only ten percent mentioned their class textbook as having an influence on their perceptions of French culture. When considering the second question, "What has the most influence on their perceptions of French culture?," the researcher/instructor was surprised that all of the respondents indicated that media had the most influence. Additionally, 80% of the respondents mentioned that stereotypes influenced their perceptions; when asked what they thought of as the biggest misperception; all of those respondents said "rudeness." A few of the stu-

dents made an attempt to understand this from the French perspective, with one stating, "sometimes Americans don't even try to speak French," implying that that would partially explain said rudeness. Another wrote, "you hear that people that live in France can be rude to foreigners. However, if I lived somewhere that was a popular place to visit, I too, would be annoyed with the constant traffic." Thus, in response to the second question, rudeness emerged as the greatest misconception; the researcher/instructor appreciates that this is duly labelled as such.

According to Hanvey's (1979) four stages of cross-cultural awareness, Level I consists of superficial stereotypes; Level II centers on ethnocentrism; Level III is where learners begin to accept the culture at an intellectual level and can see things in terms of the target culture's frame of reference. Lastly, Level IV is considered the level of empathy for the target culture. Based on the survey results, none of the students exhibited Level I or Level II; they already seem to be at Levels III and IV. They did not indicate a belief that there was anything bizarre or different compared to their home culture, which would be indicative of Levels I or II. While these results are encouraging, the development of intercultural sensitivity is an "ongoing, dynamic process in which learners continually synthesize cultural inputs with their own past and present experience in order to create meaning" (Robinson, 1988, p. 11).

In consideration of the third research question, "What can be done to address misconceptions of French culture?," 90% suggested more accurate representations in American media as well as more education about practices by "paying attention to their actions and day to day life" and about perspectives by "studying its history." Additionally, they mentioned, "real life interaction with French people" and/or "immersion" as the best way to combat stereotypes.

When asked the fourth research question, how culture should be taught, many invoked a higher level of awareness and critical thinking. One wrote, "A way to learn about a culture that is not yours...you have to eliminate your own ethnocentric perspective." And, given the high influence of media on their perceptions, one stipulated, "I think we could teach people that what we see online does not define a whole country. Also, media will dramatize aspects of French culture that we can point out to people and give a different perspective that is more grounded in reality." Thus, there is a difference between media meant for entertainment and media meant for information.

All of the respondents acknowledged that culture is tied to language instead of it being a separate entity. One wrote, "I believe language is extremely important when looking at a culture. Language is how people connect and express themselves. Learning about a culture and excluding the language leaves out a lot of the cultural context." One even wrote that "speaking in that language" would be a way to learn about culture. The researcher/instructor was encouraged that all of the students saw language and culture as tied together.

Maximizing Perspective

Culture is to be represented as multi-layered, socially practiced, and dynamic. One way to facilitate cultural competence and understanding is through a socio-

cultural approach. Based on the work of Vygotsky (2012), a sociocultural approach entails the use of language as a tool for the construction of meaning, both written and spoken language can be used to encourage in-depth dialogues about the products, practices, and perspectives (Chism, 2015, p. 96). There are several approaches to soliciting such dialogic engagement. These include open-ended questions, debates, and opinions, where students can be engaged in small groups or in whole class discussions in person or online, synchronously or asynchronously. Zimmerman (2015) examined how unscripted talk about culture can be analyzed to determine if participants are engaged in conversations about perspectives and how this was accomplished. From a sociocultural foundation, the instructor provides the opportunity for the students to verbalize their ways of approaching and analyzing culture. The instructor can then ask probing questions as a means to extend the discussion where they can further guide, redirect, or scaffold their cultural understanding and competence. As such, instructors should be mindful that they are fostering students' awareness of the link between products, practices, and particularly perspectives; thus, any materials used should be multi-layered and varied. Open-ended and student-generated discussion of cultural viewpoints and topics allows them to pursue culture in a way that promotes discovery and reflection.

The survey suggests that, since media was cited as having the most influence, the use of authentic media can be especially informative when learning about culture. It is important to ensure that the media offers realistic products, practices, and perspectives in order for it to be used as a teaching tool. Richards (2006) supports the idea of using authentic materials in the foreign language as they provide cultural information about the target language (p.20). Film scenes, news clips, music, the internet, images, social, and other forms of media can serve toward this end. Barnes-Karol and Broner (2010) suggest using images as a springboard for discussion. Page and Benander (2016) suggest the use of media in the form of videos to illustrate cultural dimensions. They encourage small group discussions while filling out a chart using devoted to question prompts for each of the three Ps. They also suggest a rubric for assessment, including a ranking of observation, analysis, insights, and language structures according to scale (p. 8). Using a graphic organizer can also assist when evoking comparisons.

Ketchum (2006), in her approach to reading, had small groups of students research a particular cultural topic related to Senegal. Students conducted research using a variety of media, including the Internet, articles and books, videos, CDs, and e-mail correspondence. Also, "the entire class participated in an interactive dance and drumming demonstration provided by local African experts" (p. 28). This is an example of how a variety of media can serve toward linguistic goals such as reading while simultaneously integrating cultural knowledge while promoting a learner-centered approach to cultural experiences as well.

The survey responses also indicated that students believe a comparison of cultural similarities and differences helpful when learning about culture. As such, one can do comparisons between the home and target cultures by addressing each of the Ps. For instance, the word *pain* literally means *bread* in French. However,

the literal translation ignores the underlying practices and perspectives of the target culture. For instance, the product *pain* can come in a variety of shapes and flavors with the French baguette being the most common and readily associated with French culture. The practice associated with pain is specific; the French have bread at every meal, and it is bought fresh on a regular basis. Going even deeper to the underlying perspective enhances what is meant by pain to the French. That is, it is a symbol of daily cuisine and social gathering. Additionally, it serves as a symbol of cultural identity and resistance. Thus, in this a manner, the instructor can simultaneously teach all three Ps when introducing new, selective vocabulary that evokes cultural exploration. Using authentic media not only contextualizes vocabulary but also immerses students in cultural experiences, helping them visualize and understand the French connection to the baguette as part of everyday life. Instructors are encouraged to engage in a pre-assessment using explorative questions or a scale, such as Hanvey's (1979) or other selected means to determine where students are in their awareness. This pre-assessment can be revisited as a post-assessment after the lessons. In addition, instructors should be prepared to give students some background information in order to acclimate them to the forthcoming topic. Ketchum (2006) noted that "sufficient background knowledge can help students comprehend the relationship between the practices and perspectives of a nonnative text or product" (p. 22). It is important that instructors choose realistic media as representative of the target culture as well as to draw awareness to the three Ps of culture. A sample lesson plan is suggested in Appendix B.

Instructors may be hesitant to engage in extensive dialogic construction with their students, especially at the early levels. However, Deardorff (2016) notes that it is vital to introduce cultural awareness as early as possible in order to develop an ongoing and layered understanding of intercultural competence. Additionally, allowing for limited discussion in the L1 sets the foundation for students to develop their orientation toward culture and develop critical thinking skills. Byram (2011) notes that "the desire to engage students in such reflection from the beginning of language instruction drives the decision to use English, or an English option, for critical exercises at the beginning and intermediate levels" (p. 537). This presents the opportunity to utilize the target language they already know, such as interrogative questions (*pourquoi* [why]?) and/or simple likes and dislikes. As their language proficiency increases, so will their ability to have these discussions in the L2. Such discussions can be adapted and interwoven in a variety of formats and settings that suit the level of the students.

Limitations and Suggestions for Further Study

The study was limited in several ways. First, since the survey was open-ended and allowed for multiple responses, it was challenging to apply any type of quantitative analysis. The survey used was created by the researcher/instructor, thus, it was not a standardized instrument. It is also worth noting that the questions and the responses pertained primarily to the culture of France, not other Francophone countries. The researcher/instructor did not analyze the textbook or its accompanying workbook for its cultural content or presentation. Also, since several stu-

dents indicated that the current textbook/workbook influenced their perceptions of French culture, further investigation into the textbook/workbook and/or inquiry of the students can further reveal its impact. Also, the researcher/instructor could have had students clarify which types of media influenced their perceptions of culture; a future study could analyze the use of different media forms as a representation of culture. The survey only took place in one class; ideally, the survey could have been distributed in multiple classes of elementary French. In-depth interviews could reveal more about students' perceptions of culture and the influences that impacted their construction. An analysis of the discourse that emerges from the discussions about culture can reveal much about where the students are in their understanding. Another potential study could investigate the use of online technologies, such as portfolios (Chism & Faidley, 2021) or wikis (Ducate & Steckenbiller, 2017). As with culture itself, the research is ever evolving and changing and there are many avenues to explore, particularly the role of perspectives in cultural awareness and competence.

Conclusion

The results of the survey provide a unique opportunity into how a select group of early language learners perceive French culture. The first research question, what do students think of when they think of French culture, the answers focused on primarily on products and practices, with a small number attempting to understand perspective. The majority do not think of culture in terms of products, practices, and perspectives as such; however, their responses indicated some level of awareness of these three. Surprisingly, all of the students said that media had the most influence on their perceptions of French culture and that the biggest misperceptions of French culture are based on the stereotype of the French being "rude." The researcher/instructor was encouraged that the students in her elementary French class already presented themselves at Levels III and IV of Hanvey's cross-cultural awareness scale. They were open-minded and willing to understand the origins of practices and perspectives in relationship to product. As the final research question asked students how they think French culture should be taught; responses focused on the use of authentic media and the debunking of stereotypes.

Using this as a starting point, the instructor can begin to scaffold onto their present knowledge and extend their cultural competence and understanding through dialogue. Cultural products should be introduced in conjunction with the practices and perspectives. Guided conversations about culture can encourage empathy and reflection beyond the mere product toward higher levels of understanding and acceptance. All of the students recognized the importance of understanding culture, writing that "it helps us connect" and "enhances peoples' understanding of the world. Another wrote, "it helps to understand the French do what they do and act the way they act." There is no better reason than to maximize practices and perspectives when considering culture than to be able to understand and connect with others. Making a conscious effort to include practices and perspectives when talking about products can go a long way in promoting empathy and appreciation in a diverse global society.

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Appendix A

Survey of Culture

1. What do you think of when you think of French culture? List as many as you can.
2. What has influenced your perceptions of French culture? Check all that apply.
   Prior study of French_____
   Current study of French_____
   Current textbook/workbook_____
   Media (film, TV, news, etc.) _____
   Stereotypes _____
   Personal connection (family, travel, etc.) _____
   Other? (specify)_____
3. What do you think is the biggest misperception of French culture? Why do you think this is?
4. What can be done to address misperceptions of French culture?
5. How would you counter stereotypes to someone who has no experience?
6, Do you see culture as tied to language or a separate entity? Why?
7. What do you think are the best ways to learn about culture?
8. Culture is described in terms of the three Ps: product, practice, and perspective. What does this mean to you? Can you give an example?
9. What do you think would enhance your overall understanding aspects of French culture?
10. Why is it important to understand culture?
11, Other thoughts or suggestions?

Appendix B

Sample Lesson Plan: Understanding the Baguette

Objectives:	
Language Skills	Acquire and practice vocabulary and phrases related to the baguette and bakeries.
Cultural Practices	Understand the daily routines and etiquette around purchasing and consuming baguettes in France.
Cultural Perspectives	Explore French attitudes toward food quality, tradition, and community as reflected in the baguette.
Introduction	Visual introduction to the baguette
Media	High-quality images of French bakeries, baguettes, and traditional bakery items.
Activity	Show images of a typical French *boulangerie*, baguettes on display, and people carrying baguettes.
	Introduce vocabulary: *la baguette, la boulangerie, le boulanger, etc.*
	Discuss students' initial impressions. Ask them to describe what they see in French (e.g., *C'est une baguette)*
Interpretive Mode	
Media	Watch a video on the baguette
Activity	Focus on key terms, ask questions using interrogatives
Media	Listen to an audio recording of a simple, authentic exchange in a French bakery
Activity	Focus on politeness
Interpersonal Mode	Pair students to role-play ordering a baguette, alternating roles as customer and baker. Have them greet each other, make the transaction, and say goodbye.
Interpretive Mode	
Media	Short reading passage or excerpt from a French article about the baguette's role in daily French life.
Activity	Read a brief passage that covers topics such as the daily habit of buying bread, the baguette's protected status as a national symbol, or the pride in artisanal baking.
Interpersonal Mode	
Activity	Group discussion asking "Pourquoi"
	Pourquoi la baguette est-elle importante en France? (Why is the baguette important in France?) *Pourquoi les Français achètent-ils du pain tous les jours?* (Why do the French buy bread daily?)
	Encourage students to reflect on how these practices differ from their own culture's approach to bread and daily food routines.
Interpretive	
Media	Short social media posts or comments from French users on the significance of the baguette
Activity	Ask what they notice about the social media posts
Presentational	Present in groups what perspectives reveal about French values related to tradition and the cultural importance of food
Conclusion	
	Exit ticket: What is one thing that surprised you about the baguette's role in French culture?
	Visual presentation: What does the baguette mean to the French?
	Role-play: Ability to simulate ordering a baguette
	Explain to an American the products, practices, and perspectives associated with the French baguette

4

Physical Presence and the Classroom Climate among HyFlex Language Students

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Challenge Statement

Student interaction has been an essential component of the language classroom for decades. However, as learning environments continue to evolve to include online, hybrid, and hyflex formats, will students still be able to form connections to one another?

Abstract

This study examines the impact of the physical presence of other learners on perceptions of classroom climate across multiple language learning spaces, particularly hyflex spaces, at the post-secondary level. Following a review of the role of the presence of others in social learning theory, student insights and perceptions about their peers' physical presence were gathered using the Connected Classroom Climate Inventory. Student feedback indicated that impressions of classroom climate across various iterations of hyflex spaces were viewed as both connected and supportive by students. The unpredictability of the physical presence of other students within a modified hyflex learning space still allowed for respect for diverse learning styles and cooperation among language students.

Keywords: HyFlex, Classroom Climate, Social Learning Theory, Language Survey.

The classroom climate, as a socially constructed milieu, is informed by the physical and social presence of others. Others can take the shape of other learners or the instructor. But how do others, and the climate that they help construct, impact learners within less traditional, or less physical, learning spaces? As learning spaces evolve as the result of social, cultural and technological development, the role of the other within these learning spaces, and on the learning endeavor, may be evolving as well. Following a review of the role played by other learners within major theories of learning, the following pages seek to examine students' impressions of the impact of others on the perceived classroom climate within evolving hyflex and blendflex learning spaces devoted to language study in higher education.

Indeed, the role of the other, as well as how one sees oneself in relation to others, figures either directly or indirectly in numerous theories of learning, motivation, and persistence. As such, it has informed decades of educational policy and pedagogical practice. Social constructivism, for example, fueled by Vygotsky's (1986) theory of language development, saw the classroom as a community of learners where the connections among learners and their social worlds are central to the learning process. Following this theory, students develop ideas through interaction with their peers (Walker & Shore, 2015). For Omodan and Tsotesi (2020), social constructivism implies that knowledge and social context cannot be separated from one another as knowledge construction lives at the intersection of our social interactions.

Just as the other is essential to learning within a social constructivist framework, the other is also central to Tinto's (1993) theory of student persistence. Tinto takes a sociological rather than a social-psychological view that "places greater stress on the actions of the various actors," (p. 122) or others, in the learning environment. In other words, it is the actions of others that construct the social and academic communities in which students find themselves (p. 122). Key to this theory of persistence is understanding the classroom as a community as well as a physical space. While the classroom community is but one of many layers of community that exist and intersect on a typical campus, it remains among the most impactful (Tinto, 1993; 2012).

Bandura's social learning theory (1977), which later grows into his social cognitive theory (1991, 2001) stresses the importance of the 'other' to both learning and cognition. Bandura posits that learning is actualized through modeling behaviors either though observation of those around us or through symbolic modeling via media, such as TV or film. For Bandura, observing outcomes as they occur for others can alter our behavior just as much as our own direct experience. Observational learning, therefore, is governed by four elements: attentional processes, retention processes, motor production, and motivational processes. However, out of all of the cues that can alter our behavior and impact our learning, "none is more common and effective than the actions of others" (Bandura, 1977, p. 87). Essentially, Bandura creates a middle ground between behaviorists who see our environment as having the strongest influence on learning, and humanists who see everything as being within our personal control. Social learning, on the other hand, combines both aspects and views them as bidirectional.

Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1991, 2001) builds and expands upon social learning theory to include the notion of three-way reciprocal causation for optimal learning where the nexus of personal factors, behavioral factors, and environmental factors informs cognition and learning (Bandura, 1991, 2001; Schneider et al., 2022). Specifically, social cognitive theory is viewed through the lens of agency: personal agency, proxy agency, and collective agency. The interaction of these three agencies is critical to the functioning of diverse social systems, including educational systems, through our motivational investments. As such, we are all simultaneously "producers as well as products" (Bandura, 2001, p. 1) of our social and educational systems.

The Community of Inquiry framework (Garrison et al., 2000; Shea & Bidjerano, 2010) is a theoretical model seeking to explain learning in online environments, specifically. But it too assumes that optimal learning requires a supportive community (Arbaugh, Bangert, & Cleveland-Innes, 2010; Shea, 2006). This model sees community, and therefore learning, as residing at the intersection of multiple presences: social presence, (or the connections among and between online learners) cognitive presence (or learners' ability to make meaning through discourse), and teaching presence (or the design and direction of social and cognitive presences). Social presence is expressed via "group cohesion, collaboration, open communication, affective expression, [and] sharing personal emotions" (Laforune & Lakhal, 2019, p. 3). Within the Community of Inquiry framework, the other is central to social presence, which in turn informs learning.

Socially situated cognition theory (Smith & Semin, 2004; Semin & Smith, 2013) also stresses the interplay between three sources of influence on learning: our behavior, the behavior of others around us, and our environment. Smith and Semin's 2004 framework viewed cognition as necessary for adaptive action, involving both the body and our sensory-motor systems while in constant communication with our environment. In 2013, Semin and Smith expand on the environment's role by considering the influence of others in so much as their actions and movements can be mapped upon our own bodies. They further add that social cognition is emergent, meaning that it influences the subsystems that generate it. In other words, causation is inverted. Essentially, they encourage a macro- perspective of cognition, rather than a micro- or internal perspective, such that the influence of social interaction can truly be considered. They offer a succinct but powerful analogy of the relationship between cognition and its subsystems: "words in isolation can be analyzed with respect to their meaning. However, a sentence composed of words possess an entirely different emergent quality that cannot be understood by an analysis of the word or word categories alone. The same applies to social-cognition and adaptive coregulation" (p. 128). Therefore, while our individual cognition can be analyzed individually, cognition possesses an emergent quality that cannot be understood unless also considered socially.

Along with our growing understanding of the importance of the *other* in learning, increased study of classroom climates—be they face-to-face, online, or hybrid—has taken place. These considerations have produced a host of instruments used to measure students' perceptions of classroom cohesiveness and

student integration within the learning environment (Carlson et al., 2006; Fraser, 2018; Stanton, Zandvliet & Dhaliwal, 2018; Zandvliet, 2018). Predictably, numerous studies have examined how students perceive their classroom environment in face-to-face (Carlson et al, 2006; Cleveland & Fisher, 2014, Gascoigne, 2012a), online (McBrian, Cheng, & Jones, 2009; Vesely, Bloom, & Sherlock, 2007), and hybrid spaces (Szeto & Cheng, 2016). Many have also sought to investigate correlations between classroom climate and student learning outcomes or course completion (Fraser, 2018; Gascoigne 2012b; Mcarthur, 2015). Less attention, however, has been paid to the classroom climate in hyflex and blendflex spaces. It is this lesser-studied hyflex space that the following series of studies addresses.

Research Questions

As students demand increased flexibility in educational options (Owston, 2013; Romero-Hall & Ripine, 2021), hyflex modalities have advanced to meet this call. Hyflex course designs constitute a blend of modalities, spaces, communities, and formats. As such, hyflex courses offer multi-layered learning spaces that can create complex interpersonal connections among participants (Gascoigne, 2022). It is imperative, then, that classroom climates within mutable hyflex spaces also be examined.

As opposed to other formats, such as those that are fully online or blended (either synchronous or asynchronous), hyflex is unique given the degree of choice and control that it places in the hands of the student. Within hyflex courses, students may decide to participate in person one day, remotely but synchronously the next, or remote but asynchronously another day. The instructor does not control the medium of student participation, the student does. As such, the traditional power dynamic is diffused. But what are the implications of these fluid student presences for the learning environment? Does having some students in class and others remote, with little predictability about who will be where, translate into a less cohesive and less supportive classroom climate? Can students still cultivate a sense of community within such dynamic and multilayered spaces? Will students still forge connections with their peers? These are the questions that the following pages begin to examine. Indeed, as we embrace the dynamic learning environment offered by hyflex designs, we must also carefully consider how the classroom, as a liminal space, is impacted along with how students perceive the emerging classroom climate.

Materials

In order to capture students' perception of the classroom climate within three versions of a modified hyflex design, Dwyer et al.'s (2004) Connected Classroom Climate Inventory (CCCI) survey instrument was administered to students (see Appendix A). The CCCI measures "students' perceptions of student-to-student behaviors and feelings that create a supportive, cooperative classroom environment" (Carlson et al., 2006, p.11). The CCCI is an eighteen-item Likert instrument with response options ranging from (1) strongly agree to (5) strongly disagree. Dwyer et al. (2004) found the CCCI to have an overall reliability of alpha=.94.

Participants

The students in each course were all incoming first-year students at the University of Houston-Downtown, a large, urban metropolitan university that is both a minority-serving and a Hispanic-serving institution. The instructor had 25 years of language-teaching experience at the post-secondary level, including ten years of experience teaching in online and hybrid environments.

Course

The course in question was a first-year course focusing on language and culture. As part of the general education core, and therefore available to students of any major or language experience, the course was taught in English. The focus was on languages and cultures in general, as well as a survey of French and Spanish, in particular. This course fulfilled the institution's Language, Philosophy, and Culture requirement. With no institutional foreign language requirement, the topic of this course aims to promote interest in additional elective study in French or Spanish.

Design

The following series of three small-scale studies examine student perceptions of the classroom climate within three hyflex variations of the same course taught by the same professor across several semesters. The only major variable across semesters is the degree of student autonomy and agency in determining which days or how many days the student will be physically present in class as opposed to participating via distance.

Format A

In the fall of 2021, the author sought to examine students' perception of their classroom climate in a first-year language and culture course delivered in a modified hyflex format at the post-secondary level. The course had a scheduled meeting time of 75 minutes on Mondays and Wednesdays each week for 16 weeks. As this was the instructor's first attempt at embracing a hyflex (or modified hyflex) design, she required students to attend in person each Monday, but allowed them to participate each Wednesday either in person or online synchronously via Zoom. Clearly, this first iteration does not follow a true hyflex design, as students were only given limited control of their participation modality one day per week. It is, then, more appropriately a blendflex design. For Miller, Sellnow, and Strawser (2012), blendflex is a subset of hyflex wherein the instructor preassigns certain face-to-face participation days while integrating some student participation choice.

At the end of the semester the Connected Classroom Climate Inventory (CCCI) was administered to students. Specifically, a link to the anonymous survey was sent to students via email. Ultimately, 28 students agreed to complete the survey and participate in the study. Student feedback on the CCCI produced an overall CCCI score of 1.58. On individual items, students reported that other students were friendly, they felt a sense of security in class, they felt included in class discussions, and they felt that students were courteous and respected one another. However, even with these positive impressions, students did not report having formed a strong bond with their classmates (Gascoigne, 2022).

Format B

A modification of the above study was conducted in spring 2022 with 51 students in two sections of the same course taught by the same instructor (once again, a sample of convenience). However, this time the modality was altered. Most significantly, the course was moved to a hybrid format, meeting in person synchronously once per week (Wednesdays) as opposed to twice per week, with some material moved to an online asynchronous modality. Even with this significant format change, limited hyflex aspects were also included. Specifically, while students were to attend in person each Wednesday, they were still given the option to either come to class physically or to participate synchronously over Zoom on four Wednesdays of their choice throughout the semester. Students were encouraged to save their four "flex" days for those cases when weather or health or transportation might otherwise prevent their physical presence in the classroom. So, while this design required regular face to face participation, it strove to provide flexibility through the hybrid design along with very limited flexible participation borrowed from hyflex designs.

In spite of the restriction on remote synchronous participation (four day maximum), there were students who exceeded the flex limit for documented reasons. The frequency of student attendance via Zoom for spring 2022 is presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1
Spring 2022 Student Zoom Frequency

Zoom Frequency	Percent of Students
No Zoom Use	14%
1 Day	14%
2 Days	9%
3 Days	9%
4 Days	17%
5 Days	9%
6 Days	9%
7 Days	8%
8 Days	11%
9 Days	0%
10 Days	0%
11 Days	0%
12 Days	0%

During the last two weeks of the semester students were invited to take the CCCI survey. A link to the anonymous survey was sent to students via email. Thirteen students agreed to complete the entire questionnaire. While not statistically significant, both the overall score (x= 1.54) as well as 16 of the 18 individual survey

items produced a more positive or connected rating in the spring 2022 semester when compared to the fall 2021 semester. One item yielded an identical rating of 1.7 across both semesters, "I have common ground with my classmates." There was only one item where the spring 2022 group produced a less favorable climate score relative to the fall 2021 semester, or "The students in my class engage in small talk with one another" (x=2.72 versus x=1.71). Two items received the highest possible climate rating of 1.0 during the spring semester, "I feel a sense of security with my class" and "I feel included in class discussions in my class."

While significant changes to the modality were made, this first fall 2021 to spring 2022 comparison appeared to initially suggest that the move to one class meeting per week, along with a reduction in the amount of agency given to students concerning modality choice in ensuing synchronous meetings, might have the potential to correlate with a more connected class climate score. Given the small sample size, however, the study was again replicated in the fall of 2022.

Format C

During the fall 2022 the course was again offered in a hybrid format, meeting synchronously once per week as opposed to twice per week, with some material moved to an online asynchronous modality. Again, some hyflex/blendflex aspects were again incorporated. Specifically, while students were required to attend in person each week, they were still given the option to either come to class physically or to participate synchronously over Zoom on three days of their choice throughout the semester. Students were again encouraged to save their three flex days for those cases when weather or health might otherwise prevent their participation. Once again, the CCCI was administered to students at the end of the semester. Thirty-nine students agreed to participate.

In spite of the restriction on remote participation, there were again students who exceeded the flex limit for documented reasons. The frequency of student attendance via Zoom for fall 2022 is presented in Table 2 on the next page.

Results of the CCCI for the fall 2022 semester, where students once again held less agency to determine their participation modality when compared to the fall 2021 design, no longer produced a stronger overall connectedness score as it had in the spring 2022 semester. In fact, the opposite appeared to be true. This time the fall 2022 classroom climate ratings were less positive than the original scores of fall 2021. While lacking statistical significance, the overall connectedness score in fall of 2022 of 1.78 indicated less connection when compared to the fall 2021 overall score of 1.58 (1= more connected, 5= less connected). Similarly, scores for the majority of the individual items were less connected in fall 2022 when compared to both the fall 2021 and spring 2022 ratings. Interestingly, item 18 "The students in my class feel comfortable with one another" was the most connected item for this group (x= 1.15) as opposed to being among the lesser connected items for both earlier semesters (x= 1.68 and x= 1.63). Similar to earlier semesters, item 3 "I have a strong bond with my classmates" was among the least connected items once again (x=2.66 for Fall 2022, x= 2.18 for Spring 2022, and x=2.79 for Fall 2021).

Table 2
Fall 2022 Student Zoom Frequency

Zoom Frequency	Percent of Students
No Zoom Use	17%
1 Day	17%
2 Days	24%
3 Days	23%
4 Days	10%
5 Days	2%
6 Days	3%
7 Days	4%
8 Days	0%
9 Days	0%
10 Days	0%
11 Days	0%
12 Days	0%

Findings and Discussion

Specific scores for all individual CCCI items for all three semesters are presented in Table 3 on the next page.

Of the three semesters, while still indicative of a positive and supportive climate, the fall 2022 semester yielded the least connected climate score according to the student survey feedback. However, the fall 2022 semester had more in-person and therefore less remote participation than the spring 2022 semester (participation modality frequency was not tracked in fall 2021).

While small sample sizes and the lack of any statistical significance prevent any meaningful predictions from being made, the simple fact that the climate scores remained positive across all three semesters of restricted hyflex/blendflex designs is encouraging. While we cannot say that any one version of the modified hyflex/blendflex semesters is more conducive to producing a supportive classroom climate than the others, we can say that these three examples of an evolving and multilayered classroom space that gives some limited degree of control to students concerning participation modality all produced spaces that were generally viewed by students as being supportive and cohesive according to the CCCI. The only individual items that consistently received a slightly less positive score of 2.0 or greater across sections were item 3, "I have a strong bond with my classmates," item 9, "The students in my class praise one another," and item 10, "The students in my class are concerned about one another." Yet across all three semesters, students consistently reported scores indicating that they felt a sense of security in their class (item 1), they respected one another (item 6), and that students were both friendly (item 5) and courteous (item 8) with one another.

