SUSTAINING COMMUNITIES THROUGH WORLD LANGUAGES
The 61st Annual Northeast Conference
March 27-30, 2014 at the Marriott Copley Place

Janel Lafond-Paquin, Rogers HS (RI), Chair

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Dear Colleagues and Friends,

My name is Janel Lafond-Paquin and I am a teacher and department chair at Rogers High School in Newport, Rhode Island. It is my privilege and honor to serve as chair of the 2014 Northeast Conference.

This year’s conference theme, “Sustaining Communities Through World Languages,” brings with it a myriad of possibilities for thoughtful consideration. If one looks up the word “sustainable” in the dictionary, one finds the following definitions: “something that is being kept balanced and is able to endure anything that might attempt to destroy it,” “able to be maintained or kept going.” With that in mind, I would ask you to kindly reflect on the following questions:

- How do we as world language teachers sustain our community of diverse learners as they enter our classes each day, hoping to be able to speak the language that we are teaching them?
- What do we do as educators in order to ensure the sustainability of our program communities so that no world language is removed from the options that we afford students?
- How do we sustain and enhance our professional language communities in our district and state so that educators are equipped to use the very best techniques based on research and methodology as well as incorporating the latest in technological advances in their classrooms?
- What do we do as language professionals to ensure the sustainability of our state, regional, and national world language organizations so that these associations can continue to provide us with the very best resources in order to address all of the above?

It is my hope that these questions will lead you to consider other possible thought-provoking queries, but more so, that you will be inspired to attend this conference that will offer you so many possibilities for quality professional development. Even though you may have never attended before, please reflect on the possibility of networking with other language professionals who will be attending the conference in the beautiful city of Boston. Learn strategies that you can use in your own classroom community or ideas on using the latest technological gadgets with your students. If you have ideas of what would be an interesting and helpful webinar, tell us about it. If you have strategies that have worked well in your own classroom community, share them! Spread the word to other world language teachers at all levels of instruction. The possibilities are truly endless!
Please keep in mind that you are all part of the NECTFL community and that NECTFL's sustainability depends on your participation as a first-time attendee, a returning attendee, a new teacher, a methods instructor, a state leader, an award winner, an exhibitor, a webinar presenter, or an Advisory Council member. Please continue to check our website www.nectfl.org for the latest information on the 2014 conference. As always, we welcome your thoughts, comments, and feedback.

On behalf of the NECTFL Board of Directors, I look forward to seeing you in Boston where we hope to sustain your interest with quality sessions and workshops that will assist you in creating your own sustainable communities wherever you may be. We are NECTFL (Nurturing Everyone, Creating Tomorrow's Future Leaders)!

Sincerely,

Janel Lafond-Paquin
2014 NECTFL Conference Chair
From the Managing Editor

NECTFL Review Readers,

Welcome to the seventh online edition of the NECTFL Review and to three very informative and thought-provoking articles, in addition to materials and textbooks reviews. As in the past, you can read the articles and reviews online or download either individual articles or the entire journal in PDF format at http://www.nectfl.org/review.html.

On the inside front cover and in the letter from the 2014 Conference Chair, you will find information about the upcoming 2014 Annual Meeting in Boston, MA, March 27–30, at the Marriott Copley Place Hotel. The theme of the 2014 meeting, chaired by Janel Lafond-Paquin, is “Sustaining Communities through World Languages.” NECTFL will offer you a wide range of outstanding professional development opportunities and also the experience of a true learning community. There will be special events to sustain you and your colleagues as all of us weather these challenging times. You will discover new ways of sustaining your language program, your students, and the newest teachers in our field. The topics of interest to you will be present before and after the conference through the use of social media, webinars, and face-to-face encounters.

In this September 2013 issue, we offer you three outstanding articles that address three key issues in our profession: teacher preparation program requirements and accreditation, target language use in the classroom, and beliefs about foreign language learning.