Table 3
Average CCCI Score by individual item and semester

	CCCI Items	Fall21	Spr22	Fall22
1	I feel a sense of security with my class.	1.39	1.0	1.30
2	I have common ground with my classmates.	1.7	1.7	1.82
3	I have a strong bond with my classmates.	2.79	2.18	2.66
4	The students in my class share stories and experiences.	1.5	1.45	2.10
5	The students in my class are friendly with each other.	1.36	1.09	1.66
6	The students in my class respect one another.	1.25	1.18	1.41
7	I feel included in class discussions in my class.	1.32	1.0	1.51
8	The students in my class are courteous with one another.	1.25	1.18	1.38
9	The students in my class praise one another.	2.22	2.09	2.07
10	The students in my class are concerned about one another.	2.46	2.09	2.30
11	The students in my class smile at one another.	1.96	1.72	1.89
12	The students in my class engage in small talk with one another.	1.71	2.27	1.92
13	The students in my class are non-judgmental with one another.	1.43	1.27	1.69
14	The students in my class laugh with one another.	1.75	1.63	1.94
15	The student in my class are supportive of one another.	1.68	1.45	1.82
16	The students in my class show interest in what others are saying.	1.46	1.36	1.74
17	The students in my class cooperate with one another.	1.54	1.45	1.84
18	The students in my class feel comfortable with one another.	1.68	1.63	1.15
	Overall	1.58	1.54	1.78

Surprisingly, though, the semester with the most zoom use by students (Spring 2022) produced a stronger overall connected classroom climate score (x=1.54) when compared to the semester with the least amount of Zoom use (Fall 2022, x=1.78). Stated inversely, the semester with the most face-to-face participation produced the least connected overall climate score. Unlike others who examined classroom climates combining fixed in-person and remote-synchronous groups of learners (Owston, 2013; Szeto & Cheng, 2016), our learners had some ability to move back and forth across modalities, as opposed to the remote group staying remote and the in-person group staying in person. Indeed, since students could move across modalities, students were never labeled or even regarded as being part of any subgroup of learners. It is possible that the fluidity and unpredictability of participation mode erased any perception of "us" and "them" or "here" and "there" and instead allowed students to rate the general climate as a whole. Being able to see the class as a single unit, as opposed to two groups (in-class versus remote), coupled with the weekly synchronous

meeting may have contributed to the positive climate scores across all variations as well as to the lack of negative impact found concerning zoom use.

Conclusion

The other within each of the hyflex/blendflex semesters described above was neither exclusively physically present nor consistent in terms of modality from class period to class period. While fellow classmates were always synchronously present, their modality and physicality (in person or over Zoom) could not be predicted from week to week. Nevertheless, students were still able to form connections and build a connected classroom climate across the variable space according to the CCCI scores.

It appears that the multilayered and flexible hyflex learning space still fostered respect for diverse learning styles and cooperation among students, as well as allowing for the group cohesion, collaboration, and communication, promoted by Laforune and Lakhal (2019). If knowledge construction lives at the intersection of our social interactions, as Omodan and Tsotesi (2020) suggest, then the social interaction and social climate within these hyflex / blendflex courses can be considered a hospitable host for learning. Therefore, if learning is indeed actualized, as Bandura's (2001) social cognitive theory and Semin and Smith's (2013) socially situated cognition theory maintain, through our observations of and interactions with others, then the classroom cohesiveness and student connection as revealed in the above hyflex/blendflex spaces may be considered not only hospitable for, but also potentially conducive to, learning.

Although this study did not measure student learning outcomes, it did track student perception of classroom climate across an evolving and multifaceted learning environment finding that a supportive and connected climate can exist within limited hyflex (or blendflex) contexts while also allowing for some degree of student flexibility and student choice. In light of decades of theories and models of student learning, motivation, and persistence, the climate produced by certain hyflex or blendflex models may also be considered facilitative and supportive. Indeed, the impact of others, despite their varying presences, could still be felt within the evolving learning spaces surveyed above.

For disciplines such as foreign language study, language survey courses, or culture studies, where student interaction has been an essential component of the learning environment for decades (Ellis, 1999; Lier, 1998; Shismareva et. al, 2024; Vygotsky, 1986), gaining an understanding of the classroom climate as it is perceived by students within hyflex applications is a valuable insight for those considering the format in the future.

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Appendix

Classroom Climate Inventory

Please indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you by marking: (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) are undecided, (4) disagree, or (5) strongly disagree.

1. I feel a sense of security with my class.
2. I have common ground with my classmates.
3. I have a strong bond with my classmates.
4. The students in my class share stories and experiences with each other.
5. The students in my class are friendly with each other.
6. The students in my class respect one another.
7. I feel included in class discussions in my class.
8. The students in my class are courteous with one another.
9. The students in my class praise one another.
10. The students in my class are concerned about one another.
11. The students in my class smile at one another.
12. The students in my class engage in small talk with one another.
13. The students in my class are non-judgmental with one another.
14. The students in my class laugh with one another.
15. The student in my class are supportive of one another.
16. The students in my class show interest in what one another are saying.
17. The students in my class cooperate with one another.
18. The students in my class feel comfortable with one another.

(Dwyer et al., 2004).

5

Digital Influence on Identity within Multilingual Educational Contexts

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Challenge Statement

Digital technologies offer transformative opportunities for identity formation, linguistic development, and cultural engagement in multilingual education. However, challenges such as the digital divide, linguistic exclusion, and cultural misrepresentation persist, which are limiting factors to equitable access and learner empowerment. The Multilingual Competence Framework is introduced to address these challenges and leverage digital tools for fostering equitable, identity-affirming, and culturally responsive educational practices.

Abstract

This paper explores the literature of foundational and contemporary research on the digital influence on identity within multilingual educational contexts. Framed by theoretical frameworks such as Bourdieu's cultural capital, Norton's investment model, and Yosso's community cultural wealth, this review discusses how digital technologies shape identity and linguistic development. Moreover, the paper presents the Multilingual Competence Framework, which integrates insights from digital literacy, identity formation, and multilingual education to propose a cohesive understanding of these interconnected domains. This paper synthesizes empirical studies and theoretical perspectives to emphasize equal access in digitized spaces and culturally-responsive pedagogies toward learner empowerment.

Keywords: identity negotiation, community cultural wealth, multilingual education, cultural capital, Multilingual Competence Framework (MCF), digital literacy

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Digital Influence on Identity within Multilingual Educational Contexts

In today's increasingly globalized world, the convergence of identity with language learning in multilingual educational contexts has emerged as a fertile area of multidisciplinary research, intersecting education, linguistics, and sociology (Norton & Toohey, 2012; Norton, 2013; Cummins, 2001). Additionally, digital technologies continue to act as transformative forces in multilingual education. On the one hand, they offer significant opportunities for shaping identity; on the other hand, they can complicate linguistics processes and the cultural integration for learners (Warschauer, 2013; Thorne, Black, & Sykes, 2009). Current developments in artificial intelligence (AI), digital storytelling, and algorithm-driven platforms extend language learning into virtual spaces that create new opportunities for exploring identity and multilingual expression (Godwin-Jones, 2022; Ma & Zhang, 2024; Thorne, Black, & Sykes, 2009).

These advancements raise concerns that generative AI and digital globalization may exacerbate inequalities, reinforcing patterns of digital neocolonialism, where dominant languages and cultures marginalize minority voices in online spaces (Williamson, Komljenovic, & Gulson, 2023; Zembylas, 2021). This intersection of technology, language, and identity not only influences language acquisition but also shapes learners' cultural identities, fostering more integrated forms of expression (Norton, 2013; Kramsch, 1998). Digital technologies facilitate the blending of cultural norms and practices, promoting deeper engagement with multiple cultures and enhancing educational experiences (Warschauer, 2013; Thorne, Black, & Sykes, 2009). These shifts necessitate a transformation in educational paradigms, underscoring the importance of cultivating both linguistic competence and intercultural citizenship (Byram, 2008). A secondary aim of this paper is to consolidate literature addressing the intersection of identity, multilingual education, and digital technologies.

Despite the opportunities afforded by digital technologies, the digital divide persists as a significant barrier in multilingual education. Inequitable access to digital tools threatens to widen linguistic and socioeconomic disparities, limiting educational opportunities for marginalized learners (Prinsloo & Lemphane, 2014; Godwin-Jones, 2022). Digital storytelling and virtual exchange programs have emerged as potential solutions, fostering greater engagement, academic development, and cultural connectedness (Quah & Ng, 2021). In modern contexts, multilingual digital literacy is increasingly recognized as vital tool for bridging linguistic and cultural divides, promoting inclusive educational environments, and enabling learners to navigate globalized digital spaces (Godwin-Jones, 2022). The exponential growth of digital media further complicates identity negotiation, often leading to misunderstandings and exclusion, which can hinder learner's sense of belonging (Androutsopoulos, 2013a; Zhao, Grasmuck & Martin, 2008). This paper underscores the importance of understanding these dynamics to foster inclusive educational practices capable of addressing cultural and linguistic divides. Investigating the interplay between multilingual education in an interconnected and digitalized world.

Theoretical Frameworks

This paper first draws on Pierre Bourdieu's (1986) theory of cultural capital, pointing out how linguistic competence is related to social power and identity. Language is a kind of capital that either facilitates access to social opportunities or reinforces marginalization, depending on the learners' proficiency and their proximity to dominant linguistic norms (Bourdieu, 1896). Grounded on this, the model of investment proposed by Darvin and Norton (2015) centers on how learners' identities influence their investment in language learning. Norton argues that an individual's identity is a dynamic construct produced in social interaction and through struggles for capital, power, and belonging. Complementing these perspectives, Tara Yosso's community cultural wealth (CCW) model (2005) underlines the strengths of marginalized communities, pointing out aspirational, linguistic, familial, and other forms of capital that enrich language learning experiences. This framework is valuable in assessing how digital technologies are used to help create equitable learning opportunities, as it illuminates identity as one of the complex social markers intersecting with race, gender, class, and culture in shaping the ways learners view themselves and are viewed by others in educational contexts (Norton, 2013; Bourdieu, 1986; Cummins, 2000; Darvin & Norton, 2015; Garcia & Wei, 2014; De Costa, 2016; Yosso, 2005; Solórzano & Yosso, 2002; Kramsch, 1998).

Norton (2013) underscores that these perceptions significantly share learners' engagement and investment in language learning, influencing their motivation and persistence in multilingual environments. Rather than viewing identity as peripheral, Norton (2013) argues that it is central to language learning decisions, reflecting a learner's pursuit of social mobility and integration into dominant communities. This aligns with Cummins' (2000) perspective that identity negotiation is fundamental in bilingual and multilingual educational contexts. Proficiency in a second language (L2) has conventionally been associated by immigrant students themselves first with upward mobility and increased socioeconomic standing (De Costa, 2016; Norton, 2013). However, in reality, second-language development is intricately mediated by the sense of one's identity within the dominant groups based on their linguistic competencies. A close relationship in the degree of this affiliation determines or even affects the way one invests in or commits to L2 development (Darvin & Noron, 2014; Garcia & Kleifgen, 2018). Learners who experience marginalization may find their language learning trajectory disrupted, while those who feel a sense of belonging are more likely to persist and succeed (Darvin & Norton, 2015; Norton & Toohey, 2011). It was with that in mind that Norton's (2015) 'model of investment', emphasizing that in Second Language Acquisition (SLA), learner identity can hold a very serious role. Investment is not merely a matter of motivation—a wish of the learner to get hold of some sort of linguistic and cultural capital, which could bring them a more prestigious social status (Darvin & Norton 2015; Norton & Toohey 2011; Bourdieu 1986).

It is at this junction that the concept of linguistic capital by Pierre Bourdieu (1986) becomes imperative. According to Bourdieu & Thompson (1991), language is a form of capital that may facilitate access to social opportunities or inhibit it. Where the proficiency of learners in a dominant language will be associated with

increased cultural capital, social power, and mobility, the lack of it may reinforce their marginalization (Bourdieu, 1991; Garcia & Wei, 2014; Garcia & Kleifgen, 2018; Kramsch, 1998; Linville & Vinogradova, 2023). This dynamic aligns with Norton's assertion that language learners are not only acquiring communications skills but are actively seeking to gain capital, negotiation power, and reshape their identities within linguistic communities (Norton, 2013; Darvin & Norton, 2015).

Tara Yosso's (2005) Community Cultural Wealth model complements Bourdieu's theory of cultural capital by emphasizing the often-overlooked strengths of marginalized communities. For multilingual learners these strengths such as linguistic and aspirational capital are critical in navigating digital spaces and leveraging online tools for identity formation and language learning. For instance, digital storytelling platforms allow learners to showcase their cultural narratives, thereby affirming their linguistic and familial capital (Yosso, 2005; Fu, Yang, & Yeh, 2021). This directly reflects Bourdieu's (1986) concept of how learners accumulate capital to increase their social status and agency as well as Garcia & Wei's (2014) exploration of translanguaging as a means of building linguistic capital and Norton's (2013) work on identity and investment in multilingual settings. This shifts the focus from static, individualistic views of motivation to identity as a dynamic construct shaped by social interaction, cultural experience, and access to digital tools (Godwin-Jones, 2022; García & Wei, 2014; Jones & Hafner, 2012). In contemporary settings, digital platforms and online communities expand the spaces where learners negotiate and perform their identities (Ma & Zhang, 2024; Hauck et al., 2020; Peterson, Yamazaki, & Thomas, 2021; Godwin-Jones, 2022; Jones & Hafner, 2012). Learners engage with virtual language apps, participate in online forums, and immerse themselves in multilingual social networks, which facilitate language learning as part of broader identity construction (Darvin & Norton, 2015; Vandergriff, 2016).

A notable example is the use of digital storytelling platforms, where learners create and share personal narratives in multiple languages. Through this process, learners actualize cultural identities while enhancing their languages in more real and meaningful contexts (Ma & Zhang, 2024; Fu, Yang, & Yeh, 2021; Linville & Vinogradova, 2023). On the other hand, virtual exchange initiatives, such as those enabled through the eTwinning or Erasmus+ programs, provide ways for students to work on collaborative projects across cultures that nurture language learning through collaborative experiences and identity (European Commission 2021; Hauck at el. 2020). These digital spaces enable learners to challenge marginalization by sharing their voices globally, often filling gaps left by traditional classroom environments (Linville & Vinogradova, 2023; Norton, 2013). However, barriers to digital literacy and unequal technological access can reinforce exclusion, affecting learners' ability to invest in language acquisition (Godwin-Jones, 2022; Hauck et al., 2020; Vandergriff, 2016; Prinsloo & Lemphane, 2014; Tate & Warschauer, 2017).

Norton emphasizes that classrooms and schools that respect and support diverse identities foster greater learner investment in language learning by cultivating a sense of value and belonging (Norton & Toohey, 2011; Darvin & Norton, 2015). Conversely, environments that disregard learners' identities risk alienating students, ultimately hindering engagement and reducing investment (Norton,

2013; De Costa & Norton, 2017). Norton's empirical work, based on immigrant women in Canada, illustrates how a lack of support exacerbates barriers to language learning (Norton, 2013). For instance, when learners' linguistic and cultural contributions are undervalued or unrecognized, their confidence and willingness to participate diminish (Norton & Toohey, 2011; Darvin & Norton, 2015). This finding is mirrored in digital learning environments, where learners' access to culturally relevant content and opportunities for self-expression directly impacts their investment in language acquisition (Godwin-Jones, 2022; Hauck et al., 2020). For example, in the case of Martina and Eva, two of Norton's (2013) research participants, despite their high motivation and investment, socioeconomic and racial discriminations limit their linguistic acquisition. This challenges the assumption that individual commitment alone is sufficient to account for success in the process of language learning. Norton's findings reaffirm the complexity of individual agency within a broader structural dynamic, reinforcing the notion that success in language learning is mediated by social forces (Norton, 2013; Bourdieu, 1986; Darvin & Norton, 2015).

Digital platforms that celebrate linguistic diversity—such as community-driven language forums, interactive video storytelling apps, and virtual classrooms—replicate the supportive environments that Norton advocates for in traditional educational settings (Linville & Vinogradova, 2023; Ma & Zhang, 2024). By allowing multilingual learners to showcase their cultural backgrounds and languages online, these platforms mitigate the risk of exclusion and promote sustained engagement (Hauck et al., 2020; Fu et al., 2021). Norton's (2013) findings on immigrant women in Canada remain relevant today, as virtual exchange programs and online storytelling projects offer new spaces for marginalized voices to thrive in language learning ecosystems (European Commission, 2022).

A Holistic Approach to Multilingual Education: Multilingual Competence Framework (MCF)

Multilingual Competence Framework (MCF), developed within this paper, extends the aforementioned rationale by postulating a holistic approach to multilingual education. It discusses the interdependent role of linguistic skills, cultural capital, and digital literacy in fostering inclusive and socially mobile learning environments. The conceptual framework interlinks with Pierre Bourdieu's (1986) idea of cultural capital, Bonny Norton's (2013) model of investment and the dynamics of identity in multilingual education, underlining that linguistic capital is part of both social mobility and of the process shaping-and being shaped by-the learners' identities (Bourdieu, 1986; Norton, 2013; Cummins, 2000). Additionally, Tara Yosso's (2005) Community Cultural Wealth model complements Bourdieu's framework by emphasizing the aspirational, familial, and linguistic capital that marginalized communities bring into educational spaces. These forms of capital highlight how learners' identities are dynamically constructed and reinforced, particularly in digital and multilingual environments, offering a richer understanding of how technology can bridge cultural and linguistic divides (Norton, 2013; Yosso, 2005; Godwin-Jones, 2022; Vandergriff, 2016; Ma & Zhang, 2024).

Building on these frameworks, MCF explores how multilingual education moves beyond the acquisition of cognitive skills, reaches deeper into learners' identities and their cultural affiliations, and their positioning in educational and digital spaces. It highlights the intricate nuances of interactions between language learning, identity negotiation, and technological affordances, showing how linguistic capital derived from digital participation and formal education fosters both social mobility and identity formation (Bourdieu, 1986; Yosso, 2005). Throughout multilingual education, language has remained a tool of communication and a means for establishing identity and gaining power and sociocultural integration (Norton, 2013; Cummins, 2000). However, unequal access to digital platforms and the dominance of certain languages may exacerbate inequalities, aligning with patterns of digital neocolonialism (Williamson, Komljenovic, & Gulson, 2023; Zembylas, 2021). MCF addresses these disparities by advocating for equitable learning environments that validate multilingual identities and foster inclusion.

Central to MCF is the theory of cultural capital presented by Bourdieu (1986), in which non-material resources, such as language proficiency and intercultural awareness, increase learners' social mobility yet influence their positionality within social structures (Bourdieu, 1991; García, 2009; Yosso, 2005). Bourdieu's notion on linguistic capital underlines above all the question of power included in language use: competence in dominant language varieties opens prospects, while linguistic marginalization reproduction leads to exclusion (Kramsch, 1998; De Costa, 2016). In the context of multilingual education, linguistic practices do more than reflect cultural capital; they redistribute it, enabling learners to negotiate their identities and assert agency in diverse contexts (Darvin & Norton, 2015; García & Kleifgen, 2018; Cummins, 2001).

MCF also incorporates Norton's (2013) investment model, which reframes language learning as a socially driven process intimately tied to identity and the pursuit of symbolic resources. As Norton posits, learners invest in learning a second language not only for communicative purposes but also as "a means to acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources, which in turn increase the value of their cultural capital" (Darvin & Norton, 2015, p. 37). This process allows learners to reshape their social identities and gain access to cultural and symbolic capital (Norton & Toohey, 2011; Darvin & Norton, 2015; De Costa & Norton, 2017). MCF further extends this to emphasize that these digital platforms, along with virtual environments, develop new opportunities in which learners can acquire and express multilingual competencies to reinforce identity development and improve social positioning (Godwin-Jones, 2022; Ma & Zhang, 2024; Vandergriff, 2016). Digital tools such as storytelling platforms and virtual exchange programs foster learner engagement while creating inclusive spaces where diverse identities are recognized and amplified (Fu, Yang, & Yeh, 2021; Linville & Vinogradova, 2023; Thorne, Black, & Sykes, 2009).

Also included in that layer of MCF is the Community Cultural Wealth framework by Tara Yosso (2005), a critical challenge to deficit views of marginalized learners. MCF extends on the six manifestations or forms (aspirational, navigational, social, linguistic, familial, and resistant), that increase the educational experiences by

empowering navigations of institutional barriers (Solórzano & Yosso, 2002; García & Kleifgen, 2018). By embedding Yosso's CCW into MCF, the framework places emphasis on the kinds of strengths that multilingual learners bring to educational contexts and points out the necessity of recognizing such assets in the interest of developing equitable and culturally responsive practices (Kramsch, 1998).

Digital technology serves as a crucial component of MCF, linking linguistic capital, identity formation, and social engagement (Reinders, 2017; Vandergriff, 2016; Hauck et al., 2020). For instance, Educational Digital Storytelling (EDS) allows learners to create stories that represent their cultural selves and lived experiences. Besides promoting their identities, it enriches their connectedness to a specific cultural context while developing multilingual competence (Meletiadou, 2022; Ma & Zhang, 2024; Fu et al., 2021). These digital tools, in a learning context, may act as identity confirmation promoters and cultural expression, adding to their repertoire of languages as they develop intercultural competence (Thorne, Black, & Sykes, 2009; Vandergriff, 2016; García & Wei, 2014). By integrating and synthesizing Bourdieu's cultural capital, Norton's investment model, and Yosso's community cultural wealth, MCF provides a foundation for transformative multilingual education. This framework affirms learners' identities, amplifies their voices, and equips them with essential resources to thrive in an increasingly diverse and digitized society (Liddicoat & Vinogradova, 2014; Godwin-Jones, 2022; Linville & Vinogradova, 2023; Vandergriff, 2016).

Impact of Digital Technology on Identity in Multilingual Education through the Multilingual Competence Framework

Digital technology has transformed multilingual education, fostering identity negotiations in digital and transnational spaces (Helm, 2025; Godwin-Jones, 2022). Platforms such as social media, online forums, and educational tools enable learners to construct and navigate multiple identities through self-expression and cultural exploration (Linville & Vinogradova, 2024). As Norton (2013) posits, language learning investment is often driven by the desire to access new identities and social networks, a process accelerated by digital environments. Darvin and Norton (2015) further illustrate how migrant learners leverage online tools to connect with communities that validate their evolving identities, fostering a sense of belonging. Digital storytelling and virtual exchanges have emerged as powerful tools for promoting identity expression and linguistic competence. For example, Ribeiro (2015) demonstrated how learners in Brazil used storytelling to merge personal experiences with target language learning. Similarly, Meletiadou (2022) explored how storytelling helped immigrant students process migration experiences while strengthening linguistic and cultural identities. These practices align with Bourdieu's (1986) concept of linguistic capital and Yosso's (2005) Community Cultural Wealth framework, which emphasizes the strengths learners bring to multilingual contexts.

Educational gaming and virtual reality also contribute to identity construction. Research shows that games like massively multiplayer online games (MMOGs) allow learners to experiment with linguistic identities in immersive,

authentic contexts (Peterson, Yamazaki, & Thomas, 2021). Avatars and role-play settings, as explored by Reinhardt (2019), enhance engagement and provide a safe space for language practice and identity exploration. Despite these opportunities, challenges persist. The digital divide continues to marginalize learners from underserved communities, exacerbating educational inequalities (Prinsloo & Lemphane, 2014). Additionally, digital neocolonialism reinforces dominant languages and cultures in online spaces, marginalizing minority language speakers and restricting their participation (Zembylas, 2021). Policies to address these inequalities need to ensure inclusive access to digital resources, while supporting digitally literate practice in culturally responsive ways, so all learners are able to use digital environments meaningfully (Jones & Hafner, 2012; Prinsloo & Lemphane, 2014). MCF presents an expanded model for incorporating digital tools in the area of multilingual education. From this point of view, MCF focuses on the identity-affirming practice that is seminal for developing linguistic and cultural capital with a focus on learners operating within a digitized globalizing world (Norton, 2013; García & Wei, 2014). Accordingly, in ways that might be enabled by strategy imperatives such as project-based learning, gamified language activities, and collaborative digital storytelling, learners would strengthen their identity by cultivating intercultural competence (Thorne, Black, & Sykes, 2009; Robin, 2016; Vandergriff, 2016). However, addressing systemic barriers is critical to ensuring that these tools serve as bridges rather than barriers in fostering inclusive, dynamic multilingual education (Darvin & Norton, 2015; Zembylas, 2021).

Formation of Multilingual Identities Online

Digital spaces provide powerful avenues for multilingual identity formation, aligning closely with the core principles of MCF. Platforms such as YouTube, TikTok, and Instagram enable learners to display their linguistic repertoires, reinforcing their identities as multilingual speakers and accumulating linguistic capital (Androutsopoulos, 2013a; Vandergriff, 2016). This aligns with Bourdieu's (1986) assertion that language functions as a resource for social mobility, positioning learners advantageously within digital and physical networks. Empirical studies highlight how online content creators engage in translanguaging, blending languages to reach broader audiences while constructing hybrid identities (Lee, 2022). This form of linguistic fluidity allows creators to navigate diverse cultural and linguistic spaces, reinforcing their multilingual competence and fostering intercultural connections. For example, creators like XiaomaNYC showcase multilingualism by seamlessly switching between Mandarin, Spanish, and English in their content, exemplifying the practice of translanguaging in digital spaces. This reflects Norton's (2013) concept of investment—where language learning intersects with identity and the pursuit of social capital. XiaomaNYC's digital performances not only enhance his linguistic repertoire but also create opportunities for cross-cultural engagement, highlighting how multilingualism serves as a valuable asset in global online platforms (Xiaomanyc, 2024). This dynamic reinforces the MCF's layer of identity and investment, demonstrating how public performances of language online allow learners to assert agency and expand their cultural and lin-

guistic capital (Darvin & Norton, 2015). Such practices exemplify how digital environments cultivate identity formation and foster language development, positioning multilingual content creators as active agents in shaping their linguistic identities.

Virtual exchange programs further illustrate how digital spaces foster multilingual competence and identity negotiation. Projects like *eTwinning* and *Erasmus+ Virtual Exchanges* encourage transnational collaboration, creating low-risk environments for language experimentation and intercultural engagement (Linville, & Vinogradova, 2024; European Commission, 2021; Ingrisch-Rupp & Symeonidis, 2024). These exchanges embody the MCF's focus on community cultural wealth by leveraging aspirational and navigational capital, as learners engage in cross-border communication to strengthen their multilingual skills (Yosso, 2005). Thorne and Reinhardt (2008) describe such initiatives as *bridging activities* that connect formal education to real-world, digitally mediated interactions, further consolidating identity and linguistic capital. Additionally, studies show that digital storytelling amplifies marginalized voices, fostering identity affirmation and promoting equity—key components of MCF's foundational layer (Fu, Yang, & Yeh, 2021; Linville & Vinogradova, 2023). By narrating personal and cultural stories through multimedia, learners not only enhance their linguistic proficiency but also challenge deficit perspectives, accumulating resistant capital essential for navigating educational spaces (Solórzano & Yosso, 2002).

However, the benefits of digital multilingual engagement are unequally distributed. Prinsloo and Lemphane (2014) emphasize that learners from disadvantaged backgrounds often face technological barriers, limiting their access to virtual platforms and inhibiting the development of digital linguistic capital. This reflects the equity and inclusion foundation of MCF, underscoring the need for educational policies that address the digital divide and promote equal access to digital resources (Zembylas, 2021; Warschauer, 2013). Digital platforms are not only spaces for language learning but arenas for identity negotiation and social capital accumulation, reinforcing the interconnected layers of the Multilingual Competence Framework. As learners engage with global audiences and participate in virtual exchanges, they expand their linguistic competencies and cultivate identities that reflect their dynamic, multilingual realities.

Educational Gaming and the Development of Multilingual Competence within the MCF

Educational gaming is emerging as a significantly powerful tool for enhancing multilingual competence, offering an immersive environment where learners actively engage in language teaching-learning practices while navigating identity formation and cultural interaction (Reinhardt, 2019; Peterson; Gee, 2003; Hung, Yang, Hwang, Chu, & Wang, 2018; Thorne, Black, & Sykes, 2009; Li, Peterson, & Wan, 2022). Gee (2003), in particular emphasizes that video games create *situated learning experiences*, allowing players to adopt roles that require the practical application of linguistic and cultural knowledge. In multilingual contexts, these environments serve as spaces for *identity negotiation*, where learners toggle between languages to solve problems, collaborate with peers, and engage in culturally di-

verse virtual communities (Reinhardt, 2019). Such interactions align with MCF by fostering linguistic capital, intercultural competence, and identity development (Norton, 2013; Bourdieu, 1986; Yosso, 2005). A compelling example is Influent, an educational game that immerses players in a virtual world where objects are labeled in over 20 languages, reinforcing contextual vocabulary acquisition (Three Flip Studios, n.d.). By navigating the game's environment, learners actively engage with the target language, situating their experiences within meaningful, real-world scenarios (Peterson et al., 2021). Research highlights that games like Influent not only expand vocabulary but also cultivate cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1986) by embedding language learning within culturally authentic contexts (Peterson et al., 2021). This immersive approach reflects Norton's (2013) investment model, as learners develop deeper engagement when digital environments validate their identities and offer tangible rewards for language acquisition (Darvin & Norton, 2015; Vandergriff, 2016). Through Influent, learners accumulate linguistic and aspirational capital, central to MCF's focus on expanding multilingual competence through technology-driven experiences (Yosso, 2005).

The U.S. Department of State's *Trace Effects* exemplifies another initiative that merges educational gaming with language acquisition and cross-cultural awareness (U.S. Department of State, n.d.). Designed to enhance English language skills, the game situates players in diverse cultural scenarios, where they must negotiate meaning, engage in dialogue, and solve missions in English (Reinhardt & Thorne, 2019). This process reflects *intercultural competence* (Byram, 2008), reinforcing Yosso's (2005) *navigational capital* as learners develop skills to traverse diverse linguistic and social landscapes. *Trace Effects* also underscores the identity and investment layer of MCF, illustrating how digital environments empower learners to construct multilingual identities through interactive, goal-driven tasks (Norton & Toohey, 2011).

In collaborative projects, students from diverse linguistic backgrounds build virtual worlds while engaging in problem-solving that necessitates code-switching and translingual dialogue (Peterson et al., 2021; Lam, 2000). Such environments affirm learners' linguistic identities, fostering *resistant capital* (Yosso, 2005) by creating inclusive spaces where non-dominant languages are celebrated. This aspect of educational gaming reflects the community cultural wealth layer of MCF, reinforcing how digital collaboration validates learners' home languages and strengthens their agency within educational contexts (Linville & Vinogradova, 2023; García & Wei, 2014). Beyond linguistic competence, educational games contribute to the development of *symbolic capital*, enhancing learners' social standing and confidence within both virtual and real-world communities (Bourdieu, 1991; Darvin & Norton, 2015). By engaging in role-play, narrative creation, and world-building, students accumulate digital literacies that extend their cultural and linguistic capital, reinforcing Bourdieu's (1986) assertion that knowledge, language, and cultural fluency serve as resources for social mobility (Kramsch, 1998; García & Kleifgen, 2018). However, the benefits of educational gaming are not evenly distributed. According to Zembylas (2021), the inequities in technological infrastructure and digital literacy risk exacerbating inequalities and excluding the participation of the most marginalized learners from these transformative environments (Prinsloo &

Lemphane, 2014; Warschauer, 2013). This concept aligns with Bourdieu's (1986) notion of symbolic violence, which explains how dominant cultural norms perpetuate social hierarchies, often legitimized through educational systems.

Such barriers highlight the foundational layer of equity and inclusion within MCF, underscoring the need for systemic interventions to address the digital divide (Godwin-Jones, 2022). By prioritizing equitable access to digital tools and integrating game-based learning into public education, policymakers and institutions can foster inclusive environments that empower multilingual learners across socio-economic backgrounds (European Commission, 2021; Helm, 2025). Educational gaming thus serves as a dynamic intersection of language, identity, and cultural capital, reinforcing the principles of MCF. As digital environments continue to evolve, they offer unprecedented opportunities for learners to navigate multilingual worlds, accumulate linguistic and cultural capital, and assert their identities within increasingly interconnected educational landscapes (García & Wei, 2014; Ma & Zhang, 2024).

Challenges of Digital Identity Management within MCF

While digital technologies offer rich opportunities for identity exploration and language learning, they also introduce complexities in managing multilingual digital identities. Learners navigating multiple languages and cultures online often encounter conflicting linguistic norms and cultural expectations, creating tension in how they present themselves across digital platforms (Androutsopoulos, 2013a; M. Campbell, 2023). This reflects the identity and investment layer of MCF, as learners must negotiate between dominant online linguistic norms and their heritage languages. Bourdieu's (1991) concept of *linguistic capital* highlights how dominant languages are often privileged in digital spaces, positioning speakers of minority languages at a disadvantage. This reinforces *symbolic power*, where dominant linguistic practices shape online interactions, marginalizing non-dominant linguistic identities. Zhao, Grasmuck, and Martin (2008) observe that multilingual users frequently curate their online personas to align with dominant cultural norms, resulting in fragmented digital identities—one persona for dominant language interactions and another for heritage language communities. Such fragmentation underscores the equity and inclusion foundation of the MCF, reflecting how unequal access to linguistic capital perpetuates disparities in digital identity construction. This phenomenon, often resembling forms of *digital identity dissonance or context collapse*, constrains learners' capacity to adapt and express fluid identities over time (Zhao, Grasmuck, & Martin, 2008; Marwick & boyd, 2011). For example, a bilingual learner may engage in heritage language content creation during adolescence but shift to dominant language use as they integrate into new linguistic communities. Despite this shift, earlier online artifacts remain accessible, creating tension in evolving identity narratives. Such challenges highlight the cultural capital layer of MCF, reinforcing the importance of empowering learners to navigate digital platforms in ways that reflect their evolving identities (Darvin & Norton, 2015; Bourdieu, 1986; Norton, 2013). Educators have an important role in guiding the learner to manage their digital identity. Godwin-Jones (2018) states

that the integration of education on digital citizenship into the curriculum can give the learner good skills to act ethically and strategically in the digital context.

This includes fostering critical digital literacy, enabling students to control their digital presence, manage privacy settings, and develop multilingual content that authentically reflects their identities. Such interventions align with the CCW layer of MCF by fostering navigational and resistant capital (Yosso, 2005). A practical example of such intervention is the implementation of multilingual digital storytelling projects. Robin (2016) found that students who engaged in these projects not only enhanced their language skills but also constructed hybrid identities, blending cultural and linguistic elements in ways that affirmed their multifaceted selves. Through the curation of digital artifacts celebrating bilingualism, learners accumulate *linguistic capital* while reinforcing their identities, directly reflecting the linguistic and aspirational capital elements within MCF (Linville & Vinogradova, 2023). Virtual exchange programs offer additional solutions to address identity fragmentation and enhance intercultural competence. Hauck, Rienties, and Rogaten (2020) highlight collaborative virtual projects where students across linguistic backgrounds co-develop presentations on global issues, requiring negotiation of linguistic and cultural differences. These programs foster the navigational and social capital essential to the MCF by encouraging students to engage in identity negotiation within supportive, cross-cultural environments. The inclusion of virtual exchanges into language curricula bridges the gap between formal language learning and real-world intercultural interaction, contributing to both investments in identity and linguistic competence.

Gamification also emerges as an effective tool in supporting multilingual digital identity management. Educational games like Influent and Trace Effects immerse learners in virtual environments where multilingual interactions are essential for problem-solving and collaboration (Lawrence, 2017; Peterson et al., 2021). While these experiences foster linguistic and cultural capital. Similarly, Kuhn (2021) explored how projects like The Indigenous Language Technology (ILT) project in Canada demonstrate the potential of technology in sustaining and revitalizing minority languages, highlighting how leveraging technology can catalyze preservation of linguistic diversity. This dynamic underscores the need for educators to foster inclusive spaces where multilingual identities are validated, reinforcing the resistant capital component of MCF. However, barriers to digital literacy and unequal technological access persist as significant challenges. Arroyo and Gayoso (2015) highlight that learners from marginalized backgrounds often face limited access to the technological infrastructure necessary for robust digital engagement. This digital divide perpetuates inequalities, hindering the ability of minority language speakers to fully participate in online spaces, thereby reinforcing social stratification (Bourdieu, 1986; Warschauer, 2013). These disparities align with the equity and inclusion foundation of the MCF, emphasizing the need for policies that prioritize technological access in underserved communities (Zembylas, 2021).

To mitigate these challenges, educational institutions must adopt inclusive technology policies that ensure equitable access to digital tools and resources. Initiatives such as the *EU Digital Education Action Plan* (European Commission,

2022) exemplify efforts to bridge technological gaps by investing in multilingual digital platforms and community-driven digital literacy programs. These initiatives reflect the cultural capital and identity negotiation layers of MCF by fostering digital spaces where all linguistic identities are recognized and valued. As multilingual learners navigate various digital platforms, from social media to virtual classrooms, they actively shape and redefine their linguistic and cultural identities. This ongoing process enhances their *socio-linguistic capital*, reinforcing their ability to tap into diverse cultural networks and linguistic resources (Darvin & Norton, 2015). Digital literacy, therefore, is not merely about technical skills but an enabler of multilingual identity formation, closely tied to the principles of the Multilingual Competence Framework. By embedding critical digital engagement into educational strategies, institutions can empower learners to manage their evolving digital identities while strengthening their multilingual competencies in today's globalized world.

Future Directions for Research on Identity in Multilingual Education

Future research on identity and multilingual education should be informed by an inquiry into the shifting dynamics among digital literacy, cultural capital, and language learning. Considering the rapid globalization in today's era and the fast-growing incorporation of digital platforms in educational contexts, it is essential to probe how learners exploit technology in acquiring, negotiating, and enacting their multilingual identities (Norton & Toohey, 2011; Darvin & Norton, 2015). Longitudinal and comparative studies can indeed be informing on how processes of identity negotiation are played out longitudinally and in diverse educational settings. This addresses the gaps that are urgently needed in uncovering how digital literacy enhances or impedes language learning (De Costa & Norton, 2017; Wesely, 2013).

One key area of exploration for the future is how digital literacy meets cultural capital in multilingual education. While prior research has engaged the role of cultural capital in language acquisition, further investigation is needed into how learners' engagement with social media, digital storytelling, and virtual classrooms translates into linguistic competence and identity affirmation (Bourdieu, 1991; Yosso, 2005; Godwin-Jones, 2022; Vandergriff, 2016). In this context, digital literacy involves more than technical skills and includes navigational capital (Yosso, 2005) that enables learners to navigate both digital and linguistic spaces in their multilingual development.

MCF provides a valuable lens for guiding future research by linking language acquisition, digital engagement, and identity construction. MCF posits that learners' success depends on their ability to navigate both linguistic and digital environments while drawing on cultural capital as a resource for social mobility (Cummins, 2000; García & Wei, 2014). Future studies could investigate how MCF-aligned pedagogies empower students to utilize digital platforms for language learning, fostering the co-construction of linguistic and cultural identities (Ma & Zhang, 2024). This research focus would help illuminate how digital tools reinforce identity-driven language investment (Norton, 2013). Comparative research

across different educational contexts is crucial to understanding disparities in access to digital tools and how these differences impact cultural capital accumulation (Prinsloo & Lemphane, 2014; Zembylas, 2021). For instance, examining how students from varying socio-economic backgrounds engage with virtual exchange programs and collaborative digital storytelling could reveal how identity negotiation differs across global contexts (Hauck, Rienties, & Rogaten, 2020). Cross-national studies could uncover how technological inequities hinder or promote identity affirmation and multilingual competence, thereby informing policies aimed at digital inclusion. Teacher-led interventions that integrate digital tools with identity-affirming pedagogies represent another promising area for research. Moreover, digital literacy provides grounds not only for language learning itself but also for professional growth and sharing among the teachers. According to Wesely (2013), language instructors develop a professional learning community via Twitter that resulted in a joint enterprise and identification through a virtual area of practice. In technology-enhanced learning environments, the support for confident expression by multilingual learners regarding their linguistic identities becomes prominent as technology also ensures more inclusive and participative roles. Future research could explore how teacher training programs incorporate MCF principles to design culturally responsive digital curricula that reflect learners' diverse linguistic backgrounds (Cummins, 2000; García & Kleifgen, 2020). Investigating how multilingual digital storytelling, gamification, and virtual classrooms shape learners' evolving identities would provide deeper insights into effective, identity-centered teaching methodologies.

Additionally, sociolinguistic factors such as race, gender, and socio-economic status must be considered in future research to understand how these elements interact with language learning and identity formation (Darvin & Norton, 2015; Yosso, 2005). As Steffensen and Kramsch (2017) propose, adopting an ecological perspective—where individual identity formation is viewed as a negotiation between various sociocultural systems—can shed light on the complexities of multilingual identity construction. This perspective aligns with MCF's dynamic view of identity, emphasizing how learners' identities evolve through continuous engagement with social, cultural, and technological environments. Moreover, interdisciplinary approaches that integrate ecological systems theory and globalization studies into language education are essential. Work on language socialization advocates for research that explores how language policies, digital tools, and pedagogical practices influence the development of multilingual identities. Such inquiries could illuminate how digital technologies shape learners' abilities to navigate power structures and assert agency in online and offline educational contexts.

By anchoring future research in the MCF, scholars can address pressing questions related to digital inclusion, identity negotiation, and the expansion of cultural capital. This research agenda aligns with broader efforts to promote equitable, identity-affirming educational environments that reflect the realities of our increasingly interconnected and digitized world (Bourdieu, 1991; Norton, 2013; De Costa, 2022). Ultimately, advancing research on identity in multilingual education will not only contribute to theoretical development but also foster practical

innovations that support learners in developing the digital, linguistic, and cultural competencies essential for thriving in globalized educational landscapes.

Conclusion

Digital technology has transformed how multilingual learners negotiate and express their identities, offering dynamic opportunities for linguistic and cultural exploration (Lam, 2000; Vandergriff, 2016). Online platforms, including digital storytelling and virtual exchanges, provide learners with spaces to experiment with language and cultural expression, fostering hybrid multilingual identities free from the constraints of traditional classrooms (Thorne & Reinhardt, 2008; Androutsopoulos, 2013b). However, these developments present challenges, including conflicting linguistic norms, cultural expectations, and inequalities in access to digital resources. Schools must seize this opportunity to reimagine curricula, incorporating digital citizenship education to equip learners with the ethical and practical skills needed for responsible and effective digital engagement (Zhao, Grasmuck, & Martin, 2008; Hobbs, 2011).

MCF offers a comprehensive approach to integrating digital tools into multilingual education. By emphasizing identity-affirming practices and fostering linguistic and cultural capital, MCF prepares learners to thrive in an interconnected, technology-driven world (Norton, 2013; García & Wei, 2014). Project-based learning, gamified language activities, and collaborative storytelling provide authentic opportunities for learners to develop intercultural competence while affirming their identities (Thorne, Black, & Sykes, 2009; Robin, 2016).

Despite the immense potential of digital tools, disparities in access to technology exacerbate educational inequities. Policymakers and educators must prioritize equitable digital initiatives to ensure all learners can cultivate and express their linguistic identities (Zembylas, 2021; García & Kleifgen, 2020). As multilingual education evolves alongside digital advancements, the MCF remains a vital framework for fostering inclusive, dynamic, and responsive educational systems. By embracing identity-affirming pedagogies and equitable digital strategies, educators can empower learners to acquire new languages, affirm their cultural identities, and engage confidently in diverse global communities (Darvin & Norton, 2015; García & Kleyn, 2016).

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6

Translation-Based Productive Cued Vocabulary Recall in the Intermediate Spanish Classroom

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Challenge Statement

Are there benefits to translation-based approaches to teaching vocabulary in the intermediate modern language classroom? When performed as a recall exercise at the beginning of class, are students more capable of retaining new vocabulary? Two intermediate Spanish instructors who relied heavily on the communicative method of teaching explore this relationship.

Abstract

Within the field of Second Language Acquisition and foreign language instruction, research demonstrates a renewed interest in Translation in Language Teaching (TILT) as part of a multifaceted methodological approach. Vocabulary learning lends itself to translation-based approaches that allow learners to acquire and expand their knowledge of vocabulary in the target language. Retrieval activities in the classroom, or recall, allow students to activate knowledge, which has short and long-term benefits to retention of information (Lang, 2016). Productive cued recall (De Groot et al., 2010) targets a set list of vocabulary that students are provided in advance. In this study, translation-based productive cued recall was performed in the intermediate Spanish classroom at the beginning of class during specified units. For all other units, productive cued recall was performed without the use of translation. Success was measured by the average accuracy rate on the vocabulary section of unit-ending assessments from unit to unit. The term-ending examination, or final exam, was also measured to determine if there was any long-term benefit to these exercises. This study also separately measured their success with cognate and non-cognate words on each assessment to determine if translation-based productive cued recall would yield different results for these categories

of words. Nine sections of Intensive Intermediate Spanish (LS371) during a Fall semester were utilized for this study, which comprised of 151 students (cadets) at the United States Military Academy.

Keywords: TILT, translation, productive cued recall, retention, vocabulary

Authors' Note

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Acquiring vocabulary is an essential component of learning a new language as it allows learners to express a variety of concepts and ideas that work in conjunction with grammatical principles. Recent trends in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research privilege grammar as a point of study, while vocabulary has received significantly less attention (De Groot, 2010). Since the late nineteenth century, most instructors and researchers demonstrate preference for the communicative or immersive approach to language teaching, discarding an earlier preference for translation-based methods (Di Sabato et al., 2017; Kelly, 2015; De Groot, 2010; Hummel, 2010; Baer et al., 2003). This methodology, known as the Translation in Language Teaching, or TILT, approach utilizes the student's first language (L1) to teach the foreign, or second language (L2).

However, as instructors of an intermediate Spanish course that relied heavily on the communicative method of teaching, the authors of this article had observed a decrease in performance on vocabulary-related assessments during previous semesters. We hypothesized that incorporating TILT methodology in the intermediate Spanish classroom during the following Fall semester would produce increased acquisition and retention of vocabulary, as reflected by performance on unit-ending assessments. As such, we created a pilot study to preliminarily test this hypothesis, incorporating translation-based activities that would serve as a warm-up at the beginning of class. In these activities, we used a variety of vocabulary words from the specified unit. Activities were uniform across all sections and instructors of intermediate Spanish. We primarily used direct meaning words, those with a direct translation between English and Spanish, that do not convey abstract concepts that do not exist in one of the languages;[1] however, success would be determined by an overall increase in student performance on the vocabulary portion of unit-ending exams.

Motivations/Background

This study was a product of the Master Teacher Program at the United States Military Academy at West Point, which is a professional development course for

junior and senior instructors at the academy that culminates in a final classroom research project. The Master Teacher Program utilized James Lang's Small Teaching: Everyday Lessons from the Science of Learning (2016) as a primary text. Throughout the text, Lang describes best teaching practices that are applicable across a wide variety of disciplines; many of Lang's classroom examples, nonetheless, come from his experience as a student learning a second language. Drawing from this, and with the goal of measuring vocabulary learning and retention, we chose to incorporate two of Lang's stated principles of "small teaching" related to information retention: retrieval and interleaving. Retrieval describes the act of eliciting information from students (p. 16), forcing them to retrieve and reproduce learned material, whereas interleaving refers to combining multiple concepts together, such as new grammar and vocabulary, and "spacing out learning sessions over time" (p. 53). While enrolled in the Master Teacher Program and after recognizing a decline in vocabulary learning as evidenced by poor performance on culminating assessments in LS371, Intensive Intermediate Spanish, the authors of this study began to research best practices for teaching vocabulary in a foreign language and ways to incorporate these with retrieval and interleaving activities in the classroom for the following academic year as a pilot study. As part of our methodology, we utilized retrieval and interleaving for translation-based vocabulary activities at the beginning of class. These activities relied on "productive cued recall" (De Groot et al., 2010), which refers to students producing vocabulary words from a set list (i.e., a vocabulary list that accompanies each unit) for both meaning and form. The vocabulary came from the unit-ending lists that appear in the course textbook, *Ambientes*, 1st Edition from McGraw-Hill Publishing.

Literature Review

In an immersive foreign language classroom in which the communicative method is preferred, each session presents an opportunity for retrieval and interleaving, as we actively communicate with our students in the L2 for the entire class period, which requires them to simultaneously recall vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. Statistically speaking, cognate words are more easily retained and quickly recalled due to their shared spelling and meaning between the L1 and L2, especially when utilized in context (Otwinowska et al., 2019; Rogers, 2015; Willis et al., 2012). Non-cognate words, both in and out of context, present new challenges for L2 learners as they cannot rely on their knowledge of the L1 to retrieve them. Vocabulary in the L2 can also be categorized into concrete, or direct meaning, and abstract words. Concrete words represent those in which the learner already understands their definition or meaning in the L1, whereas abstract words are those for which there are conceptual differences between the L1 and the L2 (Torres-Zúñiga et al., 2017). An example of a concrete word between English and Spanish would be *automóvil* [automobile], where the meaning is a 1:1 translation between the two words. An example of an abstract word could be *educado* [educated], in which the English word refers specifically to one's formal educational background, while the Spanish can refer to someone's manners or behavior, regardless of their formal educational level. Each of these examples are

cognates, but direct-meaning words can also be non-cognates, such as *casa* [house]. Abstract words present a new level of challenge for L2 learners as they must not only negotiate word form and meaning, but also a new concept that corresponds with the word that may not reflect its equivalent in the L1. Although we assessed overall vocabulary retention, we also measured rate of success on cognate and non-cognate words presented in each chapter to determine if there was a change in performance regarding these types of words as well.

In terms of assessment, both form and meaning are possible routes for determining vocabulary learning and retention. Form refers to the spelling of the word and other visual characteristics that it may have, such as accent marks, while meaning refers to the definition of the word (Torres-Zúñiga et al., 2017). These can be assessed separately or congruently, just as they can be activated separately or together in retrieval or interleaving practice activities. Previous studies demonstrate that recall activities must be tailored to the assessment on which they will be measured to observe an increase in performance (Torres-Zúñiga et al., 2017). The unit-ending assessments include multiple choice and fill-in-the-blank questions where students were required to both recognize and reproduce form and meaning.

As language instructors who relied solely on the communicative method for instruction in the L2, our study represents a departure from this methodology in that we incorporated TILT during the retrieval and interleaving warm-up activities. As translation-based teaching methods have decreased overall in the field of SLA, we also hoped to demonstrate that, in cases such as learning new vocabulary, they may still yield positive results. According to Gonzalez Davies (2004), translation-based practice is found to foster the same intrinsic skills as the communicative approach (as cited in Kelly et al., 2015). Anecdotally, we have found that communicative approaches work well for highly motivated students; however, the population of students in our classroom have varying levels of motivation as two semesters of modern language study is a graduation requirement at our institution and, in Spanish, students frequently complete this requirement at the intermediate level after completing a placement test.

The Study

This study took place in LS371, or Intensive Intermediate Spanish, which is taught every fall semester at the United States Military Academy. During this study, there were 151 students enrolled in LS371, who formed our participant pool for this study. There were nine sections of LS371 with five different instructors. The authors of this study served as both instructors and course directors, developing lesson plans, materials, and assessments for the other three instructors. The students in LS371 had varying degrees of experience in Spanish and had placed into the course after taking an electronic placement exam administered a year prior. Students elected Spanish as one of their preferred options for modern language study during language selection events in the previous academic year, where they rank the top three languages that they wish to study, choosing from the eight language offerings at the academy (Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Persian, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish). The study population consisted of 18- to 23-year-

old students from various backgrounds and with diverse language experiences. Most of the participants were in their second year at the academy, meaning that most had a one-year gap since formal Spanish language instruction at a secondary institution. However, some participants were in their first year at the academy (<10), while some were slightly older, having served three to four years as an enlisted member of the U.S. Army (<5). It is possible that some students identified as heritage speakers, although West Point does not currently offer a heritage speaker track, meaning that these students would have taken the same placement test and placed into the intermediate level.

This study was conducted in accordance with ethical guidelines for research involving human subjects. To avoid withholding instruction and providing any disadvantages to any of the participants, a control group was not used in this study. Nevertheless, to measure changes in acquisition and retention, we chose to isolate units 2 and 4 in our lesson calendar, which consisted of 6 units total, for performing the translation-based productive cued recall vocabulary activities. This allowed other units, in which these activities were not performed, to serve as a control, in which productive cued recall was performed without translation-based methodologies. We chose to measure and compare units 1 with 2 and 4 with 5 because these are the only units that had similar unit-ending assessments that were not cumulative; units 3 and 6 ended with a larger, cumulative mid-term and final exam, respectively. We used data for students who were tested under normal conditions and, therefore, we did not include data for students who were tested under irregular circumstances, such as make-up exams that are scheduled at a different time and in a different location than the regular classroom. Due to this condition, the number of students measured for each exam can fluctuate slightly. All participants' identities were kept confidential throughout the study.

Methodology

The study employed a quasi-experimental design with two conditions: participant overall results on the vocabulary section of Units 2 and 4 assessments versus their results in the control Units, 1 and 5. We also measured their overall success on the cumulative final exam to see if there is a correlation regarding long-term vocabulary retention. The vocabulary section of each assessment contained a random selection of vocabulary words from the unit that included cognates and non-cognates. After measuring the overall success rate, we also isolated the data for their accuracy on cognate and non-cognate words to determine if translation-based productive cued recall retrieval and interleaving activities could result in better retention and acquisition of these types of words in the short-term. The unit-ending assessments that we measured are called Written Partial Reviews (WPRs), the term utilized for exams at the United States Military Academy. We also measured results from the cumulative Term End Examination (TEE), or final exam, to determine if there were any benefits regarding long-term retention of new vocabulary.

Two main types of activities were conducted as part of this study in Units 2 and 4. All activities incorporated translation as a guiding method, where students

would translate from the L1 (English) to the L2 (Spanish). Retrieval activities in Units 2 and 4 took place at the beginning of a regular class day and served as a warm-up exercise, lasting no more than five minutes. Although varying slightly, each activity presented the cued vocabulary words in the L1, interleaving grammar and other elements of speech learned in that unit and asked students to write complete sentences in the L2. Figure 1 and 2 below show the activities as they were presented in class, followed by a description.

Figure 1

Sample Activity for Unit 2

sustantivos	verbos	modificadores
1. (the) regret	*to have*	*a lot / many* (Futuro simple)
2. (the) partner	*to live with*	*never again* (Futuro simple)
3. (the) betrothed	*to get married*	*today* (Presente progresivo)
4. (the) goals	*to complete*	*this semester* (Present progresivo)

¡A traducir!

The mother / to speak / slowly
La madre / hablar / despacio

¡Escribe una oración compleja con detalles de la película!

La madre de Savanna **está hablando despacio** con el abogado.

In this type of activity, students were given a set of nouns, verbs, and modifiers that appeared in the L1. All words presented come from the specified unit. Both cognate and non-cognate words were included in each activity in this unit. In this activity, the cognate words were *la pareja* [partner], *completar* [to complete], and *el semestre* [semester]. The non-cognate words were *remordimiento* [regret], *jamás* [never again], *el comprometido* [betrothed], and *metas* [goals]. No words were bolded or emphasized in the activity, as reflected in the image above. Each of the words in the model activity above are concrete words; however, there were also abstract words throughout the unit. Students were asked to write complete sentences on the board in the verbal tense indicated on the slide in parenthesis in Spanish, including *futuro simple* [simple future] and the *presente progresivo* [present progressive]. These grammar cues reflected the grammar being taught in this lesson. This sample activity reflects the retrieval activities that were performed at the beginning of class during Unit 2. Students were not permitted time to prepare, use of notes, nor their textbooks while completing translation-based productive cued recall activities in Unit 2.

For this type of activity, students were given complete sentences in the L1 and asked to translate to the L2. Different from the activities in Unit 2, we chose to bold the non-cognate words in each activity. The non-cognate words were bolded throughout Unit 4 to determine if this would impact their vocabulary retention on the assessments. The non-cognates in the above sample activity are *engendrar* [to beget], *quejarse* [to complain], *rogar* [to beg], and *la posta*[2] [the clinic]. The only

Figure 2
Sample Activity for Unit 4

1. *Violence* ***begets*** *violence.*
2. *Leoncio* ***has complained*** *about his job.*
3. *Maribel* ***begged*** *to go to* ***the clinic*** *with you.*
4. *Between you and me, Mr. Chamba* ***undervalues*** *me.*

Utiliza el vocabulario de páginas 233 y 290.