The first article, “Comparing nine world language teacher preparation programs within and across three states,” is written by Susan A. Hildebrandt, Anne Cummings Hlas, and Kelly Conroy. Although their study is limited to three states — Wisconsin, Illinois, and Texas — what they have discovered in their descriptive study makes us all pause and take stock of what is going on in our own state colleges and universities that train our future foreign language teachers. Changes are occurring: NCATE is merging with the Teacher Education Accreditation Council to form the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP). No Child Left Behind is moving into the background. The authors hope that their article “will enlighten world language teacher education program directors to the commonalities and differences at the state and institution of higher education levels in an effort to further open lines of communication.”

In the second article, Jean W. LeLoup, Robert Ponterio, and Mark K. Warford tackle the daunting priority of 90% target language use by teachers in the classroom as advocated by ACTFL in its 2010 position paper. While we all agree that maximal classroom use of the target language is exactly what we need, we find that this goal “eludes most Western PreK–12 and postsecondary classrooms.” Indeed, part of the problem stems from world language teacher preparation programs in which maximal use of the target language in the classroom is not stressed, as we see in the first article. Pre-service and in-service professional development programs can help. The authors offer readers eight practical ideas for confronting areas of classroom discourse that gravitate toward the use of English.

Maria Isabel Charle Poza, in her article “The beliefs of African American students about foreign language learning,” discovers that there are great commonalities between African
American students and the general student population in many respects — optimism about their ability to learn another language, high prospects about the level of proficiency that they would achieve but unrealistic expectations for how long it would take, risk-taking and speaking anxiety. As Poza concludes, “... it is imperative that FL instructors and curriculum planners assess students’ beliefs and address those views that may be too restrictive and counterproductive.”

We invite you to visit the NECTFL website [www.nectfl.org] and see what the organization is about and what it is doing, as well as current information on the 2014 conference in Boston. Also, please end me an e-mail and let me know what you think of the journal — the articles, the reviews…whatever you would like for me to know and whatever you might want to see changed.

Cordially,

Robert M. Terry
Managing Editor & Articles Editor

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**Call for Articles**

The NECTFL Review encourages articles of interest to instructors, researchers, and administrators at all educational levels on theory, research, and classroom practice in language teaching. Articles dealing with pedagogical strategies, materials and curriculum development, language teaching technology, the teaching of literature, assessment, community awareness projects, and international studies would be equally welcome; the foregoing list illustrates the range of concerns that might be addressed in submissions. We welcome manuscripts from teachers at all levels, pre-K through university, and from teacher educators.
Guidelines for Preparation of Manuscripts

All articles submitted will be evaluated by at least two, normally three, members of the Editorial Review Board. Elements to be considered in the evaluation process are the article’s appropriateness for the journal’s readership, its contribution to foreign language education and the originality of that contribution, the soundness of the research or theoretical base, its implications for the classroom, and finally, organization, focus, and clarity of expression.

As you prepare your manuscript for submission to the NECTFL Review, please keep the following guidelines in mind:

1. We use the most recent APA [American Psychological Association] Guidelines, and not those of the Modern Language Association (MLA) or the Chicago Manual of Style. Please use the latest edition (6th ed., 2010) of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association or the Concise Rules of APA Style as your guide. For models of articles and references, examine The NECTFL Review, recent issues of the Modern Language Journal or Foreign Language Annals. These journals follow the APA style with minor deviations (and those being primarily changes in level headings within articles). Citations within articles, bibliographical entries, punctuation, and style follow the APA format very closely. You can visit the following web sites, which give you abbreviated versions of the APA guidelines:
   c. APA — http://www.apastyle.org/. This is the very source...the APA, with all sorts of help and assistance.
   d. Writer Resources: APA: http://www.cws.illinois.edu/workshop/writers/citation/apa/ — this is yet another great site from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign to guide you through the APA style.
   e. APA Style Essentials: http://psychology.vanguard.edu/faculty/douglas-degelman/apa-style/ — this handy reference guide based on the APA sixth edition comes from the Vanguard University of Southern California.

2. Submit your article electronically to rterry@richmond.edu. Please follow these guidelines carefully to expedite the review and publishing process. Note: In order for an article to be processed and sent to outside reviewers, authors must complete the online Author/Article Information form.
   a. Use a PC- or Mac-compatible word-processing program —Microsoft Word 2007 or 2010 for PC; 2008 or 2011 for Mac. You can save your file as either .doc or .docx.
   b. Do not use the rich text format.
   c. Use Times New Roman 12-point or Minion Pro 12-point and only that one font throughout.
   d. Use italics and boldface type when necessary, but do not use underlining.
3. Please think carefully about the title of your article. Although “catchy” titles are permissible, even desirable in some cases for conference presentations, the title of your article should be more academic in nature, allowing the reader to determine at once what subject the author(s) will be addressing. It should be brief, preferably without subtitles, and no longer than 12 words.


5. Articles will not be accepted if they appear to endorse or sell software, hardware, books, or any other products.

6. Do not include the names of the author(s) of the article on the first page of the actual text.
   a. On the first page of the submitted article, authors should provide the following information:
      i. The title of the article
      ii. Names and titles of the author(s)
      iii. Preferred mailing addresses
      iv. Home and office phone numbers
      v. E-mail addresses
      vi. For joint authorship, an indication as to which author will be the primary contact person (not necessarily the first author listed on the manuscript itself).
   b. The first page of the manuscript itself should have the title only, followed by the abstract, then the text.
   c. It is essential that there be no direct references to the author(s) in the manuscript to be read by the reviewers. Any “giveaways,” such as references to a particular institution, when it is obvious that the institution is that of the author, should be avoided as well.
   d. If your article is accepted for publication, you will be able to make the necessary changes in the final manuscript. For the present, however, authors should refer to themselves in the third person as “the author(s)” and refer to studies or projects at “X Middle School” or “X University.”
   e. The APA guidelines suggest ways that authors can achieve this necessary degree of anonymity. We do understand, however, that references to certain websites may necessarily reveal the identity of the authors of certain articles.

7. Include a short biographical paragraph (this will appear at the bottom of the first page of the article, should it be published). Please include this paragraph on a separate page at the end of the article. This paragraph should include the following information (no longer than 4-5 lines):
   a. Your name
   b. Your highest degree and what school it is from
   c. Your title
   d. If you are a teacher, indicate what level(s) you have taught in your teaching career: K-12, elementary school, middle school, high school, community college, college/university, other.
   e. Your credentials.
Example:

**Charles Bovary** (Ph.D., Duke University) is Professor of French and Foreign Language Pedagogy at the University of Montana. He teaches/coordinates …. His research …. He has published ….

8. Please note that the typical length of manuscripts averages approximately 20-25 double-spaced pages, including notes, charts, and references. This does not mean that a slightly longer article is out of the question.

9. Authors should read the manuscript very carefully before submitting it, verifying the accuracy of the citations (including the spelling of names, page numbers, and publication dates); the accuracy of the format of the references; punctuation, according to the APA Guidelines; spelling throughout the article.

10. Please consult the Checklist for Manuscript Publication. Promising articles have been rejected because authors did not spend enough time proofreading the manuscript. Proofreading includes not only reading for accuracy but for readability, flow, clarity. Using the Checklist will help ensure accuracy. Authors are encouraged to have several colleagues read the article before it is submitted. Whether you are a native speaker of English or not, please ask a colleague whose native language is English to proofread your article to be sure that the text sounds idiomatic and that punctuation and spelling are standard.

11. In order for an article to be processed and sent to outside reviewers, authors must complete the online **Author/Article Information form**. This form is used to match the author’s description of the article with the appropriate reviewers according to (1) instructional level; (2) areas of interest; (3) the type of content; (4) relevant language(s); (5) keywords that best describe the article content [no more than four should be indicated].