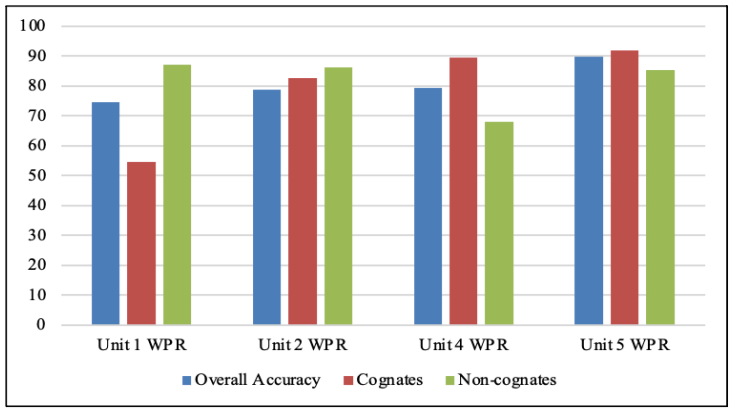
Modelo:
The laborer blames the economy for his salary.
Traducir al español
El obrero culpa la economía por su sueldo.

cognate is la violencia [violence]. Like the activities in Unit 2, we chose to control for grammar and emphasize verbal tenses learned in Unit 4, to include the pastand past-perfect tenses. In this unit, students were permitted to briefly utilize the vocabulary list at the end of the chapter while completing these activities; however, the duration of the activity was still only five minutes at the beginning of class, and they were required to write their sentences on the chalkboards, which limited the amount of time for which they could look through their textbooks.

Findings/Data Analysis

Overall, as demonstrated in Figure 3 below, the average score on the vocabulary section of the WPR for Unit 2 (translation-based productive cued recall) was higher than Unit 1 (productive cued recall only). However, the inverse occurred for Units 4 and 5.

Figure 3
Accuracy Rate on Vocabulary Section of Unit Assessments



Data indicates that there was a steady increase in overall performance on the vocabulary section of each assessment from Unit 1 (74.71%) to Unit 5 (89.88%), which suggests that productive cued recall generally benefitted students in the long-term. Between Unit 1 and 2, the average score increased by four percentage points, from 74.71% to 78.84%. Unit 2 utilized translation-based productive cued recall, while Unit 1 only utilized productive cued recall. Between Unit 4 and 5, there was a ten percentage point increase, from 79.33% to 89.88%; however, Unit 4 utilized translation-based productive cued recall, while Unit 5 did not utilize translation. Across the four assessments, students performed steadily on non-cognates, averaging 82%, with the Unit 4 WPR as an outlier at 68%. Their overall average on cognates was 79.7%, with the Unit 1 WPR serving as an outlier at 54.5%.

In general, the overall accuracy rate for each WPR shows that students benefitted throughout the semester from productive cued recall activities that focused on vocabulary. It also shows that there was a significant improvement on their accuracy rate for cognates. Based on the comparative analysis between Units 1, 2, 4, and 5, the significant increase in performance also suggests that the style of translation-based activities performed in Unit 2 were most beneficial, especially regarding cognates. The type of activity in which students were provided with sentence elements in the L1 and required to execute the extra step of putting those words into a complete sentence seems most beneficial, as opposed to the style of activity in Unit 4 that provided them with the complete sentences in the L1 to translate.

The Unit 4 WPR is an outlier when compared to the Unit 5 WPR and the expected overall results. Some reasons for this could be the smaller number of students who took the Unit 4 WPR under normal conditions (140) as compared to the other WPRs, which averaged 150. Additionally, many of the vocabulary words that appeared on the Unit 4 WPR, cognates and non-cognates, were low-frequency words, meaning that they are not used as commonly in the language. Some examples are *rogar* [to beg], *engendrar* [to beget], and *antepasado* [ancestor]. The authors of this study did not control for which words would appear on each WPR, as all instructors participate in the creation of assessments, but it is possible that a future study of this type would benefit from this type of control.

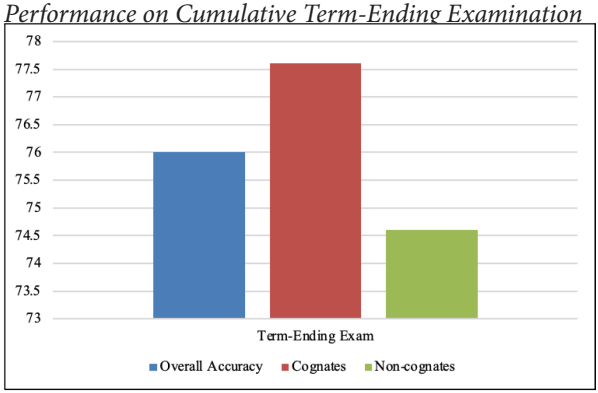
The Unit 5 WPR also stands out as an outlier in terms of the high success rate. A possible explanation for this is the high number of cognates in the chapter in addition to the topics discussed. The topics included human rights and the workplace, which was potentially more motivating for all students. What is more, Unit 5 contained several words, both abstract and concrete, with which students may have already been familiar, such as the terms for la maquiladora [textile factory] and el *orgullo* [pride], which appeared on the Unit 5 WPR. This was not the case for Units 1 and 2, which introduced mostly new vocabulary and concepts that students do not traditionally see in elementary or novice-level Spanish, such as terminology related to complex family structures, aging, and marriage. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that, while Units 1 and 2 presented equal amounts of truly new vocabulary, Units 4 and 5 did not.

We also measured results on the vocabulary section of the final exam, or TEE, which appear in Figure 4 below. This assessment was taken by all 151 students en-

rolled in Intensive Intermediate Spanish at the same time and under normal testing conditions. This test is significantly longer both in terms of duration of time and number of questions, assessing their knowledge and retention of information from six total chapters. The vocabulary section consisted of twenty questions, twice the amount for the Unit-ending WPRs. There is no Unit 6 WPR and, thus, Unit 6 vocabulary appears in conjunction with vocabulary from Units 1-5 on the TEE.

Figure 4

Performance on Cumulative Term-Ending Examination



As depicted in the graphic above, their overall accuracy rate on the vocabulary section was 76%. They averaged 74.6% on non-cognates and 77.6% on the cognates for this assessment. Performance on the TEE was, on average, lower than that of individual unit WPRs throughout the semester, and this could be due to several reasons. Historically, the overall average on the TEE is lower than unit-ending assessments, which, not unique to modern language courses, can be due to exam fatigue during the week of final exams at the academy, the length of the exam, among other external factors. To determine if the TILT-based productive cued recall had any long-term effects on retention, especially of cognate and non-cognate words, we isolated the results for individual words on the TEE. Overall, students performed best on cognates as compared to non-cognates. However, for words that had appeared explicitly in the in-class activities in Units 2 and 4, such as those sampled previously in this paper, we found that students performed better on those words than others in this section of the assessment, including cognates and non-cognates. For example, students identified the non-cognate words las metas [goals] at an average of 91.3% and *convivir* [to live with] at an average of 96%, nearly twenty points higher than the overall average performance on non-cognates. This suggests that the incorporation of TILT-based productive cued recall in retrieval and interleaving activities at the beginning of class did result in long-term retention of vocabulary words, especially non-cognates.

Limitations

In addition to factors such as varying participant motivation and duration of enrollment in a world language (two semesters), another potential limitation of

this pilot study is the small sample size at 151 participants. Future studies with larger sample sizes could help provide more definitive conclusions on the effectiveness of TILT-based vocabulary activities in the intermediate Spanish classroom. Related to participant motivation, another factor to consider is the instructional materials utilized in the course and the content found in each unit. While some topics may have been of interest to students, thus increasing their motivation, other units may have been less motivating. Additionally, it is possible that instructor bias and over emphasis may have played a role in our results. While we attempted to control for this by having multiple instructors conduct the activities, it is difficult to eliminate this potential source of bias, which motivated our measurement of statistical difference utilizing the p-values. Overall, our results suggest that the translation-based activities performed in Unit 2 were more effective than those performed in Unit 4 in aiding vocabulary retention both in the short and long term.

Conclusions

In intermediate Spanish courses, the incorporation of translation or TILT-based productive cued recall through retrieval and interleaving activities for vocabulary learning at the beginning of the class hour may be beneficial for acquisition and retention of new words in the L2. However, the structure of these activities is important in that our results show that students retained more new vocabulary when the activity challenged them to recall new words without use of notes and required them to construct creative sentences rather than performing a 1:1 translation with the use of notes. Our data also reveals the importance of student motivation both in terms of the language itself and the material found in each unit. When units featured vocabulary and concepts that were motivating for students, as was the case in Unit 5, they performed well on assessments and retained significant amounts of new vocabulary without the use of translation-based pedagogy. In addition, we found that the number of cognate and non-cognate words that appear in each unit's vocabulary list can also be a factor, as was the case for Unit 5, which featured several cognates in addition to topics that motivated students. However, when units are uniform in their ratio of cognates to non-cognates and feature material that is perhaps less motivating or of equal significance, as was the case with Units 1 and 2, we found that students retained more new vocabulary with the addition of TILT-based retrieval activities.

Although the communicative method of teaching provides significant benefit for the acquisition of language overall, our findings show that the incorporation of TILT-based pedagogy can work in conjunction with the communicative method to increase SLA. Our study serves as an initial approach to returning to a discussion about translation-based methodology in the intermediate Spanish language classroom and the potential benefit of incorporation varying language teaching pedagogies.

Notes

1. An example of a word that is not direct meaning would be the word *la sobremesa* [the act of after-dinner conversation] in Spanish, for which there is no direct, single-word English equivalent.

2. Although the standard word for clinic in Spanish is *la clínica*, this chapter introduced Peruvian culture and customs, including language. *La posta* is understood in parts of Peru to mean *clinic*.

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7

Impact of Training on Teachers' Perception and Application of Technology

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Challenge Statement

Technology plays an important role in world language classroom. Yet most teachers are faced with the challenge of how to effectively utilize technology in their world language classrooms. Professional development programs that provide training on integrating technology, pedagogy and content may enhance teachers' confidence and improve their technological adaptability.

Abstract

Teachers' perception and knowledge of technology greatly influences their pedagogical approaches and teaching methods. The purpose of this study was to explore whether professional development training for in-service Chinese language teachers could change their perception and application of technology in teaching. In this study, 18 Chinese language teachers were trained based on the Technology, Pedagogy, and Content Knowledge (TPACK) Model, which is intended to specify knowledge types for technology integration into Chinese language teaching. The training session took six weeks. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used. The data of participants' perceptions and applications of technology was collected before and after the training. Instruments to collect data included surveys, interviews, participants' journals, and microteaching videos. It was found that the professional development training had significant positive effect on in-service teachers' perceptions and applications of technology in teaching.

Keywords: Chinese language teachers, teachers' professional training, the TPACK model, technology

The mind-boggling development and evolution of information and communication technology (ICT) has greatly changed our society and education in recent years. Technology not only provides people with easy and quick access to a vast amount of information, but also gives learners the flexibility to control their own learning processes (Lam & Lawrence, 2002). During the unprecedented pandemic period of 2020-2022, ICT was widely used in the world. Technology has never been so important in education, including in the field of world language (WL) education.

Teachers' attitudes and concerns have significant influence on the use of technology in the classroom (Atkins & Vasu, 2000). However, a positive attitude toward technology does not guarantee a positive application of technology. That is, we do not know if teachers with a positive attitude will be willing to and also be able to use the technology in the classroom appropriately (Egbert, Paulus & Nakamichi, 2002).

In this study, we attempted to find out whether in-service teachers' perception and application of technology can be positively enhanced through a specific professional development training program. Many in-service teacher education programs that aim to teach only technological capabilities fail to help teachers transfer those capabilities into their teaching and instructional environments (Koc & Bakir, 2010). The Technology, Pedagogy, and Content Knowledge (TPACK) framework, advocated for by researchers such as Mishra and Koehler (2006), provides the knowledge teachers need to have for successful technology integration. Mishra and Koehler (2006) proposed that in addition to technological knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge are also important in teachers' education and professional development. According to them, teachers need new types of knowledge derived from the overlaps of these three knowledge domains: Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK), Technological Content Knowledge (TCK), and Technological Pedagogical Knowledge (TPK). TPACK acts as an intersection area of all three knowledge domains.

TPACK has been used for teacher education in various fields (e.g., Adipat, 2021; Cheng et al., 2022; Horlescu, 2017; McKenny & Voogt, 2017; Tai, 2015). In the current study, following the principles of the TPACK Model, we designed a professional development training program specifically for in-service Chinese language teachers. Our goal was to find out whether such professional training could improve Chinese language teachers' perception and application of technology.

Literature Review

World Language teachers' perceptions of technology

In the era of technology and the Internet, researchers often ask questions like "How do teachers perceive technology in learning and teaching?", "Do teachers' perceptions affect their application of technology when they teach?". Perceptions are considered as the cognitive components of attitudes. Previous literature has shown that teachers' perceptions influence intentions, which in turn influence behaviors (e.g., Ma, Anderson & Streith, 2005). In general, the more favorable perceptions are, the stronger the intentions to perform the behavior in question will be (Ajzen, 2007). The strong connections between perception and application

have been investigated by researchers in many studies (e.g., Hu et al., 2003; Norton et al., 2000;). A high degree of overlap was found between measuring participants' perceptions and measuring their intentions. Positive perceptions indicated that the participants expected to carry out their intentions. For instance, according to the model proposed by Ma et al. (2005), teachers' intentions to utilize ICT can be predicted by their subjective perceptions of its usefulness.

Then, how do teachers improve their perceptions and attitudes about ICT? A number of studies (e.g., Atkins & Vasu, 2000; Egbert, Paulus & Nakamichi, 2002; Gao & Zhang, 2020; Jung, 2001; Kim, 2002; Lam, 2000; Lee & Son, 2006; Shin & Son, 2007; Suh, 2004; Yildirim, 2000; Zhang & Chen, 2022) have indicated that factors such as teacher training, computer facilities, teachers' attitudes toward computers, and prior teaching experiences with ICT are strongly related to the success or failure of the application of technology in the classroom. For example, Atkins and Vasu (2000) argued that teachers' attitudes or concerns about technology have a significant impact on the integration of new technology into the classroom. Kim (2002) also agreed that teachers as individuals with complex internal variables are key elements that affect the use of new technology in the classroom. Kim (2002) pointed out that cirtical factors affecting successful integration of technology into the classroom are associated with teachers themselves. She added that teachers' perceptions and attitudes toward teaching and technology can be regarded as a facilitating or inhibiting factor, depending on how they feel about technology use in their classroom.

To better understand how teachers were coping with the challenges during Covid pandemic, Gao and Zhang (2020) set up a research project to examine English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' cognition about online teaching in response to the disruption of normal teaching plans. They found that through the TPACK framework, teachers had a clear understanding about the features, the advantages, and the constraints of online EFL teaching. Their perception helped them adopt appropriate pedagogical methods to cope with unexpected transitions to the online teaching.

To address the problem of ineffective technology use, Zhang and Chen (2022) strove to delineate the interactions among three teacher internal variables (TPACK, affective attitudes towards technology, and evaluative attitudes towards technology), and two technology usage variables (technology use for face-to-face instruction, and technology use for online instruction). Data was collected from 261 EFL teachers at 17 universities in China via a self-reported questionnaire and analyzed using structural equation modeling. Results revealed that teachers' TPACK, which related to their evaluative attitudes, positively influenced their actual technology use for both face-to-face and online instruction. Their evaluative attitudes also positively affected technology use for face-to-face instruction. In contrast, affective attitudes did not influence either type of technology use.

These studies all suggest that WL teachers' attitude and perceptions are closely related to their using technology in their teaching. We would like to look into the case of Chinese language teachers specifically in the current study.

WL Teachers' application of technology

As discussed in the previous section, it is generally believed that positive attitudes towards technology lead to increased applications of technology. However, Egbert, Paulus and Nakamichi (2002) asserted that positive attitudes toward computer technology does not guarantee that teachers will be willing to or able to use the technology in the classroom. For example, Kim (2002) found that teachers' actual use of Internet-based lessons was limited, frequently delayed, avoided or withdrawn, because the teachers encountered some unexpected difficulties or barriers due to lack of sufficient knowledge and computer skills, lack of experience, insufficient time, computer anxiety and lack of confidence, despite the fact that all participants in her study had positive attitudes toward the use of technology and strong intrinsic motivation such as personal curiosity and interest. The most common reasons for not using technology included limited class hours, inconvenience of using computer facilities and technical problems such as slow Internet connections. In addition, they had challenges related to integrating authentic materials into their textbooks and classrooms.

Despite the aforementioned challenges, WL teachers have identified various uses of ICT in their classrooms, including the use of the Internet as a tool for obtaining information, project writing, communication among groups of students through email or online chatrooms, Internet-based course programs, and publishing project work (e.g., Alvine, 2000; Inpeng & Nomnian, 2020; Lee, 2003; Wong, et al, 2015). However, the integration of technology into instruction is still a major challenge for many teachers because they are expected to be capable of utilizing the extensive capacities of ICT to create more effective teaching and learning activities, spurred on during the COVID-19 pandemic. With the rapid evolution of modern technology and social media, teachers need professional development programs to help them keep up with new developments in technology as well as its integration with pedagogy. If we hope to enable language teachers to use technology in ways that will encapsulate new learning styles and create pathways for learners living in a digital era, teacher training programs and professional development workshops should diagnose teachers' needs in this respect and contribute to curricula accordingly to help teachers conquer technology and pedagogy challenges.

The present study focuses on Chinese language teachers' perceptions and application of technology, because "the field of foreign language education has always been in the forefront of the use of technology to facilitate the language education process" (Lafford & Lafford, 1997). We hoped to use Chinese language teachers as an example to produce some generalizable information for all the WL teachers in the field.

Effects of teachers' education and training on their perceptions and applications of technology. Previous research has found the urgent need for technology education in teacher education and professional development (e.g. Daniel, 2010). The importance of ICT curriculum design has already been widely recognized. Most teacher education programs have included sections on technology for teachers. Many researchers (e.g., Egbert, Paulus & Nakamichi, 2002; Hennessy et al, 2022; Lam, 2000; Oh & French, 2007; Yildirim, 2000; Williams, 2017) have found that, as a result of teacher training programs, teachers have improved their capa-

bilities with newly-developed tools, have gained confidence with technology, and have expressed views that teacher development programs have positively influenced their attitudes toward technology. Similar to their views of teacher education, some researchers, (e.g., Jung, 2001; Dai, 2015) have pointed out that school-based, workshop style technology training programs should be introduced, because it is more effective for well-trained teachers to help less skillful teachers use technology in their classrooms and tutor each other on a one-on-one basis. As Egbert (2010) pointed out, teachers are the key element of successful acquisition of a second language. They should find out the ways to integrate technology, content and pedagogy in either technologically rich or poor environments. Their focus should be on how to meet students' needs, enhance their interests, and improve their abilities with the help of various technologies.

It is of utmost importance that the skills and knowledge that teachers gain during their education programs or professional development in Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) be transferred to their teaching practice in real learning contexts (Egbert, Huff & Lee, 2011; Hong, 2010). The important question for teacher training programs is, then, how learning opportunities for teachers can infuse technology into their teaching. In other words, teacher training programs need to plan training well for the benefits of teachers (Hockly, 2012, Mayo & Kajs, 2005; Toledo, 2005; Sergeant, 2000).

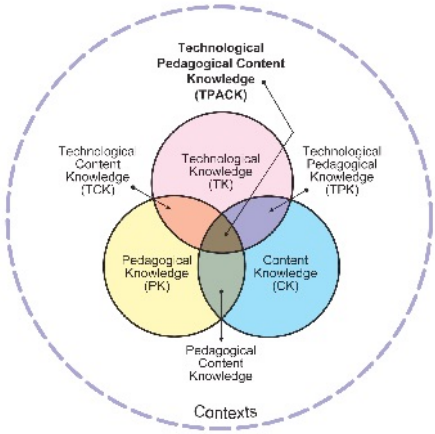
Dai (2015) investigated the impact of a CALL teacher education workshop guided by the TPACK-in-Action model. Participants consisted of 24 elementary English teachers in Taiwan. Findings show that the TPACK-in-Action workshops had a positive impact on the participants. In addition to the development of CALL competency, it was also observed that participants demonstrated CALL competency in their teaching, such as selecting online materials and appropriate technology for content teaching, using cloud computing for student interaction, and matching the affordances of technology to meet their instructional goals and pedagogy.

There has been little research conducted on introducing an ICT related teachers' training program that integrates teachers' subject matter with Chinese language teaching. The present study examines whether a teacher training program based on the TPACK model could help teachers integrate ICT into their Chinese language teaching and the use of technology in their classroom. This study will fill the gap in the literature.

The TPACK Model and its Application

TPACK has emerged as a useful framework for researchers who strive to understand technology integration in learning and teaching. The combination of technology with pedagogy in a particular subject area must take into account the dynamic intersections of TPK (technological pedagogical knowledge), PCK (pedagogical content knowledge), and TCK (technological content knowledge) (see Figure 1).

Figure 1
The Components of TPACK adopted from Shin et al. (2009)



According to TPACK, a teacher who navigates between these interrelations can teach more effectively than others who focus on only one of these three areas (subject matter, pedagogy, or technology) (Mishra & Koehler 2006). The TPACK model guides teachers to make sensible and creative choices in their use of technology in the classrooms. It provides a useful planning tool for technology integration. In the past, faculty and teacher development in the area of technology tended to focus upon learning the technology itself, whereas the TPACK framework provides a structure to organize professional development around pedagogy and content as well as technology.

The TPACK framework has been used successfully in many projects aimed at improving technology integration, both in K–12 classrooms and in teacher education programs (e.g., Archambault, Wetzel, Foulger, & Williams, 2010; Devaney, 2009; Harris & Hofer, 2009). More recently, McKenny and Voogt (2017) conducted a study to articulate the TPACK needed by teachers in order to make effective use of technology for early literacy. Through three rounds of expert consultation, key priorities for primary school teachers were articulated. Their findings can help teacher education programs offer pre-service teachers adequate opportunities to develop the technological, pedagogical, and content knowledge needed for effectively using technology in the domain of early literacy.

Horlescu (2017) investigated the TPACK of language teachers engaged in the digital literacy practice of producing a multimodal ensemble with machinima for the purpose of integrating digital literacies into language teacher education. In her study, language teachers participated in a course specifically designed to train them to make machinima videos as well as prompt them to reflect on the various uses of the tool and its transformative effect on language and literacy. Findings indicated that while participating teachers expressed traditional views of literacy, they demonstrated profound knowledge of multimodal composition as they collaboratively constructed complex mode relationships during the machinima pro-

duction process. The results revealed the effectiveness of teacher education programs based on the TPACK model.

Cheng et al. (2022) attempted to improve pre-service teachers' online TPACK by integrating it with the "CloudClassRoom" (CCR) and the DEmo-CO-design/teach-feedback-DEbriefing (DECODE) model. The merged model integrates teacher-student experiences, teaching-learning processes, and technology-embedded systems to promote collaborative and active learning, information and resources sharing, and creative communication. A self-evaluating questionnaire with open-ended questions evaluated participants' technological pedagogical and content knowledge outcomes. Since CCR significantly increases technology-related knowledge considering the current social distancing measures provoked by COVID-19,. he findings indicated that DECODE with CCR can provide an integrated process for improving pre-service teachers' technological pedagogical and content knowledge, assisting pre-service teachers in designing educational technology-integrated courses.

Since TPACK has been proven successful in many areas, this study adopted the TPACK model when designing the teacher training program. I hoped that through training in these three overlapping areas—pedagogy, content and technology, Chinese language teachers could improve their perceptions and applications of technology.

Purpose

This exploratory mixed-methods study explores specific types of knowledge and skills within the framework of TPACK through both qualitative and quantitative data analysis. The purpose of this study was to investigate whether the professional training program based on the TPACK framework would have a positive impact on in-service Chinese language teachers' perceptions and applications of technology in Chinese WL teaching.

The TPACK framework was utilized as the theoretical guideline for the content of the training, as it can tell us what kinds of specific knowledge and skills WL in-service teachers should acquire so that they can integrate technology into their specific-content area successfully. Although the teacher professional training program developed in-service Chinese language teachers' TK (technology knowledge), PK (pedagogy knowledge), CK (content knowledge), PCK (pedagogy and content), TCK (technology and content), and TPK (technology and pedagogy, the focus of the training was on the development of teachers' TPACK (technology, pedagogy, and content). I wanted to find out, through the training, whether the in-service teachers could improve their perceptions and applications on technology use.

Research Questions

1. Can a teacher training program based on the TPACK Model enhance the teachers' perceptions of technology?
2. Can a teacher training program based on the TPACK Modal increase teachers' applications of technology in classroom?

Research Design

Triangulation design should be utilized to corroborate the quantitative results with qualitative results in educational settings (Creswell & Clark, 2007). Therefore, such design was employed in this study to corroborate the descriptive quantitative data with the qualitative data collected from in-service Chinese language teachers. Since using quantitative data collection methodology might not always give a true picture of technology integration in classrooms, the mixed-methods design used in this study included both quantitative and qualitative data gathered sequentially to answer the research questions.

The data collected by the researcher and her graduate assistants was utilized to analyze teachers' perceptions and applications of technology, since their beliefs were that in-service Chinese language teachers' perceptions of technology was essential for successful technology integration. In the study, a survey(designed by the researcher based on the previous studies (Hutchison, 2009; Mollaei & Riasati, 2013)) tried to elicit teachers' perceptions of the use of technology in language classrooms. It was distributed among the participants. Then they were asked to rate statements based on their level of agreement or disagreement to indicate their perceptions and attitudes toward technology implementation. In addition to the survey, other data were collected through interviews, journals, and microteaching videos of the in-service Chinese language teachers.

Participants

Eighteen Chinese language teachers participated in the study. All the them were K–12 Chinese language teachers in the Midwest of the United States. These teachers' age ranged from 25 to 48. The average age was 37.6 years old. The gender ratio was 3:15 between males and females. All the teachers held at least a bachelor's degree. Among them, 15 had earned a master degree in language education from institutions in either China or Taiwan; two received a master or doctoral in language education from institutions in the United States. All of the teachers had at least 2 years of teaching experience in the United States. They were all from China or Taiwan, with Mandarin Chinese as their native language.

Procedure and Data Collection

The general procedure of this study included three stages: pre-training data collection, workshop training, and post-training data collection. Data collection was conducted by the researcher and her graduate assistants.

Quantitative data

1. A 30-item survey (See Appendix) of the WL teachers' perceptions of teaching and technology, adopted and modified from previous studies (Hutchison, 2009; Mollaei & Riasati, 2013). The response options of each survey item were on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). Cronbach alpha was used to determine the reliability of the questionnaire and it was 0.83. The participants were asked to rate statements based on their level of agreement or disagreement to

indicate their perceptions and attitudes toward technology implementation.

2. Microteaching videos were also collected before and after the workshop training. Each participant was asked to record a 50-minute typical class session before the training. After the training, they were asked to record a 50-minute teaching session with similar teaching content. The length of the time and the type of the technology were coded by the researcher.
3. All the data were analyzed by the researcher. Tools used to analyze survey results included: (1) SPSS Statistics package, (2) Dependent means, t-test, and (3) *t*-statistics, *p*-values and eta squared.

Qualitative data

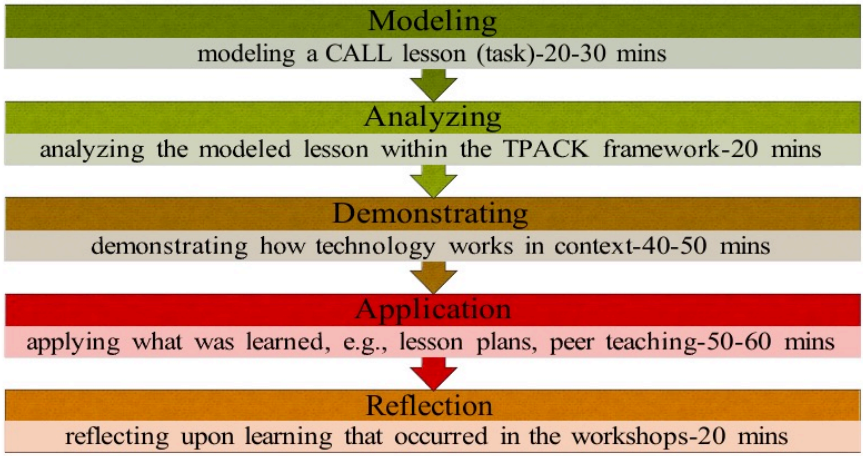
1. Interviews and participants' journals. The researcher also interviewed the participants. The interviews were semi-structured, and the role of the questions was to initiate the discussion. Each interview lasted for around 15 minutes. The interview aimed at eliciting information about teachers' perceptions and implementation of technology, in particular in their own teaching contexts. During the interviews, the following questions were asked:
   - What do you think of using technology in teaching Chinese?
   - What types of technologies do you prefer to use in your classroom?
   - What types of technologies you think appropriate for using in Chinese classes?
   - What are the benefits to teachers' use of technology in Chinese classes?
   - What are barriers to teachers' use of technology in Chinese classes?
   - What factors do you think affect your use of technology, especially computers?
2. In addition, the participants were asked to keep a journal. They jotted down what worked and what did not when they used CALL-based materials, and they noted reasons for their decisions on the use of technology.