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**Checklist for Manuscript Preparation**

Here are a few reminders, many of which are taken directly from the APA Guidelines:

- Please remember to use the spell check and grammar check on your computer before you submit your manuscript. Whether you are a native speaker of English or not, please ask a colleague whose native language is English to proofread your article to be sure that the text sounds idiomatic and that punctuation and spelling are standard. Otherwise good articles have been rejected because the writing style has very obvious non-native features and elements that detract from the message.

- Any portions of text in a foreign language must be followed immediately by an English translation in square brackets.

- Do not submit an article that includes tracking. If tracking has been used in the writing of the article, verify that every change indicated in tracking has been accepted or rejected and that the tracking box and any marks in the margin have been deleted.

- Remember that in the APA guidelines, notes (footnotes or endnotes) are discouraged — such information is considered to be either important enough to be in-
cluded in the article itself or not significant enough to be placed anywhere. If notes are necessary, however, they should be endnotes.

- Do not use automatic footnoting or endnoting available with your word processor. Use raised superscripts in the body of the text and regular Arabic numerals in the notes at the end. Automatic endnotes/footnotes present major problems as an article is prepared for publication.
- Do not use automatic page numbering, since such numbering is often difficult to remove from a manuscript and has to be removed before the article is prepared for eventual publication.

- Please double-space everything in your manuscript.
- Use left justification only; do not use full justification anywhere in the article.
- The required font throughout is either Times New Roman 12 pt. or Minion Pro 12 pt.
- There should be only one space after each period.
- Punctuation marks appear inside quotation marks. Quotation marks, question marks, and exclamation points appear inside the quotation marks only when they are part of the actual quoted material. Otherwise, they should appear outside of the quoted material (as, for instance, when the author of the article is asking a question or reacting strongly to something).
- In listing items or in a series of words connected by and, but, or, use a comma before these conjunctions.
- When providing a list of items, use double parentheses surrounding the numbers or letters: (1), (2), or (3) or (a), (b), and (c).
- All numbers above nine must appear as Arabic numerals [“nine school districts” vs. “10 textbooks”]; numbers below 10 must be written out.
- Please remember that page number references in parentheses are not part of the actual quotation and must be placed outside of the quotation marks following quoted material.
- Use standard postal abbreviations for states in all reference items [e.g., NC, IL, NY, MS], but not in the text itself.
- Please do not set up automatic tabs at the beginning of the article (i.e., as part of a style); rather you should use the tab key (and not the space bar) on your computer each time you begin a new paragraph. The standard indent is only ¼ [0.25”] inch.
- Please note the differences between the use and appearance of hyphens and dashes. Dashes (which should be used sparingly) should appear as the correct typographic symbol (—) or as two hyphens ( -- ). If your computer automatically converts two hyphens to a dash, that is fine. APA guidelines, as well as those for other style manuals, suggest that commas, parentheses, and other marks of punctuation are generally more effective than dashes.
- Please observe APA guidelines with respect to the use of initials instead of the first and middle names of authors cited in your list of references. Also note the use of the ampersand (&) instead of “and” to cover joint ownership in both parenthetical and bibliographical references. Use “and,” however, to refer to joint authorship in the body of your article.
Please reflect on the title of the article. Quite often titles do not give readers the most precise idea of what they will be reading.

Please remember that according to APA guidelines, the References section does not consist of a list of works consulted, but rather of the list of works you actually use in your article. Before you submit your manuscript, verify that each reference in the article has a matching citation in the References section. Then be sure that all items in the References section have been cited within the article itself. In unusual circumstances, authors may include as an appendix a separate selected bibliography of items useful to readers, but not among the sources cited in an article. Please double check all Internet addresses before you submit the manuscript.

Be judicious in using text or graphic boxes or tables in your text. Remember that your manuscript will have to be reformatted to fit the size of the published volume. Therefore, a table with lines and boxes that you set up so carefully in your 8 ½” × 11” manuscript page will not usually fit on our journal pages.

Please makes certain that the components you submit are in the following order:

- First page — with the article title, names and titles of authors, their preferred mailing addresses, home and office phone numbers, FAX numbers, E-mail addresses, and an indication as to which of the joint authors will serve as the primary contact person [also, times in the summer when regular and E-mail addresses may be inactive];
- First page of the manuscript — containing the title of the article and the abstract
- The text of the article
- Notes; References, Appendices — in this order
- The short, biographical paragraph (no more than 4-5 lines).

Authors must complete the online Author/Article Information form. This form is used to match the author’s description of the article with the appropriate reviewers according to (1) instructional level; (2) areas of interest; (3) the type of content; (4) relevant language(s); (5) keywords that best describe the article content [no more than four should be indicated].

Call for Articles

The NECTFL Review encourages articles of interest to instructors, researchers, and administrators at all educational levels on theory, research, and classroom practice in language teaching. Articles dealing with pedagogical strategies, materials and curriculum development, language teaching technology, the teaching of literature, assessment, community awareness projects, and international studies would be equally welcome; the foregoing list illustrates the range of concerns that might be addressed in submissions. We welcome manuscripts from teachers at all levels, pre-K through university, and from teacher educators.
### The NECTFL Editorial Review Board

Our sincere gratitude to the following individuals who have agreed to serve as reviewers of manuscripts submitted for publication in the *NECTFL Review*. We cannot fulfill our mission without them!

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Comparing nine world language teacher preparation programs within and across three states

Susan A. Hildebrandt, *Illinois State University*
Anne Cummings Hlas, *The University of Wisconsin–Eau Claire*
Kelly Conroy, *Western Kentucky University*

Abstract

This descriptive study examines the diverse requirements and characteristics of world language (WL) teacher education programs across and within three states. Comparisons are made based on No Child Left Behind’s (2002) *highly qualified* teacher criteria, states’ licensure or certification requirements, and the ACTFL/NCATE (2002) program standards. This article provides a comparative overview of traditional WL teacher preparation programs at the federal, state, and university levels. The discussion explores common and diverging requirements among programs across three different states and within each state, with the goal of promoting further dialogue regarding WL teacher preparation practices.

Susan A. Hildebrandt (Ph.D., The University of Iowa) is Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics and Spanish at Illinois State University, where she teaches world language pedagogy and Spanish classes. Her research areas include language teacher preparation, assessment, and educational policy, as well as inclusive language teaching practices. She has published in *Hispania, Teaching and Teacher Education, The Language Educator,* and *L2 Journal.*

Anne Cummings Hlas (Ph.D., The University of Iowa) is Associate Professor of Spanish in Foreign Languages at the University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire. She teaches Spanish and methods courses for pre-service teachers. Her research areas include teacher use of technology, teacher development, and high-leverage teaching practices. She has previously published articles in *Foreign Language Annals, L2 Journal,* and *Hispania.*

Kelly Conroy (Ph.D., University of Texas at Austin) is Assistant Professor of Spanish at Western Kentucky University. She teaches Spanish and methods courses for pre-service teachers, along with coordinating lower division Spanish. Her research interests include teacher use of target language, teacher development, and Spanish for specific purposes. She has previously published articles in *NECTFL Review* and *English Language Teacher Education and Development Journal.*
Teacher preparation and quality are frequent topics of debate at the federal, state, and local levels, with a variety of actors determining who can become a teacher and how. The federal push for *highly qualified* teachers (U.S. Department of Education, 2002) and state efforts to meet No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and Race to the Top requirements greatly influence how institutions of higher education (IHEs) and their world language (WL) teacher education programs prepare teacher candidates to work in American schools.