Workshop training

A six-week training session was designed: three hours per week in the format of Zoom workshops. This teacher training program was supported by the researcher's grant. The curriculum for the training program was developed by the researcher of the study. The researcher was the host of the Zoom workshops and was one of the providers of the training. The other instructors included three professors from two other universities and three senior K–12 language teachers.

Tai (2015) designed TPACK workshop sessions for EFL teachers. In each of the workshop in her study, the participants were taken through the intended five steps to learn about CALL integration in content and context. The five steps are (1) Modeling; (2) Analyzing 3) Demonstrating; (4) Application; and (5) Reflection. Figure 2 below is the illustration of the steps.

Figure 2
Steps of training session (Tai, 2015)



We adopted this model and followed similar steps in each training session. The purpose of six-week training program was to increase teachers' discipline-specific theoretical and pedagogical knowledge and help them develop both a philosophy of teaching and a coherent set of practical teaching strategies regarding technology integration. Each week, the training session lasted for three hours. The program focused on the integration of technology knowledge, pedagogy and content. An example of such integration is listed in Table 1 below.

Table 1
Examples used in the TPACK training program

	Content	Pedagogy	Technology
Separate domains	Extend an invitation (vocabulary, sentence structures, and pronunciation etc.)	Select authentic materials to present the linguistic structure of the content within a meaningful context. Design communicative activities for students to practice this content (e.g., inviting a friend to an event)	Online and offline audio and video materials, Google docs, Google slides, QR codes, text messages, emails, phones, voice mails, online dictionary, online pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary exercise tools.
Integration of the domains	The teacher selects or makes authentic materials to teach students the vocabulary and structures of inviting somebody. Then he/she designs communicative tasks for the students to send an invitation to other people for an event, such as a birthday party. Students can send the invitation through email, text message, or phone call to each other. The teacher can create a QR code to let students send their invitation to a google doc, which can be viewed by everyone in class at the same time.		

The training program offered sustained opportunities both within and beyond the classroom to reflect on, discuss, and apply knowledge gained from second language acquisition research and from participants' own teaching experiences. Specific learning experiences included: selecting and analyzing a particular teaching context; developing a teaching philosophy and teaching two mini-lessons designed for learners in that context; providing feedback to classmates on their teaching; writing reflections on feedback obtained; preparing classroom observation reports; and developing, executing, and reflecting on a 50-minute lesson that they taught to learners of Chinese.

The schedule and topics of the training course design was as follows:

Week 1
- Pre-data collection
- Introduction to the training program
- Introduction to TPACK

Week 2 and 3
- Discussion about the meaning and different uses of technology
- Discussion about the importance of technology integration for Chinese Language Teaching
- Discussion about separate domains of the TPACK model
- Discussion about technology integration and design

Weeks 4 and 5
- Participants' collaborative presentations on various technological tools
- Teaching their peers how to use the tools
- Focusing on its use for language teaching purposes

Week 6
- Teaching demonstrations and reflection
- Post-data collection

Results

Questionnaires

The results of the questionnaires show that in-service Chinese language teachers enhanced their positive perceptions of technology through the TPACK training. Table 2 presents the findings emerging from the questionnaires. Simple t-test was used to compare the mean scores of teachers' perception questionnaires on technology integration in their classes between the pre-training and the after-training.

Table 2

T-test results on comparing the scores of the questionnaire

	M	SD	t	df	p
Before the training	3.01	4.98	11.29	16	<.001
After the training	4.29	3.24	?	?	?

It is found that the mean score of the before-training was significantly lower than the after-training mean score (N=18, $p < 0.001$). Thus, teachers had signifi-

cantly more positive attitude toward technology integration after their training. This means that teachers were more willing to use technology in their classes and possibly used it more creatively after the training. The highest mean scores were obtained for items related to acquiring language, students' interactions, academic achievement and grades improvement, making language learning interesting, students' motivation increases, and activating learning during language classes.

Microteaching videos

Our second research question attempted to find out whether training affects teachers' application of technology in teaching. Table 3 shows us the length of time (in minutes) in teaching of a 50-minute class before and after the training.

Table 3
T-test results on comparing the time of using technology in teaching

	M	SD	t	df	*p*
Before the training	2.5	6.18	24.23	16	<.001
After the training	12.8	4.23	?	?	?

Table 4 below shows us the types of technology in teaching before and after the training.

Table 4
T-test results on comparing the types of technology used in teaching

	M	SD	t	df	*p*
Before the training	0.6	5.11	15.87	16	<.001
After the training	2.7	4.67	?	?	?

According to the results, the average time used by the teachers with technology after the training was significantly longer than before the training ($N=18$, $p < .001$). The types of technology used by the teachers after the training were also significantly more than before the training ($N=18$, $p < .001$). The teachers used significantly more technologies during their classes for significantly longer periods of time. Hence, the TPACK training had significant positive effects on teachers regarding the use of technology.

Interviews

During the interviews, all teachers pointed out benefits of using technology, in particular computer technology, for language teaching process. They believed that when students were provided with real and authentic language materials and resources, they might develop their language skills and become more interested in the learning materials. Some teachers referred to students' increased motivation as a benefit of computer-assisted instruction. They commented that the use of technology resulted in more interesting classes and increased class participation. The use of technology in Chinese language learning also appeared to have influenced the development of communicative skills. In fact, computers can offer WL learners

more than drills. The participants reported that using technology may have saved class time, minimized teachers' efforts, attracted students' attention and made learning more appealing.

All of the participants also commented on the positive role that pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge had had on their understanding and application of technology in teaching. They reported that specific examples of technology integration in different sub-areas of TPACK were particularly helpful. Many of them adopted the examples and created their own versions for their classes.

On the other hand, teachers also reported that there were some barriers to teachers' uses of technology in Chinese classes, such as: inadequate teacher training; a lack of time to experiment with the technologies; and inadequate technical support. The barriers inhibiting the practice of CALL can be classified in the following common categories (a) financial barriers, (b) availability of computer hardware and software, (c) technical and theoretical knowledge, and (d) acceptance of the technology. The two major factors which will determine whether a teacher would plan for and use technology in their classroom lessons were (1) time, and (2) adequate knowledge about the integration of technology, content and pedagogy. These findings were consistent with findings from existing research which identified time and knowledge as critical factors in determining whether teachers use technology in their instruction or not (Backfisch et al, 2021; Johnson et al, 2016).

Journals

In relation to language skills, the journals and the interviews indicated that teachers' integration of CALL-based materials improved their students' listening and their use of grammatical structures, which lead to better language abilities. The journals and the interviews also revealed that compared to the past, the participants had had the opportunity to make the best of the freely available materials such as audio and video files on the Internet. One participant clearly illustrated this:

> There are many useful websites on the Internet. Getting authentic material for language teaching is much easier than before. People nowadays like to upload videos to social media and share with others. Finding listening and reading materials appropriate to our students is no longer a difficult task for me. And I enjoy the searching process. What I enjoy most is to design a teaching activity to combine the video and the subject I'm teaching.

Some of the participants also benefited from technology to prepare their students for Chinese proficiency exams held in China or the U.S. One of the participants explained it in this way:

> This semester I teach several Chinese language classes. In these classes, two students wanted take HSK so that they can get scholarship to study abroad in China. Some students also wanted to take Chinese AP tests for college. Many exams test grammar, reading and vocabulary knowledge. I used different websites to create vocabulary, grammar and reading exercises for these students. I also used software to analyze the frequency

> of the words used in the previous exams. From the training course, I not only learned to use new technology, but also practiced how to design proper pedagogical activities while using the technology. I was able to teach and prepare my students for the test more effectively.

The majority of the participants expressed that online tools helped them teach more effectively. Using various teaching, testing, and gaming websites in their classes, they tried to increase their students' motivation as well as providing input. Some of the participants used websites such as Pinyin Chart to help their students improve pronunciation in Chinese, particularly in tones. Regarding how the teachers improved their students' speaking skill, one of the teachers wrote that:

> It's difficult to teach tones. Tones are difficult for English speakers. Sometimes students do not want to practice as they think their friends will laugh at them. Moreover, some American students have great difficulty hearing the tones, let alone pronouncing them. Since I have to teach in a big school district, it is not always possible to practice with each student for correct pronunciation. Then I decided to use the Pinyin Chart website and I asked students to practice and record their pronunciation. I gave instructions to students on listening to the tones and then imitating them. When they were confident enough, they could record their pronunciation and make a comparison. At the beginning, it was difficult for many students. However, I managed to encourage my students to practice. Now, my beginning-level students frequently use the website and their tones are better. They love the online tools for pronunciation. With the online tools, shy students were not afraid to practice pronunciation.

Some teacher participants practiced teaching through free teaching platforms such as Google classroom, even though their school districts had been already using a different course management system. One of these participants expressed that:

> Even though my school uses Canvas as the instructional platform, I feel more confident when I am aware of other instructional platforms and can use them, too. I am also teaching Chinese as a volunteer teacher at a Chinese weekend school. Using a free instructional platform allows me to expand me teaching apparatus and help more children in the community to learn Chinese, too. I felt like having an expanded repertoire of tools for teaching. I could deal with different instructional situations with more tools.

However, a few teacher participants stated that they could not benefit from online tools as much as they had wanted, as the school administration did not support them. In addition, students' access to the Internet was limited. Supporting this view, one of the participants voiced his disappointment:

> I knew that some public schools were not equipped with up-to-date technology. So I felt happy and blessed to have a new computer and a projector in my classroom. I was planning to use some recommended

> software and online tools. However, it's more difficult to use technology in K–12 schools, as many of the students don't have computer or internet access at home. So I had to download audio and video materials beforehand so that I could provide listening and grammar activities with authentic material at school. But this limited my way of using technology in teaching, especially for homework assignments.

Table 5 on the next page shows some tools and applications that the participants used in their language teaching practices, taking language skills into consideration. The journals kept by the participants clearly showed that the participants mainly focused on the tools that helped their students to improve their listening, grammar, reading and writing skills. PowerPoint was the most commonly used software for introducing grammatical structures as well as for creating in-class brainstorming activities.

To summarize, in light of the journals and the responses given in the interviews, the teacher participants tried to integrate technology with target skills and appropriate pedagogical methods in their classrooms to help their students practice language skills, especially listening and writing skills, together with grammar in the classroom as well as outside the classroom. The materials supported by the integration of technology into the classroom aimed at making classroom activities more engaging and motivation for the students.

Discussion

To answer the first research question whether the TPACK training changes teachers' perceptions of teaching through technology, we found that the mean score of the before-training was significantly lower than the after-training mean score ($N = 18$, $P < 0.001$). Thus, teachers had significantly more positive attitudes toward technology integration after their training.

Regarding the response of the second question, whether training affects teachers' application of technology in teaching, we also found that through training, the participants significantly spent more time using technology and utilized more types of technology.

The training aimed at providing a link between Second Language Acquisition theories, optimal technology conditions for language learning, and content knowledge that participants had learned previously. Considering the findings provided in the data analysis section, together with participants' responses in their journals and during the interviews, it is clear that the training program provided to the participants helped them integrate a variety of CALL-based materials and tools into their classroom practices. The results indicate that such an approach may work better for teachers. A knowledge of how-to-use a computer does not necessarily imply ability to know how to infuse CALL-based materials into language classes appropriately and effectively. In other words, technology training which merely engages language teachers in gaining ICT skills tied purely to technical issues may not help develop their ability in applying technology in language teaching. There is a need for training with a certain degree of content knowledge such as the optimal conditions for language learning and SLA theories that guide

Table 5
Sample description of how teachers applied technology tools in their teaching

CALL-based tool	Skill/Content	Pedagogy Activities
Listening and Video tool sand websites, Digital Story-telling websites (MovieMaker, iMovie, StoryBird, WeVideo, etc.)	Listening/Speaking (Audio files as well as the videos; course management)	Teachers uploaded listening materials and video materials online and asked the students in groups to create questions. Then, the other students tried to answer these questions. Teachers also assigned homework in which students had to prepare a story. Then they could upload the stories online.
Documents and Wikis (Google Docs, Google Forms, Wikipedia, etc.)	Writing/Grammar (review of grammatical mistakes)	Teachers asked students to write short essays on various topics. Teachers prepared a list of his/her students' grammatical mistakes and published them on their blogs and wikis. Then, s/he asked them to find any mistakes and correct them. The students worked in pairs and groups.
Online conference tools (Zoom, Facetime, WebEx, Team, WeChat, GatherTown, etc.)	Listening/Speaking (Recorded online classroom session)	Teachers created an online classroom, where they and their students had a synchronous communication using the webcams, microphone and the speakers available. The topic included stories discussed one week before. The session could be recorded and downloaded to be sent to the students. Then students checked their pronunciation as well as their use of grammar and choice of vocabulary.
Concordance (AntConc, WordSmith Tools, etc.); Online Dictionaries (Xinhua Dictionary, etc.)	Reading and Writing/Grammar (Word choice, sample sentences and worksheets)	Teachers prepared a worksheet including highlighted vocabulary items for class for the following week, focusing on definitions and sample sentences, using online dictionaries and concordance website. Then, students reviewed the materials for the coming lesson and as a homework activity; they were required to find the synonyms and antonyms of these words using these websites.
Practice and testing tools (Hot Potatoes, Google Forms + Flubaroo and QuizStar, etc.)	All four skills	Teachers created various exercises such as matching, cloze, multiple choice, etc., for students as homework or tests. Students, then, answered the corresponding questions and got feedback, depending on the answers that they provided.
PowerPoint, Google Slides and Prezi as a presentation and authoring tools	Speaking and presenting, Writing/Grammar	Teachers used PowerPoint, Google Slides, or Prezi as a presentation tool in class.

teachers to make the appropriate choice of technology. Therefore, the training program provided in this study helped us to find a way to combine language teaching activities with computer technologies and content, focusing on what works and what does not for their language classrooms.

Data collected from the surveys on the participants' perceptions of technology indicated that the participants perceptions were not very positive before the training program. Prior to the training, the teachers did not consider themselves very competent in planning and designing learning episodes using modern tech-

nology. However, after the training was completed, the teachers became much more confident. The data also showed that there was statistically significant improvement of their perceived knowledge about technology and integration of technology in their pedagogies. The survey data demonstrates their enhanced perceptions. The data from their teaching videos also clearly indicates that they had used more technology in classroom teaching. The analyses of the microteaching videos, the journals, and the interviews showed that the participants tried to include a variety of tools that they learned about during the training. This finding is in alignment with the one suggested by and Antonietti et al. (2022) and Chen et, al (2024), showing that teachers' positive sense of competence might have led to an increased utilization of technology in the classroom.

Teachers' enhanced perceptions might have been the results of the training program, which allowed participants to learn to integrate technology into their classrooms, which, in turn, helped improve their students' language skills. This can be attributed to the fact that the training program did not only talk about technology, but also about the integration of technology into content through optimal pedagogy. Throughout the training, teacher participants were able to choose technologies that were appropriate to both pedagogy and content. In relation to language skills, the study showed that after the training, participants used a variety of tools to help their students improve their listening, grammar, reading and writing skills. They especially valued CALL-based materials as they observed that these tools helped their students improve their listening and the writing abilities through online and in-class activities based on the materials available through the Internet such as audio and video files. As perceived by the Chinese language teachers, the study also showed that the materials supported by the integration of technology into the classroom helped make classroom activities more engaging, and enhance students' motivation at the same time.

Participants also learned how to use technology to help their students improve their specific language skills such as writing, which was generally considered by the participants to be the most difficult skill to teach in their Chinese language classrooms. Most of the participants benefited from using such tools as Google Docs and Wikis in teaching writing, as they learned that these tools could encourage their students to practice writing as well as to share their opinions and reactions to what they had learned. These tools also functioned as an information sharing place that led to collaborative writing.

Therefore, we can argue that despite several challenges and factors, the majority of the teachers integrated CALL-based materials into their classroom activities better than before. Possible explanations for this, as also stated by Diamah et, al. (2022), include the training provided to the participants, training that focused on the link between pedagogy, content, and the use of technology for instructional purposes; the professional development opportunity greatly benefited the teachers.

Conclusion and Implications

From the quantitative and qualitative results, we can conclude that Chinese language teachers' perceptions and applications of the technology can be improved through professional training programs based on the TPACK model. In general, the TPACK framework has provided a means for WL researchers and practitioners to communicate more accurately and effectively about how to integrate technology into teaching.

In light of the data analysis and the discussion above, the following implications for teaching can be presented: TPACK can serve as a good model for teacher training programs for Chinese teachers. In other words, a training program that contains integration of ICT in language teaching and learning in subject matter should be included in teachers' professional development. Such a training program should expose teachers to a variety of technologies (Lei, 2009), taking into consideration Chinese language teaching, methodology, SLA theories and optimal conditions for language learning at the same time. Teachers should be informed of the fact that technology should be used provided that it will facilitate meaningful classroom activities, rather than an alternative to classroom teaching. They need to understand how learning technologies work and how they can help us to improve learning and teaching (Collins & Halversont, 2010; González-Lloret, 2024). The key point is not the use of technology or a specific technological tool, but how it can be used to improve language learning and teaching. As Watson (2010, p.162) states, "computers are supposed to be tools to help us to think, not prevent us from thinking." Through trainings, if conducted properly and effectively, many more teachers of Chinese can be trained, which could be more practical and cost-effective. This can be done through a dedicated website for all teachers, not just Chinese teachers, providing tutorial videos and forums for common problems and questions.

Limitations

Although this study provides promising results, it still contains several flaws. First, the number of the participants in the study was small, they were not selected randomly, and a convenience sample was used. Therefore, the study can be repeated with a larger number of participants to decrease the likelihood that the results obtained were a one-time occurrence. Second, no delayed post-training data was collected. Thus, the long-term effect of the training program remains unclear. Third, future research with TPACK should include more work in the assessment area, with further refinement of the survey using larger, diverse samples and work to create classroom observation tools to assess teachers' TPACK in authentic classroom environments.

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Appendix

Survey on teachers' perception of using technology in teaching

1. Technology helps me improve students' language skills and knowledge.
2. Technology helps me integrate different language activities in teaching.
3. Technology helps me meet students' different needs in the classroom.
4. Technology assists me develop more interactive ways in teaching the Chinese language.
5. Technology helps me provide students with tools for pronunciation.
6. Technology helps students understand academic subjects better.
7. Technology assists me developing computerized exams and assess students' progress accurately.
8. Students become more independent learners as a result of technology.
9. Using technology in the classroom are beneficial for both the teachers and students.
10. Students can interact and communicate differently with the help of technology.
11. Technology assists students in improving academic achievement and grades.
12. Technology assists in making language learning interesting and enjoyable.
13. Students' motivation increases as a result of using technology in teaching.
14. Technology assists in activating learning during language classes.
15. I feel prepared to teach students the skills they need for online class.
16. I am skilled at using digital technology for instruction.
17. I am skillful of using technology in general (computers, cell phones, iPods, etc.)?
18. I would like to increase my integration of technology into your language arts instruction.
19. I feel my integration of technology into my teaching is welcome by my students.
20. I feel that students benefit when they use digital technologies such as the Internet to learn in my classroom.
21. I feel prepared to teach Chinese in online environments.
22. I feel confident of using technology in classroom.
23. My stance towards technology in the classroom is positive.
24. I received professional development on technology to make my teaching more effective.
25. I have received adequate professional development on the integration of technology into my curriculum.
26. Technology is central to instruction.
27. I feel technology support is available to me.
28. I understand how to integrate technology into my instruction.
29. Technology helps me activate learning during language classes.
30. Technology helps me better develop students' writing skills.

8

Teaching as Advocacy: Bridging the Gap Between World Language Classrooms and Community

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Challenge Statement

World language education faces growing challenges nationwide, making advocacy more important than ever. How can teachers advocate for their programs while managing daily workloads? This paper presents *teaching as advocacy*, a mindset that helps educators seamlessly embed advocacy into their curriculum and teaching practices while they build community connections simultaneously.

Abstract

World Language (WL) education in the United States faces significant challenges, including declining enrollments and diminished community support. This paper introduces teaching as advocacy as a proactive framework to address these issues, proposing a mindset that integrates advocacy seamlessly into teaching practices. By leveraging community engagement and emphasizing Connection and Community, the framework extends classroom learning into real-world contexts. Strategies such as cross-disciplinary collaborations, service-learning projects, partnerships with ethnic communities, and strategic use of social media amplify the impact of language education, demonstrating its value through tangible outcomes. This paper offers practical examples to showcase how teaching as advocacy revitalizes WL programs, connects classrooms to communities, and fos-

ters public awareness of the benefits of WL learning and cultural appreciation. By adopting this approach, educators can advocate effectively for WL programs, building sustainable, community-centered support systems that champion linguistic and cultural diversity.

Keywords: teaching as advocacy, community, cross-disciplinary, service learning

The Modern Language Association (MLA) reported that World Language (WL) education is increasingly facing headwinds, with declining enrollments and diminishing resources nationwide. The 2023 MLA report indicates that coursework for most languages has experienced enrollment decreases ranging from 4.6% to 33.6%. Less commonly taught languages remain particularly at risk for reduction and cancellation (MLA, 2023). Contributing factors include reduced funding, teacher shortages, and limited community support, underscoring the urgent need for strong advocacy to sustain and promote WL programs.

As educators recognized the urgent need for advocacy for WL education, they pushed their professional organizations to create the Joint National Committee for Languages/National Council for Languages and International Studies (JNCL-NCLIS) as a unified voice advocating for WL education across the K–-20 continuum (JNCL/NCLIS, 2022). Despite the efforts to strengthen WL programs, the trajectory of decline is still evident; for example, collegiate programs at West Virginia University (WVU), at the University of Nebraska-Kearney (UNK), and most recently, the University of Nebraska Lincoln, have been reduced or eliminated, causing potential downstream impacts into high school programs. WVU has discontinued all WL offerings, UNK has reduced its programs to Spanish only (University of Nebraska at Kearney, 2023), and UNL has proposed removing its WL requirement for enrollment. These changes have far-reaching consequences, including fewer opportunities for students to pursue language learning, teacher shortages, diminished cultural competency, and a decline in bilingual professionals entering the workforce (Ziegler, 2022). Unfortunately, these cases are not isolated; similar setbacks have impacted K–-20 WL programs nationwide (JNCL/NCLIS, 2022; MLA, 2023).

Revitalizing WL programs requires sustained commitment and collective action (Chappell, 2017). Effective advocacy strategies must address community needs and find locally relevant applications for WL. This paper posits that embracing the framework of teaching as advocacy, with tailored use of show, not tell, and show and tell approaches that align with local needs, empowers educators to change the trajectory of decline. In an era of increasing globalization, the ability to communicate across languages and cultures is more critical than ever. WL education equips students with linguistic proficiency and deepens their cultural insights, broadening perspectives and fostering active global citizenship. Authentic communication within the target language (TL) helps students develop problem-solving abilities and prepares them for future educational and career opportunities (Salam et al., 2019). The importance of WL education is challenged by the current political climate and the public debate about immigration, multiculturalism, and multilingualism. We suggest that teaching as advocacy can cultivate greater public

awareness of the benefits and diminish resistance to WL education while avoiding adverse political discourse. Educators can actively enhance and revitalize their WL programs by highlighting student achievements and fostering shared experiences with local communities, ensuring sustained relevance and meaningful impact.

The teaching as advocacy framework bridges the gap between classroom-based language learning and real-world learning by promoting community-based activities, including service-learning. This approach strengthens language proficiency and cultural competency and positions students as advocates for WL learning and cultural appreciation. Without opportunities for students to apply these skills, language learning risks being confined to the classroom. This will diminish motivation and limit its perceived value, leading to a further decline in programming. These interactions also emphasize the intrinsic value of WL education to the community, showcasing how WL education fosters cultural understanding and increases community cohesion.

This paper explores the concept of teaching as advocacy and its strategic applications in teaching practice. It focuses on extending classroom learning to real-world contexts through community interaction. It explores how educators can leverage partnerships, local resources, service-learning, and social media to reinforce language skills and promote cultural understanding while advocating for their programs through action. Through these strategies, WL teachers can enrich students' educational experiences and advocate for the value of WL in society.

Advocacy for World Language Education

Advocacy for education is a set of activities and initiatives undertaken to support students and teachers by influencing public policy, raising awareness, or providing direct support to underserved communities (Edglossary, 2024). WL advocacy refers to the efforts and initiatives to promote and support the teaching, learning, and usage of WLs within educational systems and society. This includes raising awareness, developing supportive policies, training teachers, engaging communities, supporting underserved areas, incorporating global goals, and measuring program success (ACTFL, 2024; JNCL, 2024).

For advocacy, several elements should be considered: the audience, the message, and the delivery methods. First, the audience, understanding the audience is crucial when developing advocacy strategies. The audience for WL education advocacy is often individuals who do not share many of the commonly held characteristics of WL educators. WL teachers are often bilingual or multilingual, have had extensive immersive experiences in more than one culture, frequently interact with people from different cultural backgrounds, and are tasked with navigating cultural differences. The audience is predominantly monolingual with limited cross-cultural experiences.

To these audiences, an advocacy message for WL may be something they have not previously considered. This is likely because they have not experienced proficiency-oriented WL instruction designed to prepare them for efficient, intercultural communication in another language, nor have they personally witnessed or fully embraced the benefits of language learning. Personal experiences can some-

times limit the effectiveness of advocacy, particularly when audiences struggle to relate to or internalize the benefits of bilingualism. Advocacy messages highlighting these benefits may inadvertently provoke disapproval or even defensiveness. In many of our conversations, some audiences have claimed they thrive without being bilingual, leading them to reject the need for WL education. If this belief is pervasive, advocacy may be met with resistance. Instead, reduce resistance by making advocacy action-based and community-oriented. Advocacy messages should be crafted with an awareness of the perspectives and experiences of the communities we serve.

The development of the message is the next critical element. Popular research-based strategies for creating resonance in advocacy messages include storytelling and show-and-tell techniques (Dahlstrom, 2014), emotional appeal and persuasion (Dillard & Nabi, 2006), and creating shared experiences, show-not-tell (McMillan & Chavis, 1986). These strategies can transform the message into one that resonates profoundly and fosters a sense of connection and partnership.

Like other modes of storytelling, the message must start with a hook. The hook is the element that captures attention and generates interest, drawing the audience into the message (Strunk & White, 2000). It should be clear, relatable, and relevant. Examples could include local celebrations that expose the audience to language and culture, awards and public recognition of student achievements in WL learning, hosting international visitors, and links to family heritage and local history (for example, highlighting Swedish in the Swedish capital of Nebraska). By focusing on community aspects, the advocacy message can become inclusive and relatable. Tying the message to familiar, recognizable, and enjoyable public events fosters a sense of connection, sparking interest and encouraging support for WL initiatives.

The last element is the delivery method. We must consider who should deliver the message, and via what platform. The effectiveness of the message is influenced by the credibility and relatability of the messenger. Educators, community leaders, students, and public figures connected to WL learning can serve as powerful advocates (Kotler & Keller, 2012). Additionally, choosing the right platform, including social media, community events, educational workshops, and local media, is crucial to reaching the intended audience effectively (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010). The choice of messenger and platform starts with understanding our community members and their preferences and communication habits (Rogers, 2003).

Teaching as Advocacy

Advocacy is an essential component in teaching WL, as these courses (especially advanced courses beyond college and graduation requirements) compete with other electives. Consequently, teachers play a pivotal role in educating students and the broader community about the benefits of WL education. Benefits include cognitive development, expanded career opportunities, and enhanced cultural understanding. By actively promoting the value of language learning, WL teachers advocate for their programs and cultivate a deeper appreciation for being multilingual. This, in turn, can encourage more students to engage with WLs and recognize their importance in an interconnected world. Moreover, engaging and

motivating teaching practices and links to past and present roles of multiple languages are critical channels for advocacy enhancing recruitment efforts.

Advocacy is a mindset, not an additional set of tasks beyond the essential work teachers already perform. Teaching itself serves as a natural form of advocacy. For instance, many WL teachers have observed increased enrollment simply because their students keep taking more advanced classes and share positive language-learning experiences with peers who are not enrolled, creating a ripple effect of interest and engagement. Drawing from classroom examples and the literature, we define teaching as advocacy, which is a mindset embedded within existing teaching practices (Glynn, Wesely, & Wassell, 2018; Cutshall, 2012). Teaching as advocacy encourages educators to infuse advocacy into their daily routines, using their teaching to raise public awareness of language programs and promote the importance of language learning.

Teachers have long employed teaching as advocacy. For example, displaying student projects in school hallways can generate curiosity and engagement among peers and faculty. Parents often express positive feedback when they see their children's work and often become inadvertent advocates for WL. These activities draw attention from peers, faculty, parents, and local community members, raising awareness and generating support for language education within and beyond the school environment. What we call on is a set of deliberate strategies that go beyond what has been done so far, giving educators the tools needed to make a change.

Show-not-tell is recommended for teachers running WL programs in a community that is not yet ready to embrace the benefits and impact of WL education. Actions and experiences speak louder than words alone. With purposeful and strategic integration of advocacy into their teaching practice, teachers could promote their programs by showcasing student success and creating opportunities for students to interact with the local community using the language learned. Conversely, show-and-tell is recommended for teachers in communities more receptive to WL learning. While integrating the show-and-tell strategy into the curriculum and teaching practice, teachers are encouraged to involve the community when teaching the language. Teachers should use the shared experience to explicitly advocate for the language programs, showcasing their expertise and narrating the outcome and impact.

Building on this concept, we present four key strategies for implementing teaching as advocacy as both a mindset and an approach in the classroom. These four strategies are building alliances, connecting the classroom and community, engaging the TL community, and strategic use of social media. Each strategy is illustrated with field-tested examples, demonstrating practical and impactful ways to integrate advocacy into daily teaching. While these examples provide effective methods, they are not exhaustive. The local context and unique skills of the WL educator can present different strategies.

Building Alliances

Collaborate with Colleagues from Other Content Areas.

Language is essential for articulating ideas, allowing individuals to express thoughts, emotions, and cultural narratives (Vygotsky, 1986). To create authentic and context-rich learning experiences, WL teachers often incorporate topics from other academic disciplines into their lessons. This interdisciplinary approach highlights the interconnectedness between WLs and subjects such as science, social studies, and mathematics. It opens up opportunities for meaningful collaboration between language educators and colleagues in other fields.

By adopting an interdisciplinary approach, educators enhance students' comprehension and appreciation of language and content concurrently (García & Wei, 2014; Cummins, 2000). These collaborations expand access to WL and cultural learning and serve as an advocacy tool within the school community, emphasizing the importance of transdisciplinary learning and cultural literacy as essential components of a well-rounded education (García, 2009; Christian, 2018). The following examples illustrate the potential of cross-curricular collaboration: In a social studies unit on global cultures, a Spanish teacher partnered with a history teacher to create a project where students researched and presented on Spanish-speaking countries, combining language skills with cultural and historical insights. In another instance, a mathematics teacher collaborated with a Chinese instructor to teach multiplication in both languages, comparing and contrasting problem-solving in both cultures. In another case, a fine arts teacher worked with a German teacher to lead their classrooms in exploring the representation of celebrations in German artwork. Then, students created their own celebrations, with the art classroom focusing on art creation and the German classroom focusing on the language for group presentations. These partnerships enrich the learning experience by demonstrating the relevance of language across various academic contexts and reinforcing the connection between WL study and broader educational goals (ACTFL, 2015; Christian, 2018; García & Wei, 2014).

These examples of advocacy recognize the audience (teachers, students, and school leaders) and communicate through shared experiences that enhance learning and engagement, with tangible products (e.g., presentations, art products) as the medium. Cross-disciplinary projects promote critical thinking and collaboration skills, showing students how language learning extends beyond the classroom into real-world applications. These partnerships encourage a deeper understanding of language as a tool for exploration and connection, fostering an environment where students appreciate the broader relevance of WL in their academic and future professional lives.

Working across Formal and Informal Education.

Ms. Gu (pseudonym), a Chinese language teacher in a rural midwestern town, initiated a collaboration with her colleague who taught culinary courses and led the school's Culinary Club. This partnership stemmed from Ms. Gu's enthusiasm for integrating food culture into her curriculum and her colleague's interest in exploring Chinese cuisine. Through this joint effort, Chinese language learners

engaged in hands-on cooking activities while practicing language skills in a real-world context. Culinary students, in turn, were introduced to Chinese food culture and gained valuable experience guiding their peers through the preparation of traditional Chinese dishes.

This teaching as advocacy project exemplified the show-and-tell advocacy approach within the school, district, and community. The show aspect came to life as students shared their culinary creations with classmates and took dishes home to their families, sparking curiosity and positive feedback. This set the stage for the tell, where students described their learning experiences and teachers reflected on the collaborative process and its educational benefits. This method not only enriched students' language and cultural knowledge but also empowered them to advocate for their learning and cultural heritage, reinforcing the value of WL.

The success of this collaboration led to further initiatives, supported by the school district's commitment to multicultural education. Ms. Gu expanded her curriculum to include more multicultural elements and organized multicultural festivals, creating stronger ties between language learning and cultural engagement. This progression demonstrated the power of the show-and-tell advocacy strategy, showing how initial efforts can spark broader community interest and sustained support for WL programs.

Connecting Classroom and Community

Harnessing the Power of Service Learning.

Service learning is an experiential learning approach where students apply academic knowledge and critical thinking skills to address real-world community needs (Toole & Toole, 1994). It is regarded as a valuable pedagogical tool that creates authentic learning experiences that help students link theoretical knowledge to practical, real-world applications, deepening their understanding of both (Salam et al., 2019). Through service learning, students develop vital skills such as critical thinking, problem-solving, and interpersonal communication (Cress, 2019; Salam et al., 2019). Furthermore, it has been found to enhance self-esteem (Eppler et al., 2011) and foster a long-term commitment to civic engagement (Fullerton et al., 2015; Jacoby, 2022). These experiences not only benefit the individual student but also contribute to stronger community ties and social responsibility for WL learners and instructors.

Service learning offers a unique way to connect WL classrooms to the community, providing an opportunity to demonstrate the value of WL education. This approach not only allows students to show how they can contribute to society but also to tell a broader audience about their experiences, fostering discussions within the community and even on social media (Mitchell, 2021).For example, students might engage in language-based projects such as translation services for local organizations or cultural outreach activities, receiving positive feedback from community partners (Jacoby, 2022; Griffiths, 2020). These experiences strengthen the connection between classroom instruction and real-world applications, cultivating a deeper understanding of language's role in society.

Serving Senior Citizens at Nursing Homes.

Mr. Yang (pseudonym) teaches Chinese in a large urban community with a large Chinese-speaking population. In this community, there is a nursing home that houses many Chinese-speaking senior citizens who experience isolation and rarely receive visits from their relatives. To create mutual benefits, Mr. Yang reached out to the local nursing home and designed a series of service-learning projects where his students could serve the elderly (Yu, & Liu, 2023). To make the service-learning experiences both authentic and relevant, Mr. Yang integrated projects into his Chinese curriculum. For a unit on "Hometown," Mr. Yang's middle school Chinese learners prepared greeting cards for the senior citizens ahead of the Mid-Autumn Festival. This festival is a time when people often return to their hometowns, so students also brought interview questions related to their hometowns, encouraging conversations with the elderly. Afterward, the students spent time with the senior citizens to celebrate the Mid-Autumn Festival, enjoying performances and sharing mooncakes.

Later, during the late winter when students were learning about the origins, traditions, and celebrations of Chinese New Year, Mr. Yang planned another service-learning project. Students returned to the nursing home to engage with elderly. They made lanterns and a traditional Chinese New Year craft, and they hosted game stations to bring festive cheer to the senior citizens. This opportunity allowed students to practice their language skills and provided them with a deeper connection to Chinese traditions while it fostered intergenerational bonds.

Such trips allow students to practice their language skills and immerse themselves in Chinese culture, and enhance their intercultural communication abilities. By interacting with senior citizens, students learn to care for others and develop a deeper sense of community. Over time, these experiences foster a commitment to community service, as students realize the impact they can have on others. Some students continue their visits to the nursing home even after graduating from high school, and this has become a cherished tradition within Mr. Yang's Chinese program. The long-term commitment of these students to the community highlights the lasting impact of these service-learning experiences. Mr. Yang and his Chinese learners are highly spoken of not only in the nursing home but also in the local community. This ongoing relationship has cultivated a strong reputation for the program, reflecting its positive influence on students and the community.

Mr. Yang's service-learning projects are powerful examples of teaching as advocacy: they provide opportunities to use the show-not-tell approach. Moreover, they move from implicit to explicit forms of advocacy for WL education. The service Mr. Yang and his students provide to senior citizens at the nursing home creates a ripple effect that extends far beyond the immediate impact on the elderly community. This initiative highlights the quality of the Chinese program and positions it as a model for broader advocacy. It provides an opportunity for Mr. Yang, his colleagues, and local community members to show the impact of their work and after the impact is visible to tell their story to a wider audience.

Engaging Target Language Communities: Ripple Effect of Cultural Impact.

Engaging TL communities in WL education offers significant benefits for both WL learners and communities. These communities provide authentic cultural and linguistic contexts for students to practice and develop real-world communication skills. TL communities help bridge the gap between language and culture, creating an immersive learning experience. Since they often face challenges related to cultural adjustment and integration, they benefit from establishing deeper connections with the broader society (Kramsch, 1993; García, 2009). By partnering with TL communities, educators can highlight the relevance of these programs in real-world contexts. The collaboration helps illustrate the tangible benefits of WL knowledge, ultimately encouraging broader support for language education programs (Lo Bianco, 2001; Norton, 2013)

Collaboration with a Local Chinese Restaurant.

Ms. Liang (pseudonym) taught in an urban middle school; her collaboration with a local Chinese restaurant was an unplanned yet impactful example of teaching as advocacy. By incorporating a real-world menu design project into her Chinese food unit, Ms. Liang gave her students an authentic learning experience. It spread positive messages about the WL program throughout the community. The restaurant's sponsorship of the competition, with prizes for the top designs, greatly motivated students and engaged them in meaningful cultural application. The restaurant owner's participation in the award ceremony further reinforced the partnership, enhancing students' pride in their work.

This collaboration also promoted the restaurant, which saw an increase in community attention and customers. Many students, proud of their contributions to the restaurant's updated menu, brought their families and friends to check out the changes. Through this experience, Ms. Liang's students gained valuable language skills and indirectly advocated for the Chinese WL program. This project contributed to the restaurant impacting the community. This partnership demonstrates how teachers utilize show-not-tell strategy to advocate for both her language program and benefit the community, fostering cultural exchange and pride.

Celebration with Local Culture Association.

As a first-year teacher in a suburban school district, Ms. Zhen (pseudonym) reached out to the local Chinese Cultural Association for ideas and resources for organizing a schoolwide Chinese New Year celebration. The Chinese cultural organization offered a group of traditional Chinese musicians for school-based performances. Ms. Zhen brought the Chinese celebration performances to her school, providing opportunities for students to interact with the Chinese musicians and their relatives. This collaboration exposed students to the joy of learning about other cultures and languages.

This collaboration could exemplify a shift from show-not-tell to show-and-tell if Ms. Zhang integrates it more intentionally into her curriculum. For instance, she could assign students the task of selecting and presenting their own ways to celebrate Chinese New Year, incorporating these ideas into the larger celebration alongside performances from the Chinese Culture Association. By allowing stu-

dents to showcase their learning at a schoolwide celebration, they feel recognized for their efforts and encouraged to advocate for Chinese culture within the broader school community.

Strategic Use of Social Media: Amplifying Student Success Beyond the Classroom.

In the age of information overload (Levitin, 2014), advocacy needs a medium that reaches the target audience and transcend the boundaries of classrooms. Teachers are encouraged to utilize social media platforms to share the excitement of WL learning and celebrate student achievements. Social media serves as a powerful advocacy tool for WL programs by enhancing their visibility. By sharing the achievements of their students, teachers can raise awareness and generate support for language programs. Research indicates that digital platforms enhance the public's understanding of WL education, fostering stronger community engagement and advocacy (Hernandez, 2020; Roth, 2019). This increased visibility contributes to a greater appreciation for the value of WL education in both local and global contexts.

Acknowledgment of Student Effort.

Ms. Lin (pseudonym) taught Chinese in an urban school district. In her project planner, the final step for all field trips and service-learning projects is always an acknowledgment message to be shared school-wide. For example, she collaborated with the local Chinese Culture Association, bringing her students to serve as ushers for the Chinese New Year Gala. This experience was invaluable for her students, who practiced their Chinese in meaningful, real-world interactions with the Chinese-speaking community and immersed themselves in the vibrant traditions of Chinese culture. Early the following day, Ms. Lin crafted a thank-you message to recognize her students' contributions and requested that it be shared in the school's morning announcements. She also sent a similar message via email to the parents and guardians of all participating students. This acknowledgment sparked enthusiastic conversations within and beyond the school community, highlighting the students' meaningful engagement. Ms. Lin's consistent recognition of her students' efforts became a powerful show-not-tell advocacy for her Chinese program. As a result, enrollment in her program doubled, and positive feedback about her work persisted. Her commitment to celebrating student contributions and fostering authentic cultural experiences strengthened her program and left a lasting impact on the entire school community.

Statewide Echo Effect: Seal of Biliteracy Recipients.

The Seal of Biliteracy (SoBL) is an award that recognizes high school students who have studied and attained proficiency in two or more languages by graduation. In Nebraska, the Department of Education (NDE) issues a news release three times a year, in April, August, and November, to announce each round's SoBL recipients. After the release, NDE WL Education includes the announcement in its bimonthly newsletter and shares it across Facebook, X, and Instagram, tagging relevant stakeholders. Language organizations, teachers, and school districts amplify this recognition by liking, reposting, and sharing it on their own social media plat-

forms, and local newspapers report on their area's recipients. Collectively, these actions create a statewide echo effect that celebrates student achievements and broadens public awareness for the Seal of Biliteracy across Nebraska. Despite a later start in adopting the SoBL, Nebraska has experienced a remarkable impact: the number of recipients increased by over 500% within two years. This networked acknowledgment honors students' dedication to WL learning and strengthens the Seal's presence and prestige. Many teachers have integrated the SoBL into their curriculum to inform, prepare, and support students in obtaining this distinction. By weaving information about the Seal into their instruction, these teachers practice teaching as advocacy, using their classroom as a platform to raise awareness, guide students toward language proficiency, and inspire them to set and achieve their linguistic goals.

Discussion

Adopting the mindset of teaching as advocacy can transform WL teaching from an isolated classroom activity to a vibrant, community-centered practice. While this approach is currently applied on a smaller scale, making it explicit and strategic could have profound benefits. Importantly, advocacy does not have to be an additional burden for teachers; rather, with a simple shift in mindset, educators can tailor their existing practices to incorporate advocacy seamlessly and expand their influence beyond boundaries. Examples such as Ms. Gu's asking students to share food with other classes and even take it home open opportunities for discussion and allow for potential advocacy.

By understanding their audience more deeply, WL teachers can weave Connection and Community into language learning to enrich students' experiences and raise public awareness of WL programs without requiring much extra work. For example, Ms. Liang made the menu project authentic and motivating. Advocacy can mean connecting classroom work with real-world context, integrating cultural events in the curriculum, and acknowledging students' efforts with an implied effect via social media. It could involve partnering with local community members to immerse students in authentic cultural practice and service-learning activities that bridge classroom learning with potential applications in the outside world. Imagine the impact WL advocacy could have if more teachers adopted the approach of teaching as advocacy and integrated advocacy components into their teaching practices.

Promoting public awareness about WL education is a natural extension of teaching practices. WL teachers are the best advocates because they understand their communities and have access to authentic narratives from the field. By optimizing the learning experience for students, teachers are creating a more exciting narrative to be shared with the community while elevating the perceived value of WL education. Sharing impactful stories and examples of student achievements that resonate across various communities can inspire collective support and encourage others to embrace similar methods. These practices help build momentum for a model that transcends traditional teaching boundaries and fosters a more interconnected world embracing WL education. Creating pathways for prac-

tical implementation can involve embedding teaching as advocacy training within professional development programs or establishing partnerships that support and promote the shift in mindset toward this approach. Ultimately, promoting teaching as advocacy enriches educational experiences and strengthens social cohesion by highlighting the inherent value of WL education and cross-cultural understanding. This shift, rooted in current teaching practices and mindsets, positions WL teachers as vital advocates for building culturally aware and linguistically diverse communities.

Conclusion

Teaching as advocacy aligns closely with the Connection and Community components of the 5Cs framework by ACTFL. Many teachers have noted challenges in incorporating these elements into their practice. Strategic teaching as advocacy bridges this gap by building connections with the community and incorporating real-life contexts into lessons. As for communities not ready to embrace WL education, show speaks louder than tell. The constant show would gradually prepare the communities for the tell and to alternate their narratives about WL learning. Enriched teaching and learning experiences form the content for show, while connections with the community create the platform for tell. Together, show and tell creates a powerful advocacy message that can inspire a ripple effect.

In conclusion, adopting the mindset of teaching as advocacy empowers WL teachers to extend their influence beyond the classroom and into the broader community. By promoting this approach as a best practice, educators can address Connection and Community by collaborating with others to create meaningful, contextualized language learning while advocating for their programs. Utilizing teaching as advocacy, teachers are encouraged to think about ways their teaching can become visible, relatable, and relevant in their community. Through these efforts, WL teaching becomes not just an educational practice but a powerful tool for advocating multilingual practice, building cultural appreciation, and enhancing openness and dialogue.

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9

Teacher perspectives on K–12 world language program articulation

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Challenge statement

World language programs face challenges in offering extended language learning sequences. What can educators, administrators, and policymakers do to create learning sequences that will encourage students to enroll in world language courses and continue studying languages throughout their academic careers?

Abstract

Though advocates of world language education have long discussed the importance of program sequence and structure in relation to student experiences and learning outcomes (Byrnes, 1990, 2001, 2008), clearly articulated programs are still considered rarities within the U.S. world language education context, to the detriment of learners (e.g., Huntley, 2021) and program health (e.g., Uebel et al., 2023). Issues with continuity and coherence may surface within the same school between grade levels and/or across different institutions. In this paper, we report on a focus group with five secondary world language teachers. Data come from a larger project designed to better understand how articulation is established and maintained within and across language programs. Thematic analysis revealed how internal and external factors shape program coherence throughout primary and secondary grade levels. Data highlight an array of interrelated policies and practices that teachers identified as pivotal to program articulation in K–12 context. We interpret and discuss the results in relation to language access and advocacy work. Additionally, we propose recommendations for educators, administrators, and policymakers interested in improving language learning sequences.

Keywords: Program articulation, K–12 world language education, advocacy

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Efforts to sustain and expand U.S. world language (WL) education must reflect how students progress through learning sequences and the options available at different educational phases. Policies, institutional practices, and stakeholders guide students through their schooling in ways that either encourage or discourage sustained language study. Strong K–16 program articulation, or the coordination of programs within and across different institutional levels (Byrnes, 1990) is achieved when stakeholders consistently support and plan for language education. This support can happen through official programs and partnerships (see De Ville, 2020 and Corl et al., 1996 for examples), as well as classroom and programmatic practices that facilitate continuity from primary school to secondary school to higher education.

This paper reports on a focus group with five secondary WL teachers. The focus group was part of the K–16 world language program articulation project, led by the Assessment and Evaluation Language Resource Center (AELRC), which aims to understand and address barriers to program articulation in U.S. WL programs. Drawing from this larger project, the study highlights one online focus group to explore teacher perspectives within the K–12 context, focusing on what they identify as current challenges and opportunities for motivating and supporting WL study. The preliminary methods and results discussed here will inform future phases of research.

Literature Review

The pursuit of articulated language learning sequences has long captured the interest of stakeholders involved in the WL education capacity of the United States (e.g., Coalition of Foreign Language Organizations, 1995; Lally, 2001). Described as the "the well-motivated and well-designed sequencing and coordination of instruction toward certain goals" (Byrnes, 1990, p. 281), program articulation encapsulates "the interrelationship and continuity of contents, curriculum instruction, and evaluation with programs which focus on the progress of students in learning to both comprehend and communicate in a second language" (Lange, 1988, p. 16). Clearly articulated programs are associated with improved language learning outcomes and positive student experiences (Byrnes, 2008; Jackson & Masters-Wicks, 1995; Metcalf, 1995). Because articulated language learning sequences reflect "educationally sound, efficient, and effective foreign language programs" (Byrnes, 2001, p. 161), advocates for U.S. WL education have long called

for increased attention for program articulation so that students are prepared for success in an increasingly interconnected and multilingual world (e.g., The Coalition of Foreign Language Associations, 1995). Such cohesion can be achieved through different means. Lange (1982) proposes three levels of program articulation: horizontal, vertical, and interdisciplinary. The present study explores vertical articulation, or "the internal flow of a program from its beginning to its completion" (Lange, 1982, p. 115). When examining language learning sequences that span several institutional levels, as must be done to understand the state of U.S. in K–16 WL education, it is crucial to address instances of suspended articulation. These are "situations in which articulation may be achieved horizontally or vertically at local levels but is not connected vertically between institutional levels" (Garza & Watzke, 1997, p. 305).

In the 1990s, the U.S. Department of Education funded several large-scale initiatives to strengthen K–16 WL program articulation and enhance language learner proficiency outcomes. These included the South Carolina project for Improved Articulation (Dernoshek, 2001); the Ohio Collaborative Articulation and Assessment Project (Corl et al., 1996; Robinson, 2001); the Minnesota Articulation Project (Chalhoub-Deville, 1997; Tedick & Alcaya, 2001), and the Southern Oregon Foreign Language Association articulation project (Arnold, 2007). Reports on these initiatives illuminated practices and policies that informed articulation in each context. They also highlighted two different approaches to articulation: a top-down approach and a process-oriented approach (e.g., Corl et al., 1996). In the top-down approach, post-secondary institutions determine learner standards and anticipated outcomes, which are then communicated to primary and secondary institutions. In contrast, the process-oriented approach involves collaboration among stakeholders from all institutional levels to structure an extended course sequence tailored to their local context and needs. Regardless of approach, a strong and active interface between K–12 educators, postsecondary instructors, and program administrators is required.

A synthesis of this early literature on this issue links articulation success to three primary axes of influence: curriculum, instruction, and learner (Barrette & Paesani, 2004). In their proposed model of program articulation, Barrette and Paesani explore each axis through the lens of 11 individual factors that previous scholars have identified as relevant to program sequencing. These factors include communication, curriculum, development of proficiency skills vs. content knowledge, faculty traits, institutional culture, language learning context, language program director, program administration, second language acquisition research or beliefs, student characteristics, and teaching methods. Each of the 11 factors can be examined from the perspective of each axis. The resulting model of program articulation demonstrates why strong sequencing initially and then continues to pose challenges over decades (Freeman, 1947; De Ville, 2020), with interest waxing and waning with the availability of resources needed to establish, promote, and maintain articulation structures such as inter-institutional coalitions (Metcalf, 1995).

More recently, declining higher education WL enrollment (Lusin et al., 2023) has prompted a renewed interest in examining the health of extended language

learning sequences. Because transitions across institutional levels have been identified as moments where students may often choose to stop studying language altogether (e.g., Harnisch et al., 2011), a focus on these transitions is crucial to understanding the factors that may facilitate or impede program articulation. With the robust and freely available data on postsecondary language programs, particularly from the Modern Language Association national enrollment surveys (Lusin et al., 2023), considerable research has been conducted on language program articulation at the higher education level (e.g., Gabbitas, 2011; Garza & Watzke, 1997; Knigga, 2012; Uebel et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2023). Though comparably limited, data on K–12 program health suggests that developing and sustaining well-sequenced programming is also a challenge at the primary and secondary levels (e.g., Curtain & Dahlberg, 2004; Rhodes & Pufahl, 2008). However, little research has explored the transition points within primary and secondary levels since the 1990s (e.g., Met, 1994; Pesola, 1988; Rieken et al., 1996).

Teacher perspectives provide an essential voice in research about WL education practices and program articulation. While published work provides guidance for language educators and program administrators (e.g., Lord & Isabelli, 2014) and there is a growing body of research on student perspectives on articulation (albeit at the postsecondary level, see Diao & Liu, 2020; Huntley, 2021; Murphy et al., 2022; Van Gorp et al., 2024), there is a dearth of empirical investigations on K–12 teacher perspectives on this topic. Recent research on teacher perspectives in WL education has largely focused on higher education (see Uebel et al., 2023) rather than K–12 educators. In one recent study of Chinese language articulation between high school and college, Zhao et al. (2023) included both secondary and postsecondary teachers in a survey of perceptions of the efficacy of college placement procedures. This work highlights the insight teachers can provide into articulation, and the sometimes-divergent perspective between teaching contexts. Through qualitative research about the perspectives of K–12 WL teachers, we thus hope to develop a richer understanding of program articulation needs and to share practices that educators identify as most valuable.

Given the central role articulation plays in the health and success of WL programs, the impact of instructors on the development and delivery of language learning sequences, and the need to better document the status of K–12 WL education, the present study investigates K–12 language teacher perspectives on program articulation. The analysis of a single focus group presented here allows us to both highlight and discuss the insights of this group in detail, while also refining our coding and analysis methodologies for the larger study. We address one guiding question: What can we learn from K–12 teachers about the factors that motivate and affect world language learning sequences in their programs and contexts?

Methods

The data presented here come from a semi-structured virtual focus group, conducted as part of a larger project. We begin by providing a brief overview of the large-scale, multiple-method research study this focus group is a part of, and then

describe the methods used for focus group recruitment, data collection, and analysis.

The K–16 World Language Program Articulation Project

The goal of the larger research project is to study articulation within and across language programs with a focus on how WL programs bridge K–12 and college language study. We want to understand the sequences of learning, transition points, and challenges as well as successful practices for program articulation. Methods in the larger study include focus groups, surveys, and interviews with three groups: WL teachers, WL students, and program administrators. We are also analyzing state-level policies in WL education, including graduation requirements in language and whether WL is a compulsory offering in K–12 public schools, to understand the current policy context surrounding articulation issues. While the broader study includes issues of articulation across programs and the high school-to-college transition, this paper focuses on findings related to articulation and learning sequences within K–12 programs.

Recruitment and Participants

Participants were recruited using an electronic recruitment letter distributed through our professional networks of WL educators and programs via email and social media. The recruitment letter also included a request for recipients to share the message within their own professional networks. Potential participants expressed their interest in the project via an electronic interest form hosted on the online survey platform Qualtrics.

In selecting focus group participants, we tried to ensure that a variety of languages, levels, and school contexts were represented. Participants completed an electronic consent form before the group and received a $25 e-gift card for taking part in the study. Table 1 summarizes the participant characteristics in terms of languages and grade levels taught, U.S. region, and school context. Given the small groupsize, we do not report participant demographic information here.

Table 1
Focus group participants

Participant	Language taught	Grade level(s) taught	U.S. region	Public or private school
1	French	Grades 9–12	Northeast	Public
2	Spanish	Grades 6–12	South	Private
3	Spanish	Grades K–12	West	Public
4	Italian	Grades 6–8	Northeast	Public
5	Chinese	Grades 6–8	Northeast	Private

In the larger project, we conducted eight focus groups total with 33 WL teachers, students, and administrators. The data presented here are from one of two K–12

teacher groups, which was selected for in-depth analysis due to the particularly robust discussion.

Focus Group Procedure

To elicit participants' perspectives on articulation, we facilitated a one-hour virtual focus group discussion (Kruger & Casey, 2014). The focus group was led by an experienced group facilitator (and one of the authors of this study). The facilitator was experienced working with K–12 WL teachers. Prior to facilitating the group, the facilitator completed training led by a focus group expert that focused on strategies for generating discussion. A notetaker was also present during the session. The notetaker was also recorded observations but did not participate in the conversation.

The focus group was conducted using the online video conferencing platform Zoom. Participants were asked to keep their video cameras on to help facilitate turn-taking throughout the conversation. They were also invited to use the Zoom chat feature to provide additional information about any programs or resources that were mentioned throughout the conversation (e.g., website links). The session was video recorded through the Zoom platform.

The facilitator used a semi-structured interview protocol to lead the conversation (see Appendix 1). The session began with a welcome message to the participants followed by an overview of the focus group purpose and expectations before moving into several predetermined topics of interest. The facilitator's role was to elicit comments, ideas, and opinions from the group members, but not to offer her own opinions or perspectives. Immediately following the focus group, the facilitator and the notetaker met to synthesize their initial impressions and each independently wrote a one-page summary memo of the group and their impressions of the discussion. The video recording and auto-generated transcripts were then downloaded from Zoom for analysis.

Analysis Procedure

We conducted thematic coding of the focus group transcript. To prepare the transcript, one member of the research team reviewed the auto-generated text from Zoom against the video recording, corrected transcription errors, and removed all names and identifying information about schools and programs. Each author then coded the transcript for themes. Because we wanted to describe policies and practices identified by teachers, we adopted what Braun and Clarke (2006) identify as a semantic approach to coding. That is, we coded the direct, explicit meaning of the conversation rather than identifying latent codes representing implicit or underlying meanings. We followed Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-step framework: (1) data familiarization; (2) generate initial codes; (3) sort initial codes into potential themes; (4) refine themes; (5) determine the "essence" of themes; and (6) write analysis of themes.