This descriptive study examines the diverse requirements and characteristics of WL teacher preparation programs within and across Illinois, Texas, and Wisconsin, surveying three universities from each state. Comparisons are made based on NCLB’s *highly qualified teacher* criteria and the *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)/National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers* (2002). The authors synthesize federal-, state-, and IHE-level requirements to develop a comparative overview of three traditional undergraduate WL teacher education programs within each of the three states. That is, the authors examine nine four-year undergraduate WL teacher education programs that are “characterized by a liberal arts curriculum combined with professional education courses and limited field experiences” (Hebert & Worthy, 2001, p. 899), in which a “large percentage” of the nation’s WL teachers are prepared (Tedick, 2009, p. 263).

The questions that guide this study are

1. What are WL teacher certification or licensure requirements in Illinois, Texas, and Wisconsin?
   a. How does each state address NCLB’s *highly qualified* teacher requirements of full state certification or licensure and proving knowledge of each subject taught?

2. Within each state, what do three different programs require for a WL teacher education bachelor’s degree?
   a. How does each program address NCLB’s *highly qualified* teacher requirement of a bachelor’s degree?
   b. How does each program address ACTFL/NCATE program requirements as stated in the ACTFL/NCATE Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers (2002, p. 2)?

3. How do those nine programs compare to and contrast with one another?

This study is not intended to be a comprehensive examination of all IHEs, policies, or states, nor is it an exhaustive description of all means to enter the WL teaching profession. Rather, it is a focused comparison of nine distinct IHEs’ undergraduate WL teacher preparation programs across three states.
Comparing nine world language teacher preparation programs

Federal definition of “highly qualified”

Enacted over a decade ago, the NCLB Act (U.S. Department of Education, 2002) introduced the phrase *highly qualified teacher* into the public sphere. That influential federal legislation passed Congress with widespread bipartisan support (Hess & Petrilli, 2006), attempting to make in-service teacher quality more uniform across states, districts, and schools and to hold IHEs accountable for new teacher quality (Huang, Yun, & Haycock, 2002). By the end of the 2005-2006 school year, all teachers of core subjects, including WLs, were to be *highly qualified*, meaning that they were to “hold at least a bachelor’s degree from a four-year institution; hold full state certification; and demonstrate competence in their subject area” (U.S. Department of Education, 2003, p. 4). A 2007 evaluation of states’ progress in implementing NCLB (Birman, Le Floch, Klekotka, Ludwig, Taylor, Walters, Wayne, Yoon, Vernez, Garet, & O’Day, 2007) reported that the “fairly straightforward” (p. 12) first and second NCLB requirements were being successfully implemented in all states. The third requirement, however, prompted a wider variety of implementation practices across states. NCLB officially expired in 2007, and in 2010 the U.S. Department of Education released *A Blueprint for Reform*, the Obama administration’s desired reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. At the time of this writing *A Blueprint* has not yet passed through Congress, so NCLB remains the central federal educational policy.

The Department of Education has recently softened NCLB requirements and granted 33 states two-year waivers that may be renewed for an additional two years (Ayers & Owen, 2012). Those waivers allow “a chance for states to improve their systems in ambitious but achievable ways” (Ayers & Owen, 2012, p. 6), which include modifying teacher evaluation systems, among other educational practices. Illinois and Wisconsin requested waivers, while Texas did not. Regardless of waivers and ongoing policy initiatives, the *highly qualified* teacher mandate remains relevant and current.

The federal government exerts fiscal influence on states’ teacher preparation and evaluation practices, and that influence in turn affects teacher preparation practices. In order to receive any federal educational moneys, states must adhere to the federal government’s requirements, including NCLB (Wiseman, 2012). Race to the Top, part of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009, has also prompted “education reform” (U.S. Department of Education, 2009, p. 2) through a competition for federal funding. States were encouraged to make changes to their existing educational practices, including student curriculum and teacher evaluation. For example, Race to the Top compelled states to implement the Common Core standards and to link K–12 student achievement to in-service teacher evaluation systems and pre-service teacher preparation programs (Wiseman, 2012). Illinois and Wisconsin were awarded Race to the Top funds, while Texas did not apply.
State and IHE roles in WL teacher preparation

Like many teacher quality mandates, highly qualified is ultimately shaped downstream with states implementing federal policy. Given the localized American education system (Fullan, 2001), each state interprets NCLB teacher preparation requirements to meet local needs (Rosenbusch, 2005), with state legislatures and Departments of Public Instruction or Boards of Education operationalizing highly qualified’s three criteria. Examining state-level practices is difficult, however, since “[c]ategories of certificates and licenses vary widely from state to state and are difficult to navigate, align, and compare” (Ingold & Wang, 2010, p. 15).