In the first, coders individually read through an electronic copy of the transcript at least twice. In step two, each coder independently added semantic codes using the Google document comment feature. The codes captured policies or practices related to WL program articulation. For step three, each coder then sum-

marized observations and potential themes in an individual coding memo. For steps four and five, we met as a group to discuss themes, refine our analysis, and determine the essence or main ideas of the themes in relation to our research question. We also reviewed notes and memos from the facilitator and notetaker to confirm our interpretations. Overall, the independent work conducted in steps one through three resulted in common findings and interpretations among the three coders in steps four through five. Finally, in the sixth step, we collaboratively drafted and edited an analytical narrative integrating data extracts to tell a persuasive story about the data.

Results

Our guiding question is: What can we learn from K–12 teachers about the factors that motivate and affect WL learning sequences in their programs and contexts? Although the facilitator asked about articulation within and across programs (i.e., from high school to college), teachers in the focus group mostly discussed how students progress through language study from elementary, middle, and high school within their district or school. During the analysis process, we grouped the factors teachers mentioned into internal factors (i.e., those inside a teacher's school or district) and external factors (i.e., influences outside of the school or district) although in conversation there was often overlap between these two categories. Table 2 summarizes the themes that emerged from the discussion according to this internal and external categorization.

Table 2
Teacher-identified factors affecting K–12 language study within programs

Internal factors affecting language study	External factors affecting language study
• Guidance counselors and advising practices within schools and programs • Language teacher quality and the reputation of the language teacher and program (among students, parents, counselors) • Perspectives of parents/families and influence on student decisions • Overall availability of programs or classes, types of programs, and the timing of when language study begins within a system • Place of language instruction in overall curriculum	• College admissions requirements for language study • Advanced Placement (AP) testing • Career readiness

Internal Factors

As noted in Table 1, participants discussed the important role of guidance counselors in steering students towards or away from language studies, and the teachers perceived these individuals as having a strong influence on student choices. For instance, while acknowledging the complicated situations counselors encounter, a French teacher explained one trend in her school that has negatively impacted WL:

> A lot of students have burnout because of all the pressure and stress…our counselors have tried to combat that in various ways. Unfortunately, sometimes they take students who are excelling in language and can handle an honors program, but they put them in college prep and the kids don't like it […] That has challenged students because they don't feel like they can say no to the counselor. (French teacher, grades 9–12)

Though individual situations varied, each teacher described the importance of knowledgeable guidance counselors who could advocate for WL study. The advice of guidance counselors was reported to interact with a second internal factor: the reputation of the WL teacher. One participant explained that counselors knew the reputations of different WL teachers, and recommended students take classes with certain instructors over others. Instructors who connected language learning to students' specific interests, such as career goals or personal and heritage connections to make the subject more relevant and meaningful, were discussed as most impactful, even if making these connections deviated from prescribed curricular expectations. Through simulating real-life experiences and telling students about future opportunities to use their new language skills in internships, study abroad opportunities, or summer programs, teachers aimed to help students see the value of their coursework. Teacher reputation came up several times throughout the focus group, and it was clear in the discussion that participants perceived this as a major driver of student enrollment in language classes. One teacher discussed the role of teacher reputation in less commonly taught languages, and described how a popular teacher can independently attract students and sustain a program.

Teachers also identified parents and families as important influences on whether students study a WL and what language they choose to study, particularly at the lower grade levels. During the focus group, participants noted that parents may guide their children towards languages perceived as more useful for future career paths or jobs, and thus communicating with parents about the value of a program or language is a part of the advocacy role that many teachers play. One teacher explained:

> [Parents] push their children to pick one language versus another for economic purposes, or for employability, or whatever they think is useful. I have a lot of the students that decide to take Italian. They're usually the students that have a say in which language they got to pick. While for other languages, like Spanish, Chinese, or Mandarin…I've heard that families have pushed the students to take these ones because

they were more useful. (Italian teacher, grades 6–8)

Program structure emerged as another variable that shaped students' opportunities for extended language learning sequences. It was clear that there was a great deal of variation even within school systems and districts. For example, students entering middle school often came from different types of elementary school programs. Exposure was a commonly-reported elementary school model in which students received instruction once or a few times a week in a language with the purpose of exposing them to the language and encouraging future language study. Several instructors commented that their exposure programs rotated through several languages. Other students came to middle school from dual language immersion elementary school programs and thus entered middle school with extensive WL learning experience. The excerpt below illustrates the intricacies associated with coordinating cross-institution language learning sequences when multiple program types are involved:

> We have two immersion schools, so kids can start in kindergarten if they win the lottery and then they can go to the Spanish or Mandarin immersion schools. If they don't win the lottery, they have to wait until seventh grade to start language. Then, when they get to high school, they end up in level two language classes. But, students who are heritage speakers of language can be placed into high school at a higher level by taking a placement. (Spanish instructor, grades K–12)

Further discussion of student needs indicated that, in these teachers' contexts, there were often different tracks for students: a standard track of language study for students with limited or no elementary school language experience, a track for heritage students who have a family or cultural connection to the language, and a track for students with elementary school immersion experience. Teachers agreed on the challenges for secondary programs in accommodating different needs based on previous language learning experiences and creating sequences of learning that build on prior knowledge.

The final internal factor that teachers mentioned in the focus group was the role of WL education in the overall curriculum. In middle and high school, teachers noted that their schools had many curricular requirements and potential demands on students' time. Many shared that their WL programs had to navigate and advocate for their place in the curriculum. For one teacher, advanced language classes were often devalued in comparison to other subject areas. She shared:

> At my school counselors actually tell [students] to stop taking languages all together, especially right before [Advanced Placement (AP]. They'll say, "You don't need that. You have already taken four APs. You don't need a language AP." When in fact, our AP is set up so all you need to do is go to class…and you'll take the test and you will get a four or five. (Spanish teacher, grades 6–12)

Two participants shared examples of language programs being cut within their school systems. In one example, an entire elementary WL school program was

eliminated because of budgetary considerations. In another example, a Chinese language middle school program was eliminated because of limited student enrollment. Yet another struggled to provide instructional consistency across languages because of staffing issues. The teacher described:

> Students can choose from Chinese, Spanish or French. Currently, the program is based on teacher availability. So Spanish and French are alternatively offered at third grade. For example, if this year is offering Chinese and Spanish, then French is not offered. The following year Chinese and French are offered. (Chinese teacher, grades 6–8)

Situations like this stemmed from the reality shared among many teachers that WL programs had to compete for limited resources, including personnel, within schools and districts.

Several focus group participants discussed the challenge of scheduling WL classes so that all students have opportunities to study language. In one example, a teacher described a middle school where academic support classes for students with reading difficulties were scheduled at the same time as WL classes, which had the practical effect of blocking any students who needed academic support from studying language. Another teacher had a similar example of a schedule conflict that kept students from enrolling in language study. She explained:

> Last year, half of our students needed to go to study halls to work with our reading specialist. Our school policy is if you choose study hall, then you cannot take language classes because world language classes and study hall classes are offered at the same time. So that is a problem right now. (Chinese teacher, grades 6–8)

These types of schedule constraints present a practical challenge but can also be an equity issue in programs if WL instruction is not accessible to all students. Elaborating on this issue of equity, a Spanish teacher commented:

> We realized that students being pulled out of world language classes to attend academic support, for those students that have documented learning differences […] It really caused an issue with our program because then when they get to ninth grade, they haven't had the solid two teachers that their classmates did […] Ultimately they're always at a lower stair step of learning that their peers are […] From my experience with students that have learning differences, sometimes they really flourish and come to life in their world language classroom. And so it's really been a detriment pulling them out. (Spanish teacher, grades 6–12)

External Factors

At the high school level, it was common for participants to have a two-year requirement for language study. In some contexts this is a state-level law and in other contexts it is locally determined. Participants noted that the two-year requirement is influenced by expectations for college admissions as many colleges require

two years of WL study in high school, and that this drives policy for high school students as school systems want to ensure students graduate ready for college.

Participants also discussed the role of Advanced Placement (AP) testing in their contexts and noted that high school students often wanted to take AP WL classes so that they can take the AP test and receive college credit. It was clear from the discussion that, even as early as in middle school, AP testing influenced student enrollments and shaped the types of language classes that programs offer as they seek to accommodate the need for test preparation. One teacher explained the case in her district:

> If [students] enroll [in language] in sixth grade […] by the time they're in eighth grade they can take level two, which is a high school credit. So those three years [of middle school study] guarantee them the minimum requirement for a high school diploma. By the time they get to high school, they don't have to take a world language to graduate. The reason the district is doing this is to push students to take languages all the way to the AP level by the time they get to high school. (Italian school, grades 6–8)

The Seal of Biliteracy (SoBL) is an award for proficiency in two or more languages that is now offered in all fifty states and the District of Columbia. When the facilitator asked about the topic, one participant mentioned the Seal as a factor in encouraging students to continue language study, but it was not discussed extensively as something that motivates students like AP testing and graduation requirements.

A final external factor mentioned in the focus group was the relevance of language study for career goals. Participants emphasized the importance for language learning to be seen as useful for furthering students' future careers and explained how they personally advocated for language learning in their schools through the framing of career readiness. Students want to see language study as useful and practical for employment and may choose to study one language over another because of its perceived relevance for their careers. The participants noted and seemed to agree that as teachers, they emphasized the value of studying any language because language study develops global competencies and skills that extend beyond the language itself, and thus any and all language study was beneficial to learners. Another teacher recounted her approach to communicating this to stakeholders in her context:

> Part of what we teach the students is global competence. It doesn't matter what your second language is. It's that you can interact with people. You're going to be on teams with people from all over the world and you learn that in world language class. That's part and parcel of our curriculum. So that's one of the things we send back when we get pushback. (Spanish teacher, grades K–12)

Communicating this to stakeholders in their schools, including students and parents, seemed important to the group members, indicating their role as proponents of language study. One teacher said that in her program, language

teachers even received professional development about how to advocate for and communicate about the usefulness of language study.

Discussion

Findings show K–12 teachers possess extensive knowledge of the systematic factors that shape students' language learning journeys and illuminate the crucial roles teachers play both inside and outside the classroom in the vitality of WL education programs. While earlier work on language program articulation has primarily focused on administrator, student, and policymaker perspectives, our analysis revealed the importance of including teachers in future efforts to strengthen language learning sequences.

Discussion of the status of WL study within their own K-12 curricular contexts offered valuable insights about the continuity and coherence, or the lack thereof, for language courses. Status was determined through the interaction of numerous factors, with both practice and policy dimensions in their local contexts. The results highlight that teachers perceive WL classes as relegated to a lower status than other subject areas. This was evident in policies that teachers described, such as high school graduation requirements and course credit transfer procedures, as well as through local practices, such as counselors advising students against taking rigorous language courses.

The perceived lower status was also evident in the fluctuations teachers described in recounting of the histories of their programs. Our analysis showed that the quantity and scope of language offerings may often be precarious, with variance discussed between schools within the same district (e.g., one middle school offers Italian, and another does not) and within the same school from year to year (e.g., AP Spanish may be available one year and not the next). Teachers cited factors including budget cuts, teacher shortages, and parent/student interest as influencing students' language learning experiences and outcomes. For example, while students can generally expect to take Precalculus and then Calculus during their high school careers, they may not be able to count on being able to take Chinese III and then AP Chinese because the AP course may not be consistently offered. Such fluctuations may weaken the perception of importance and value of learning an additional language.

Though WL high school graduation requirements have been used as a proxy for the degree of prioritization of WL education (O'Rourke, 2016), the other local K–12 practices and policies discussed in the focus group mark novel factors that merit further investigation to better understand the extent and nature of their impact on language learning sequences and attitudes towards language learning. Interestingly, the Seal of Biliteracy was not extensively discussed in this group, even when participants were prompted by the facilitator. It may be that these focus group participants had limited awareness of the Seal or that it is not frequently discussed in their schools and districts.

Though several teachers commented on their schools' intent to support WL, this administrative support was often at odds with the day-to-day decision-making and local practices discussed in the focus group. School scheduling practices

frequently emerged in conversation as presenting a conflict for language courses because they often prohibited certain groups of students from enrolling. In this way, scheduling influenced both who had the opportunity for language study and enrollment numbers, which in turn had larger consequences for the WL program course status. Scheduling constraints has also emerged as a deterrent to continuing language study in postsecondary contexts (e.g., Diao & Liu, 2020; Murphy et al., 2022). However, at the primary and secondary levels, it has not been clearly documented in the scholarship on WL program articulation. The scenarios that emerged in the present study point to the impact of this known challenge. For example, students assigned to additional one-on-one reading support in the 8th grade of middle school could be pulled out of French classes, thus interrupting the language learning sequence they had begun two years earlier in 6th grade and perhaps limiting their interest and ability to continue with French when they transitioned to high school. The complexities and nuances of supporting longer language learning sequences due to the variance of context-specific factors (e.g., scheduling) was clearly evident in teachers' discussion and substantiate Byrnes' (1990) early claim about program articulation: "While articulation in the foreign language curriculum is clearly a national issue, its most viable and most expeditiously implemented solutions are likely to occur at the regional and local levels" (p. 291).

Indeed, many of the teachers in this focus group were already aware of the power of local solutions. Given the perceived place of WL within their larger K–12 curricula (lower and less important) and irrespective of the unique constellation of policies and patterns in place in their own contexts, the teachers all positioned themselves as advocates for their subject. Drawing on their substantial knowledge of the inner workings of their districts, programs, and schools, teachers discussed the ways in which they were working to better champion WL study. Such advocacy work was discussed as necessary, given the secondary status of their subject within their school communities and the resulting volatility that disrupted students' learning opportunities. Teachers described leveraging external factors. For example, among schools that placed a premium on college readiness, teachers emphasized the importance of communicating to administrators, families, and students how being multilingual advanced their postsecondary educational prospects. Beyond academic pursuits, teachers also stressed the importance of representing the benefits of language learning professional or vocational success, as well as general wellbeing in an increasingly interconnected world, throughout grades K–12, complimenting similar calls in action, but at the postsecondary level (e.g., Van Gorp et al., 2024; Lanvers et al., 2021). Much of the advocacy work teachers described was anticipatory and future-looking, meaning that it reflected work that teachers hoped or wanted to be able to do, but were not currently actively pursuing.

Recommendations and Advocacy

Drawing on findings presented here and more broadly on our work with WL programs and teachers through the AELRC and heeding the Coalition of Foreign Language Associations' (1995) call to action for increased collaboration, we next

present recommendations for educators and administrators seeking to strengthen WL learning opportunities for students across their primary and secondary school careers. For each recommendation, we have also included a related resource for WL educators.

Strengthen and support teachers as advocates for language study. Teachers are important advocates for language study, and committed professionals often understand their roles as including advocacy work. Teachers are often responsible for communicating with many different stakeholders, including students, parents and families, guidance counselors, and school and district administrators. Specialized training or professional development for this advocacy role could help teachers better articulate the value of language study to different audiences and give teachers practical support in this important but often unacknowledged role.

Recommended resource. Professional WL teacher associations, including ACTFL and Central States, offer teachers opportunities for community, mentorship, and professional development. Conventions, conferences, and professional development can support teachers in their advocacy work and be source for information and tools. The Central States website has a hub for advocacy resources: **https://www.csctfl.org/about/advocacy.**

Develop training materials for key stakeholder groups.

While teachers are often the most important advocates for their programs and for language study more generally, they should not bear the sole responsibility of communicating why language education matters. Specialized trainings and other materials should be developed targeting families and parents, guidance counselors, and school administrators. These trainings and communication materials could be locally developed or could be created through projects at a statewide or even national level as many schools and districts share similar challenges and communication needs. Key training topics include the usefulness and applicability of language study as well as the importance of language education for all students. Resources for guidance counselors seem particularly needed as counselors support students in prioritizing goals and in navigating scheduling conflicts.

Recommend resource. The Department of Education funds Language Resource Centers (LRCs). These centers, located in universities, have the mission of supporting WL teaching and learning across the U.S. and disseminate many free resources for programs and teachers. LRCs regularly provide professional development workshops and summer institutes. The LRC website includes a links to sites for all sixteen centers and a central calendar with events and training activities: **https://nflrc.org/.**

Encourage students to be lifelong language learners.

Programs and teachers should explicitly encourage students to think of themselves as lifelong language learners and to continue studying language. This encouragement may include discussing and supporting future opportunities for studying the language within and beyond an individual program. It can also involve making global competencies and skills more explicit to students so that they understand the broader value of language study and can connect it to their own

goals for education and career. Students should understand what sequences of language study are available to them, how they can progress through these classes, and the value of doing so.

Recommended resource. The Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL), a private, not-for-profit institute, developed free materials to highlight federal career opportunities that use language skills. An interactive pathway guide shows learners different options for sustained language study. Although designed specifically for heritage learners of critical languages, the podcasts, videos, and resources on this site could easily be adapted for use with many different learners to highlight the value of language learning: **https://www.cal.org/connecting-language-learners-to-federal-careers/.**

Improve within-program articulation by including teachers in planning.

Program planning and communication across schools can help create meaningful, articulated sequences of learning that leverage previous language study and encourage proficiency development. Local program structures are dynamic and subject to frequent changes, making within-program articulation particularly challenging, as school systems often have disjointed or disconnected sequences of learning. Additionally, articulation is often difficult for students who completed dual language immersion programs in elementary school and then enter middle school and high school with extensive language learning experience. Teachers have deep insights into and practical ideas about internal program articulation and should be included in the planning process. Future research should more deeply explore the practical barriers to within-program K–-12 articulation as this is a known challenge.

Recommended resource. Many state departments of elementary and secondary education have personnel who are responsible for WL education at the state level, and their work often focuses on policy and planning as well as communication, professional development, and advising on best practices. In addition to reviewing state department of education websites, those interested in learning more about state WL offices and personnel can find information from the National Council of State Supervisors for Languages (NCSSFL), the professional association for state personnel. The NCSSFL site is also an excellent policy and advocacy resource: **https://www.ncssfl.org/.**

Create language programs that serve all students.

All K–12 students deserve equal access to language learning opportunities, but barriers to this include both practical challenges such as class scheduling as well as attitudes and expectations about which students should take language courses. Long-term planning and administrator involvement are necessary to ensure that language classes are available to all students and that educators, parents, and students understand the value of language education for every student. This also requires school systems to consider and prioritize the role of WL within the K–12 curriculum. Finally, teachers need support and resources for teaching language to all students, including resources for differentiated instruction and for teaching students with disabilities.

Recommended resource. An increasing number of research and resources are focused on supporting students with disabilities in the language classroom. The online course Dyslexia and Foreign Language Teaching, designed by Judit Kormos, includes practical teaching tools to support dyslexic students and can be completed for free: **https://www.futurelearn.com/courses/dyslexia.**

Conclusion

In this paper, we reported on a single focus group discussion with five language educators. While the results are resonant with existing literature and trends in U.S. WL education, the findings are not comprehensive and represent only the perspectives of these participants. Additional focus group and survey research is needed to develop a more complete and current understanding of program articulation within and across contexts. We recognize that less commonly taught language (LCTL) language programs and teachers may face distinct challenges that are not captured in this analysis.

Findings from a single focus group, although limited, do provide a better understanding of within-program articulation and some of the factors that motivate K–12 WL study. In most U.S. contexts, WL is an optional rather than a required subject, and there is a great deal of variability in how programs organize and sequence language instruction. Language programs are also in a frequent state of change as they adapt to their evolving contexts. Within this dynamic environment, teachers often serve as advocates for their programs and their continued vitality. Our hope is that this research has illuminated some of the current practices and challenges in developing strong K–12 language programs with clear pathways for students through elevating teacher perspectives on articulation. Ideally, K–12 programs would also serve as an on-ramp for future language study at the college level, and our broader research project will ultimately incorporate the findings presented in this article into a larger analysis of the connections between K–12 and post-secondary programs.

Across all the stakeholders involved in WL education, teachers have the highest number of contact hours in classrooms. As our findings demonstrate, they have extensive knowledge of both internal and external factors shaping students' language learning experiences and can speak to both the practices and policies that inform the continuity of language study in their contexts. Through centering educators' perspectives, we hope to ground overall findings about the barriers and affordances for program articulation in lived realities of classroom experiences. In doing so, we aim to provide concrete and practical avenues for strengthening program articulation and improving WL learning capacity within the U.S.

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Appendix

Focus Group Protocol

Opening script: Thank you for your invaluable participation in this focus group. Your insights and expertise are crucial to understanding how language programs connect and align across different educational stages, from kindergarten through 12th grade and into college. As you are aware, the goal of this discussion is to examine the transitional experiences of students moving from high school to college-level language programs, with particular emphasis on the efficacy and challenges encountered in the process.

[Logistical instructions for participating and video recording on zoom.]
Before we start the conversation, I would like to remind you a few things.

- First, as stated in the consent form, this focus group interview will be audio recorded. The recordings will be transcribed and used for research purposes only.
- Second, to protect confidentiality, I will not reveal your name and institutional affiliation in any form of dissemination of this research, whether publications or presentations. Instead, all names will be pseudonymized.
- Third, if any of the questions make you feel uncomfortable in any way during the focus group, you may stay silent. You may also withdraw from the study after this meeting by sending me an email. If this is the case, I will

try my best to discard the parts where you were involved in the conversation.

Finally, I ask that you respect the privacy of other participants and not share what is said in this room today with anyone. Do you have any questions before we get started?

I have some guiding questions here but I'm mainly here to listen to your thoughts. I expect you to have different points of view because you all come from unique programs and contexts, so don't hesitate to agree or disagree with each other.

Questions: Note that the scripted questions below were used by the moderator to guide the discussion, but not all questions may have been used in the session, and additional questions may be used by the facilitator.

1. Let's go around and do introductions. If you can say your name, where you are from, and in a couple sentences, can you share what languages and ages you've taught throughout your career.
2. We've got a wide range of teaching backgrounds and levels. Next, I'm curious to know more about how students end up in your classes. How are students placed in your classes? Do you think that process is effective?
3. I am also interested in where students go after they finish your classes.
    a. Optional probe: Are there any sorts of requirements you're aware of, either at the state-level, or within your institution that may shape students' future decisions around language study?
4. As you know, with this project, we're really focused on how students continue on (or leave) language study as they move through elementary, middle school, high school, and college classes. I'm really interested to know what your role is in supporting or guiding students through an extended sequence of language learning. Can you tell me about that?
5. How does the curriculum and teaching approach you use compare to the approaches of the language programs your students participate in before or after your program? (e.g., if you're a high school teacher, how does your curriculum compare to that of the middle school)
    a. Optional probe: Do you feel the similarity (or dissonance) impacts students' experiences at all?
    b. Optional probe: What are the obstacles you face in preparing students for the next level language study? What are resources/tools that have helped you prepare students for the next level of language study?
6. One of the reasons this is our area of focus is because past research has suggested there is not much communication between college and high school-level language programs. Has this been your experience? What do you wish college instructors knew about high school programs?
7. Do you talk to your students about continuing language study after middle school, or high school? Why or why not? What resources, tools or training could help with that? Do you know how many of your students go on to study language in college?

10

Motivational Factors that Attract Students to German

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The Challenge

How can high school world language teachers understand why students choose to enroll in language courses? And what motivates students to continue beyond required courses? The following study explores these questions within a German program and offers suggestions for teachers of all languages to discover what drives student motivation in their own classrooms.

Abstract

This study investigated the reasons why high school students enroll in beginning German, why the same students continue taking German after their first year, and why some continue taking German after their second year. Many researchers claim that motivation is one of the main factors that contributes to language learning success (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Lenartsson, 2013). Qualitative and quantitative survey data were collected through surveys and interviews. An analysis of the data revealed that students take German for many reasons; however, the majority of the students who participated in this study were taking German to fulfill the college scholarship requirement to take two consecutive year-long courses of the same language. By knowing why high school students take German, teachers and administrators are better able to assist students in enrolling in German I initially and encourage them to continue to German II and German III. This study will also be of interest to language teachers interested in motivation and general researchers who are interested in motivational factors among high school students as well as college teachers and administrators.

Keywords: *German language learning, high school German, student motivation for learning German, student motivation for learning languages, language learner variables*

Author Note

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Enrolling in a high school German class is a choice made by individual students (Thompson, 2017; Thompson & Vasquez, 2015). In the state of Utah, there is no language requirement to be able to graduate with a high school diploma. Because language is not a required core class, many students do not take learning German seriously, even though they choose to enroll in it. At the high school where the study took place, language classes are perceived differently from subjects like math and science, even though achieving proficiency in another language is a major accomplishment. Whether a high school student goes to college or goes out in the workforce, knowing another language can be beneficial. In fact, one researcher associated with the national Lead with Languages campaign even stated:

> Language skills will give you a serious competitive edge in the job market, whether college is in your plans or not. Languages are among the top eight skills required of all occupations—no matter the sector or skill level—and in big demand in the government, private and non-profit sectors. (Lead with Languages, n.d.)

Consequently, youth need to start learning a second language (L2) as early as they can. Most do not get the opportunity to start learning a language until they reach high school, and because learning a language is not required, many students do not take advantage of the opportunity.

Students are motivated to enroll in high school German classes for a number of different reasons. Some students have German heritage and want to learn the language and culture of their ancestors. Some could be required to learn German pronunciation for vocal performance. Some may learn German to be able to read research in the original German for another field of study. Some want to learn German to be able to do business with or work for German companies, and some are interested in learning about the German culture. Reflecting on what motivates students to enroll in a German class instead of in another language class or in another elective class, no unifying theme seemed to present itself. Rather, a typical German class looks like a cross-section of high school students, and sometimes the teacher is left to wonder why this diverse group of students ends up taking German. Of even more interest to teachers and administrators is why these students continue taking German after their first year, and why some of them continue to take German after their second year of high school German.

Because few students continue learning a language after two years, it is important to find out what motivates them to continue learning a language when many of their peers have stopped. This study investigates the reasons high school students continue taking German after their second year. First, there is a review of literature relevant to this study. This review is followed by the methodology of the

study. Next, we report the results of the data collection and analysis, and lastly, we provide a discussion of the research findings. The results of this study are of interest to high school administrators, WL teachers, WL students, college admissions committees, and parents of high school students so they can know reasons why high school students enroll in German in the first place then continue taking German after their first and second years.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study is to discover reasons high school students enroll in beginning German and why they continue taking German after they complete their first and second year.

Research Questions

1. Why do high school students enroll in beginning German (rather than in Spanish or ASL)?
2. Why do students continue taking German after completing their first and second year?

Motivation plays a critical role in a student's desire to enroll in a WL class. For decades, research has focused on many ways motivation to learn a language facilitates success in learning a WL (Al-Hoorie, 2017; Calvo, 2015; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dörnyei, 1994, 2005, 2008, 2009, 2018; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Drakulic, 2019; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Noels et al., 2003). Many researchers have found that motivation is one of the main factors in language learning success (Lenartsson, 2013; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Gardner & Lambert, 1972). We chose to examine what motivates students to initially take German in high school and continue to take it after the first and second years. This section presents research findings on student motivation, attitudes, desires to learn an L2, and the role of the teacher in student motivation.

L2 Motivational Theories

Integrative and instrumental motivation.

Gardner and Lambert's (1972) model identifies two types of motivation in L2 learning: integrative and instrumental. Integrative motivation refers to a learner's desire to communicate in the language and understand the target culture, often driven by personal relationships or cultural interest. Instrumental motivation, on the other hand, involves learning a language for practical benefits like course credit, college admission, or job opportunities (Schmidt, Boraie, & Kassabgy, 1996). These motivations are complementary, as learners can be motivated by both simultaneously and may develop new reasons for learning over time.

L2 motivational self-system.

Dörnyei (2005) developed a motivational theory for L2 learning centered on how students imagine their future selves. Influenced by the psychological concepts of possible selves and the "ought-to self"(Markus & Nurius, 1986; Higgins, 1987; Siridetkoon & Dewaele, 2017), Dörnyei's theory focuses on motivating students by connecting their L2 learning to their identity. His "L2 Motivational Self System"

consists of three components: the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the L2 learning experience (2005). The ideal L2 self refers to how students envision their future, such as being successful, creative, or admired. The larger the gap between this vision and their current self, the more motivated they are to improve in the L2 (Dörnyei, 2018). In contrast, the ought-to L2 self involves the learner meeting others' expectations to avoid negative outcomes. Motivation stems from external pressure rather than personal desires (Dörnyei, 2009; Calvo, 2015; Henry, 2017). The L2 learning experience is shaped by the learner's environment, including the teacher, course content, peer interactions, and overall classroom atmosphere (Dörnyei, 2008, 2009, 2018).