At the IHE level, seeing how institutions are positioned between top-down policies and local demands is vital to understanding how and why programs vary (Donato, 2009). Compliance with state and regional accreditation requirements influence IHEs and WL teacher preparation programs as they define highly qualified through the bachelor’s degree, required coursework, clinical experiences, and formative and summative assessments (Van Houten, 2009). This complex set of interactions can influence how each teacher preparation program implements federal and state requirements (Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loeb, Michelli, & Wyckoff, 2006).

There is a decidedly cyclical nature to IHE and state efforts to prepare teachers, with IHEs designing programs to meet state licensure or certification requirements. Those requirements are, according to Ingold and Wang (2010), based on “the perceived needs for and desired qualifications of foreign language teachers,” which are “often based on the types of courses and preparation programs that the teacher education programs in the state have been willing and able to provide” (p. 11). For example, the quality of collaboration between the College of Arts and Sciences and the College of Education at a given IHE can influence WL teacher preparation (Donato, 2009; Oxford, 2008). As a result, each IHE may assign different responsibilities for WL teacher preparation to the College of Education and to the Department of Foreign Languages.

ACTFL/NCATE Program Standards and requirements

IHE teacher preparation programs further interpret legislative mandates and professional norms, often with the help of regional, state, or national accreditation agencies (e.g., NCATE) and content-specific teacher organizations (e.g., ACTFL). To align state and professional standards, nearly all states participate in a partnership with NCATE (Darling-Hammond, Wei, & Johnson, 2009), and “39 states have adopted or adapted NCATE unit standards as their own unit standards,” with a focus on “performance-based accreditation” (p. 628). That is, teacher candidates must demonstrate competencies to earn certification or licensure, as opposed to completing seat time in teacher education and content courses. All
Comparing nine world language teacher preparation programs

three states included in this study have an NCATE state partnership, with Illinois and Texas entrusting NCATE to review all programs and Wisconsin performing its own program reviews (NCATE, 2013).

Published in 2002, the ACTFL/NCATE Program Standards have served as a “measuring stick by which programs are evaluated” (Huhn, 2012, p. S165). These program standards were drafted as guidelines for WL teacher preparation, which ACTFL calls “the joint responsibility of the faculty in foreign languages and education” (2002, p. 2). To meet ACTFL/NCATE’s (2002) six content standards, eight “Requirements for Programs of Foreign Language Teacher Preparation” (p. 2) must be fulfilled for WL teacher preparation program success:

(1) The development of candidates’ foreign language proficiency in all areas of communication, with special emphasis on developing oral proficiency, in all language courses. (2) An ongoing assessment of candidates’ oral proficiency and provision of diagnostic feedback to candidates concerning their progress in meeting required levels of proficiency. (3) Language, linguistics, culture, and literature components. (4) A methods course that deals specifically with the teaching of foreign languages, and that is taught by a qualified faculty member whose expertise is foreign language education and who is knowledgeable about current instructional approaches and issues. (5) Field experiences prior to student teaching that include experiences in foreign language classrooms. (6) Field experiences, including student teaching, that are supervised by a qualified foreign language educator who is knowledgeable about current instructional approaches and issues in the field of foreign language education. (7) Opportunities for candidates to experience technology-enhanced instruction and to use technology in their own teaching. (8) Opportunities for candidates to participate in a structured study abroad program and/or immersion experience in a target language community. (2002, p. 2)

The Program Standards provide six content standards with detailed descriptions and definitions to further describe WL teacher program and