Recent Studies

Despite the lack of a unified definition or explanation in language learning, motivation remains a widely used term in education among scholars, researchers, and language teachers (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1998; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; Huang and Wang, 2013). In short, "motivation is responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, [and] how hard they are going to pursue it" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009, p. 4).

Research indicates that students have different motivations for learning a L2 and that motivation is consistently a strong predictor of success in learning a new language (Deci, 1975; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Lenartsson, 2013; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

Student enrollment and motivation. In many schools in the US, WL classes are not compulsory. The American Councils for International Education (2017) reported that WL enrollment accounts for approximately 20% of the total school age population, and only 11 states require WL credits to graduate. Sixteen states do not require a WL to graduate, and 24 states have graduation requirements that may be fulfilled by a number of subjects with a WL as an option.

Cutshall (2012) noted that students often study another language to converse with native speakers, either during travel or in their home country. Learners also want to understand written content and communicate through technologies like email and social media. Ely (1986) found students are interested in learning about other cultures, but most enrolled in WL classes mainly to meet graduation requirements.

Oxford and Shearin (1994) found that a third of students learning Japanese were motivated by both instrumental and integrative reasons, such as business prospects or making friends in Japan. The remaining participants cited intellectual stimulation, personal challenge, cultural curiosity, or a desire to master Japanese writing and have a private code their parents wouldn't understand.

Student attitude and motivation.

Lenartsson (2013) found that higher student motivation led to better language learning outcomes. When interviewed, students expressed mainly intrinsic motivation. One student enjoyed learning languages for cultural discovery, while another felt motivated by a specific purpose. Some students had positive attitudes towards interacting with L2 speakers, but others expressed frustration, with one

struggling to remember words and another finding some tasks pointless. Ely (1986) similarly reported that students required to take a WL often had negative attitudes toward language learning.

Kovak (2017) found that students learning an L2 were primarily motivated by extrinsic factors. Her study focused on attitudes towards learning German and Italian, hypothesizing that language difficulty would affect attitudes. Although students found German more challenging than Italian, this did not negatively impact their outlook. They believed that learning a WL would improve their social status, socialization, and career prospects.

Calvo (2015) found that students with a strong ideal L2 self were more engaged in class due to self-awareness and positive attitudes. Positive past experiences increased self-confidence, which played a key role in the current learning process. Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997) also found that positive attitudes lead to motivation, self-confidence, language aptitude, and strategies, ultimately resulting in language achievement.

Noels et al. (2003) found that students with negative attitudes can develop positive ones if they have a strong desire to learn the language. Their study concluded that L2 achievement is linked to positive attitudes toward the learning environment. Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) collected data on student attitudes toward the L2 community, its speakers, and the L2 learning situation. They found that attitudes were shaped by social influences from parents, family, and peers, as well as by parental support and exposure to L2 cultural products, which helped learners connect with the L2 community.

Kissau, Kolano, and Wang (2010) found no significant gender differences in L2 attitudes or motivation. Both male and female students had positive attitudes toward the L2 and planned to continue learning it in high school. However, females were perceived to put in more effort, while males preferred a more relaxed classroom atmosphere.

Teachers and motivation.

Teachers have a lasting impact on students through their unique personality, teaching methods, and enthusiasm for the WL they teach. Everything they say or do in the classroom can influence student motivation. An approachable, understanding teacher fosters trust and respect, creating a positive, harmonious relationship (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Huang & Wang, 2013).

Studies show that teachers significantly impact student motivation and attitudes in L2 learning. Kovak (2017) found students felt teaching methods were a key motivation factor, though teaching materials were lacking. Lenartsson (2013) reported students' motivation was often linked to the quality of their teacher, with positive experiences boosting motivation and negative ones leading to disinterest. Huang and Wang (2013) emphasized that teachers must thoughtfully design lessons to stimulate student interest and encourage engagement in class and cultural exchanges.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) confirmed that teachers can influence the motivational quality of learning positively or negatively. Noels et al. (2003) found students were less intrinsically motivated when teachers were perceived as control-

ling or provided inadequate feedback. The teachers' communication style also shaped students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, with some viewing teachers as controlling and others as supportive.

Karaoglu (2008) found that success in learning a L2 is linked to the learner's passions. He suggests teachers should connect to these passions, as student motivation can fluctuate. High school students have varied reasons for taking a WL, leading to differing levels of motivation. Cowie & Sakui (2012) agreed that teachers play a key role in maintaining student enthusiasm. Their research, based on a written survey, showed teachers adapt motivational practices depending on students' learning stages, creating a warm environment for beginners and using goal-directed activities for advanced students.

A survey of 128 Japanese language learners examined their perceptions of teachers' motivational support (McEown et al., 2014). Students reported that supportive teachers enhanced their self-determination in learning and fostered relatedness with classmates. The study concluded that when world language teachers support students' competence, relatedness, and cultural understanding, they effectively boost motivation.

Ruesch (2009) found that students and teachers had similar perceptions of effective motivational strategies, believing that motivation increases when teachers use consistent teaching practices. However, Huang and Wang (2013) revealed that teachers who foster a harmonious classroom environment can significantly enhance students' learning motivation and proficiency.

Kissau et al. (2010) found that student attitudes were influenced by the learning environment and behavioral issues. Female students criticized their teachers' classroom management, regardless of gender. One believed a male teacher would maintain better control, while another felt her male teacher's discipline was ineffective. In contrast, male students reported good rapport with teachers of either gender. Both male and female teachers emphasized the importance of personal connections with students.

Additional motivational factors.

Parents and family can influence L2 learning and motivation (Takac & Medve, 2018). However, student willingness to learn was a key factor in Othman and Shuqair's (2013) study. Galishnikova (2014) found that most respondents believed they needed knowledge of a WL for professional reasons.

Othman and Shuqair (2013) corroborated previous research, finding that students' beliefs, goals, and attitudes toward the WL significantly impact their success. Self-belief, relevant goal-setting, and active engagement serve as motivators. Additionally, many students reported that support from teachers and peers also played a motivating role.

Emotions are a key motivator in language learning (MacIntyre, MacKinnon, & Clément, 2009). They connect to learners' emotional systems, making possible selves more impactful (p. 53). Emotions related to possible selves include hope, fear, obligation (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Higgins, 1987; Dörnyei, 2005), empathy, enjoyment, and love (Al-Hoorie, 2017). Anxiety, which can arise from negative feelings (Noels, 2008), can hinder language learning by causing embarrassment.

However, one male and one female teacher created a relaxed classroom atmosphere to help reduce anxiety (Kissau et al., 2010). Interestingly, anxiety can also serve as a motivational factor or personality trait (MacIntyre, 2002). Most students experience these emotions while learning an L2.

Methods

In some states, enrolling in a WL class in high school is optional. It is considered an elective course, and it is not a requirement for graduation. When this is the case, it is helpful for teachers, parents, and administrators to know what motivates students to learn German as a WL. In order to explore this issue, data were gathered from current German students in beginning German and advanced German classes. Additionally, data were collected from former high school German students who enrolled in German I, II, and III.

Participants and setting

In a rural 5A high school in the western United States, 104 German I students and eight graduates who completed German I, II, and III were invited to participate in this study. The school offers three world languages: ASL, German, and Spanish. Participants ranged in age from 15 to 19, with German I students aged 15 to 18 and all German III students in 12th grade (17 or 18 years old). Graduates were either 18 or 19.

Of the 90 German I students, 83 completed the survey (58% male, 42% female). Among them, 52% were 15 years old, 43% were 16, and 4% were 17. Of the 14 German III students, 12 participated (eight males, four females), with five aged 17 and seven aged 18. Six of the eight high school graduates completed the email interview (three males, three females), all aged 18 or 19.

Data collection

Two surveys were created to assess students' motivation for taking German: one for German I and another for German III. Each survey included multiple-choice and open-ended questions (Appendices A & B). Additionally, we conducted an email interview with high school graduates who completed German III, which contained only open-ended questions (Appendix C). Participant responses helped address the research questions and explore why students chose German over other languages offered at their school.

The survey data revealed students' prior knowledge of German, interest in the culture and language, expectations for learning German, and their attitudes toward the subject. Survey items were selected based on recent research in language learning (ACTFL, 2012; Kovac & Mrsic, 2017; NCSSFL-ACTFL, 2017; NSCB, 2015). High school participants completed the survey electronically in class for about 20 minutes, while the email interview was conducted with high school graduates around the same time.

Data analysis

Quantitative descriptive analysis was applied to the multiple-choice data using an ordinal scale to rank variables and measure agreement among respondents.

Qualitative data was analyzed to understand individual students' motivations and attitudes, organizing responses into common themes. Data was organized by question in a spreadsheet to identify similarities, differences, or inconsistencies. Data visualization techniques were used, including charts and graphs, to highlight findings and reveal themes or patterns.

The most important result of this question is that most students feel that knowing another language will allow them more opportunities for careers in the future. First, survey and interview data on why students enrolled in beginning German will be presented for three groups: current German I students, current German III students, and recent high school graduates. Second, data on whether students continued enrolling in German classes will be presented for the same groups. Finally, a summary and analysis of key findings will follow.

Research Question #1: Why do high school students enroll in beginning German?

German I students.

The first survey was given to 83 German I students. Participants could select multiple reasons for enrolling in German from a provided list and had the option to write any additional reasons.

Two-thirds (66%) of German I students reported that they enrolled in the class to meet the two-year world language requirement for a state-sponsored college scholarship. Less than half (46%) reported that they enrolled because learning German is fun, and 45% enrolled because their friends were taking it. Over a third (36%) expressed a desire to travel to a German-speaking country, while 35% felt that learning German would enhance their cultural understanding. A third (33%) had familial ties to Germany, and 31% believed they would succeed in learning the language. A quarter (25%) thought knowing German would help with college admissions, 24% heard that the teacher was fun, and 11% believed it would help them understand their own culture better. Seven percent indicated that they wanted to sing in German, and another 7% had traveled to a German-speaking country.

Additionally, 36% of students provided other reasons not listed on the survey. Unique reasons from three students included: preferring German over ASL or Spanish, already speaking English and Spanish, the lack of a French option, and wanting to serve an ecclesiastical mission in a German-speaking country. Two students listed: needing a teacher after trying to learn on their own, knowing the former teacher, and feeling successful with a supportive teacher. Individual reasons included: genealogy work, Air Force Academy admission, family members speaking German, Spanish class being full, learning something new, practicing on Duolingo, earning an easy grade, becoming bilingual, and having family or friends who took or spoke German.

German III students.

The second survey, given to 13 German III students, asked why they enrolled in German I two and a half years ago. Over half (58%) enrolled for a college scholarship, and 67% cited four main reasons: hearing the teacher and learning German

were fun, wanting to travel to a German-speaking country, and believing they would succeed in learning the language. Fewer than half (42%) had German familial ties, and the same percentage believed learning German would improve their understanding of other cultures. A third said their friends were taking German, believed it would help with college admissions, or felt it would aid in understanding their own culture. One-fourth (25%) thought it would help them get a job, 17% had already traveled to a German-speaking country, and 8% wanted to learn German for singing.

High school graduates.

The third survey was given to eight high school graduates who had completed three consecutive years of high school German. Three-fourths (75%) of high school graduates enrolled in German to qualify for a college scholarship, and two-thirds (66%) had familial ties to Germany. One-third gave three reasons: they had traveled to a German-speaking country, did not want to take Spanish because it was common, and thought German sounded angry. All students expressed a desire to visit or revisit a German-speaking country.

Research Question #2: Why do students continue taking German after completing their first and second year?

German I students were asked if they planned to continue taking German, while German III students and graduates were asked why they continued after German II. German I and III participants selected reasons from a list, with an option to add others, while graduates typed their reasons for taking German III. This section presents their responses on why they chose and continued learning German.

German I students.

Over 76% of students said they plan to continue with German II. The top reasons were: 24% enjoyed learning German, 23% needed it for scholarships, 16% wanted to improve speaking skills, and 13% found the class fun. Six students liked the teacher, three wanted to travel to Germany, three felt they should continue since they started, and one cited familial ties to a German-speaking country.

Five participants said they would not enroll in German II, each for a different reason: one was graduating, one did not need the credit, one found the teacher speaks too quickly, one was too shy to speak in class, and one found German too difficult. About 23% of participants were unsure about enrolling in German II, citing several reasons. Five were unsure due to scheduling conflicts, and another five felt they might need a different class for graduation. Two wanted to see how they performed in German I, while others considered taking another class or trying Spanish. One student was unsure if German II was necessary for a scholarship, and another wanted to see what their friends would do.

German III students.

German III students gave several reasons for continuing German after German II. Most (92%) found learning German fun, 83% wanted to become more fluent, and 75% aimed to travel to a German-speaking country. Two-thirds (67%) liked the teacher and heard German II was fun, while 58% believed they would

succeed. Half continued because German was easy, an easy elective, or because they felt good at speaking it. Less than half (42%) needed two years for a scholarship or thought it would help with college. One-third found German challenging or continued because of friends. Seventeen percent cited improving writing skills, job prospects, or past travel. A small group (8%) felt good at grammar, and one student said, "I couldn't just stop after one year!"

All participants (100%) reported that learning German was fun, with 67% liked the teacher and wanted to become more fluent. Half believed they would succeed, while another half found it challenging and felt knowing German would aid college admissions. Less than half (42%) noted their friends were also taking German, and the same percentage felt confident in their reading skills. One-third provided five reasons for continuing: (1) German is easy; (2) it's an easy elective; (3) it helps understand other cultures; (4) it aids in understanding their own culture; and (5) family members speak German. Twenty-five percent felt skilled in writing, and 17% had traveled to a German-speaking country, believing it would help with future job prospects. Eight percent needed a world language for a scholarship, were good at grammar, or wanted to learn German to sing.

High school graduates.

Recent high school graduates shared their reasons for enrolling in German III. The majority (83%) cited three main reasons: they liked the class, enjoyed learning German, and appreciated the teacher. Over half (67%) felt successful in German I and II and wanted to improve further. A third (33%) noted that a third language year counted as their senior English credit, while another third appreciated the smaller class size for better instruction without disruptions. Two high school graduates expressed their enjoyment of German I and II. One student highlighted that he liked the class because his friends were in it, the teacher balanced fun and seriousness, and it featured interactive activities like singing and cultural events. His favorite part was the Foreign Film Festival, where groups made films in German and competed against Spanish and ASL classes. The competition motivated him to excel and create a trilogy of films for each German course. He mentioned that one friend dropped German III to graduate early, and another did not need the credit, making it challenging to stay focused. However, he chose German III primarily because it counted as a senior English requirement. He stated, "I would much rather be learning more German than writing papers in English."

A female student enrolled in German III because she felt he could be herself and the teacher accepted her for who she was. She attended for half the year before her schedule changed to join an aviation program at a nearby university, which conflicted with German III. She described German class as "not like any other class," likening it to stepping into another world, surrounded by posters and maps of Germany, listening to German music, playing games, and learning to speak the language.

Future Enrollment

When asked about enrolling in German II, 76% of German I students indicated they plan to continue. Only 6% said they would not, while 18% were undecided. Participants were then asked to explain their reasons. Students who chose

not to enroll in German II provided varied reasons. Two mentioned graduation, while others cited: (1) not needing the credit; (2) uncertainty about the class at their new school; (3) shyness; (4) dislike of the teacher; (5) difficulty of the language; and (6) the teacher's pace being too fast to keep up. Students' reasons for being undecided about enrolling in German II varied. Four did not provide a reason, while three mentioned it depended on scholarship requirements. Common reasons included: (1) wanting to take German II if they do well in German I; (2) concerns about difficulty; (3) interest in a challenge; (4) considering Spanish; and (5) likely continuing because the teacher was fun. Other reasons included not needing the credit and uncertainty about their future plans. Single responses noted interest in trying another elective, needing a different class to graduate, indecision about the teacher, and peer influence.

We chose not to survey current German II students because the survey was too early in the school year for students to know whether they would continue with German III the following year. Previous enrollment data indicate that students who complete German II do not continue with German III because they will have finished the scholarship requirement, they have other classes they need to take, they are graduating, they do not need the credit, or they do not have room in their schedule.

When asked about enrolling in German III after German II, 53% were undecided, 23% planned to enroll, and 24% reported they would not take German III. Reasons for likely enrolling included: (1) wanting to improve fluency; (2) desire to be trilingual; and (3) a wish to learn as much as possible. Reasons for not enrolling included: (1) fluency in English and Spanish; (2) lack of connection to the language and culture; and (3) not needing the credit in their senior year.

When asked if they would take German III as a concurrent enrollment class for college credit, 52% of German I students said yes, 37% were undecided, and 11% said no. Regarding an Advanced Placement (AP) class, only 35% expressed interest, 45% were uncertain, and 21% indicated they would not enroll.

Benefits of Learning German

This section contains the top responses students reported on the following topics: what they have gained so far from learning German in high school, how knowing another language will help them in their future, and how they see themselves using German after high school.

In German I, students reported significant gains from their language studies. Eighty percent noted that they can now speak with people in German, while ninety percent mentioned they have acquired reading skills in the language. A remarkable ninety-eight percent feel confident in their ability to write in German. Many students also expressed a sense of intelligence and empowerment from knowing another language, with seventy-four percent agreeing they feel smarter. Additionally, sixty-eight percent of students enjoyed participating in the high school foreign film festival, further enriching their experience.

When asked what they have gained from learning German in high school, 83.3% of German III students highlighted several key benefits: participating in the

high school foreign film festival, the ability to communicate and read in German, and the confidence that comes with knowing another language. Many expressed a sense of empowerment from their language skills. The most significant results from this question were that more than half of the students reported that they felt smarter knowing a language and that they were able to speak, read, and write in German.

When asked how knowing another language would benefit their future, students highlighted several key advantages. Nearly half (48%) mentioned that it would enhance their career options, opening doors to a wider range of job opportunities. A quarter of the students (25%) saw travel opportunities as a significant benefit, expressing excitement about the ability to communicate while exploring new places. Additionally, 18% emphasized the value of being bilingual, while 14% noted that knowing another language would lead to better communication skills. Lastly, 11% appreciated the chance to better understand other cultures, recognizing the importance of cultural awareness in today's global society.

When asked how they plan to use German after high school, students mentioned several goals: studying German independently, traveling to Germany, reading books and news in German, continuing their studies in college, and watching movies or TV shows in German. In email interviews, high school graduates who completed German I, II, and III were asked about the relevance of German to their post-high school plans. Only 33% reported taking German in college, while 66% are not currently enrolled in college. Half of these participants are working to save money for college and plan to take German later. One student noted that her college doesn't offer German, while another is in Brazil for two years to learn Portuguese.

When asked what they wished they had learned in high school German, 66% expressed a desire to speak in the past tense and learn more about the culture. One student wished she had gained enough confidence to say she could speak a little German. Meanwhile, 33% felt they hadn't learned as much as they should have, citing that having class at the end of the day made them less engaged as they were eager to leave school and graduate. One participant noted he lost interest after deciding to go to Brazil for two years.

When asked about opportunities to speak German outside the classroom, 33% of participants noted interactions with classmates in school, while another 33% spoke German with family members. One student mentioned conversing frequently with a German exchange student, and another spoke German with Germans at a national park. Additionally, 33% encountered German speakers at work. One participant expressed enjoyment in speaking German, while another admitted shyness but would say "goodbye" in German.

Summary

The research data revealed specific reasons why students enroll in and continue studying German. The quantitative results indicated the percentages of students who initially enrolled in German I and those who decided to continue or discontinue. Meanwhile, the qualitative results provided insights into the motivations behind their decisions to study German. The most surprising findings from

this study were what German III students gained from their German studies. Eighty-three percent participate in the high school foreign film festival, spoke, read, and wrote in German, and felt empowered and smarter knowing another language. Additionally, seventy-five percent attended the Christkindlmarkt on a field trip to experience German culture firsthand. The most encouraging finding was that nearly every student at this high school continued with German because they found it fun. This aligned with Drakulic's (2019) research, which found that students motivated to learn a language often perceived their teacher as competent and likable, leading to a positive attitude toward the language. The most reassuring results showed that 75% of German III students envisioned traveling to a German-speaking country, 67% planned to continue studying German independently, 58% saw themselves watching the news in German, and 50% anticipated watching movies and reading books in German.

Conclusion

K–12 language instructors often seek ways to better understand their students, and the results of this study provide an example for how language instructors can better understand their students' reasons for choosing to learn a certain language. If motivation of any type can lead to success in learning a WL, it is important to find out what types of motivation lead students to enroll in language classes in the first place and then continue enrolling in subsequent levels of the same language. With this information, teachers and administrators will know how to encourage students to enroll in WL courses and succeed in learning the language. The main reason most German I students took more than one year of German was due to the need for two years of the same WL for college scholarships. Another key reason was that friends were also taking German. Ultimately, motivations to continue to German III were both intrinsic and extrinsic, consistent with research over the past four decades (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). The requirement of two years of a WL for state scholarships raises concerns about German III enrollment. At this high school, there were three German I classes, two German II classes, but only one German III, reflecting a significant drop. While many students enroll in German for the scholarship, there is a disconnect regarding the value of continuing to German III. The interviewed high school graduates were the first to enroll in the new German III class, which previously offered only German I and II. The class started with 22 students but ended the year with only nine. Over the past two decades, German course enrollment has declined (Bell, 2015), but students at this high school still show strong interest in learning German, even though each has unique reasons for choosing German and even though the high school and local universities no longer require a language for graduation or admission.

Pedagogical Implications

Teachers should integrate students' motivations into the curriculum to foster success. Students enjoy learning German, value the supportive classroom atmosphere, and feel encouraged by their teacher. Creating a welcoming, low-stress environment enhances language learning, supporting research that shows a low

affective filter aids acquisition and risk-taking (Bell, 2005, 2015; Krashen, 1982). A key finding is that students enjoy using German outside the classroom and appreciate activities that encourage this. German teachers should identify student motivations and tailor activities accordingly. Events like the Foreign Language Film Festival, Christkindlmarkt, visits to local German restaurants, and the statewide German Fair can enhance engagement. Clear goals and enjoyable experiences increase the likelihood of student success and motivation to use the language. We recognize that cultural events for German or other languages might not be as accessible and common as are in the state of Utah.

Implications for future research

A larger-scale study could offer deeper insights into why high school students in a state or across the US enroll in and continue learning German. A similar study could examine reasons for enrolling in other languages like Spanish, French, ASL, and more. Additionally, exploring the link between students' reasons for learning a language and the level of proficiency they attain by the end of high school would be valuable.

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Appendix A

German I Survey

German 1 Learning German Student Survey

My name is Frau Banks. I used to teach German at your child's high school. I'm working on a research project for my master's thesis. Please answer the questions as honestly as possible. Your responses will not affect your grade in your German class in any way. Your teacher will not have access to your responses. Your name won't be linked to your responses. I just want to find out why you are taking German. Thank you for helping me with this research study!

* Required

1. First name and initial of last name: (Example: Josh G.) *
2. What level of German are you? *
3. Male or Female? *
4. What is your age? *
5. Why did you decide to take German in high school when you first signed up for German?

Choose as many of the following as apply. If the reasons aren't listed below, click "other" and please type every single reason not listed above. *

My family speaks German.
I have traveled to a German-speaking country.
I want to travel to a German-speaking country.
I want to know German so I can sing in German.
I need at least two years of a language to apply for scholarships for college.
I heard the teacher is fun.
I heard learning German is fun.
My friends are taking German.
Knowing German will help me get into college.
Knowing German will help me get a job.
Learning German will help me understand other cultures better.
Learning German will help me understand my own culture better.
I believed I would succeed in learning German.

Other:

6. Why do you think it is important to take another language? Write as many reasons as you can think of. *
7. Are you going to take German 2 next year? Why or why not? Write as uch as you can.
   Don't worry--your teacher will never see your responses. *
8. Are you going to take German 3? Why or Why not? *
9. Would you take German 3 if it were a Concurrent Enrollment course? * Yes/No/Maybe
10. Would you take German 3 if it were an AP class? * Yes/No/Maybe
11. How do you think learning another language will help you in the future? *

12. What have you gained so far from learning German in high school? Please choose all that apply. If the reasons aren't listed below, click "other" and type every single reason not listed above. *

I got to/get to go to the Christkindlmarkt in Salt Lake City.
I got to/get to go to the German Fair at BYU.
I got to/get to go to Volkstrauertag Service at Fort Douglas Cemetery.
I got to/get to go to das Adventsingen at BYU.
I got to/get to go to Oktoberfest at BYU.
I got to/get to participate in the high school Foreign Film Festival.
I'm able to speak with people in German.
I'm able to read some things in German.
I'm able to write some things in German.
I'm good at German grammar.
It feels empowering to know another language.
I feel smarter knowing another language.
I get to travel to a German-speaking country.
I will get to continue learning German in college.
Other:

13. How do you see yourself using German after high school? *

Study German in college.
Study German on my own.
Travel to Germany.
Watch movies or TV in German.
Read books, magazines, or news in German.
Attend community German events.
Read research in German in college.
Other:

Appendix B

German III Survey

German 3 Learning German Student Survey

Thank you for helping me with this research study! Please answer the questions as honestly as possible. Your responses will not affect your grade in your German class in any way. Your teacher will not have access to your responses. Your name won't be linked to your responses.

* Required

1. First name and initial of last name: (Example: Josh G.) *
2. What level of German are you? *
3. Male or Female? *
4. What is your age? *
5. Why did you decide to take German in high school when you first signed up for German? Choose as many of the following as apply. If the reasons

aren't listed below, click "other" and please type every single reason not listed above. *

My family speaks German.
I have traveled to a German-speaking country.
I want to travel to a German-speaking country.
I want to know German so I can sing in German.
I need at least two years of a language to apply for scholarships for college.
I heard the teacher is fun.
I heard learning German is fun.
My friends are taking German.
Knowing German will help me get into college.
Knowing German will help me get a job.
Learning German will help me understand other cultures better.
Learning German will help me understand my own culture better.
I believed I would succeed in learning German.
Other:

6. Why did you continue taking German after German I? Please choose as many of the following as apply. If the reasons aren't listed below, click "other" and please type every single reason not listed above. *

Learning German is easy.
Learning German is fun.
Learning German is challenging.
Learning German is easy.
Learning German is fun.
Learning German is challenging,
I need at least two years of a language to apply for scholarships in college.
I like the teacher.
My family speaks German.
I have traveled to a German-speaking country.
I want to travel to a German-speaking country.
I want to know German so I can sing in German.
German is an easy elective.
My friends are taking German.
I wanted to become more fluent.
Knowing German will help me get into college.
Knowing German will help me get a job.
Knowing German will help me understand other cultures better.
Learning German will help me understand my own culture better.
I believed I would succeed in learning German.
I was good at speaking German.
I was good at reading German.
I was good at writing German.
I was good at German grammar.
Other:

7. Why did you continue taking German after German 2? Please choose as many of the following as apply. If the reasons aren't listed below, click "other" and please type every single reason not listed above. *

Learning German is easy.
Learning German is fun.
Learning German is challenging.
Learning German is easy.
Learning German is fun.
Learning German is challenging,
I need at least two years of a language to apply for scholarships in college.
I like the teacher.
My family speaks German.
I have traveled to a German-speaking country.
I want to travel to a German-speaking country.
I want to know German so I can sing in German.
German is an easy elective.
My friends are taking German.
I wanted to become more fluent.
Knowing German will help me get into college.
Knowing German will help me get a job.
Knowing German will help me understand other cultures better.
Learning German will help me understand my own culture better.
I believed I would succeed in learning German.
I was good at speaking German.
I was good at reading German.
I was good at writing German.
I was good at German grammar.
Other:

8. What have you gained from learning German in high school? Please choose all that apply. If the reasons aren't listed below, click "other" and please type every single reason not listed above. *

I got to/get to go to the Christkindlmarkt in Salt Lake City.
I got to/get to go to the German Fair at BYU.
I got to/get to go to Volkstrauertag Service at Fort Douglas Cemetery.
I got to/get to go to das Adventsingen at BYU.
I got to/get to go to Oktoberfest at BYU.
I got to/get to participate in the High School Foreign Film Festival.
I'm able to speak with people in German.
I'm able to read some things in German.
I'm able to write some things in German.
I'm good at German grammar.
It feels empowering to know another language.
I feel smarter knowing another language.
I get to travel to a German-speaking country.
I will get to continue learning German in college.

Other:

9. How do you see yourself using German after high school? Please choose all that apply. If the reasons aren't listed below, click "other" and please type every single reason not listed above. *

Study German in college.
Study German on my own.
Travel to Germany.
Watch movies or TV in German.
Read books, magazines, or news in German.
Attend community German events.
Read research in German in college.
Other: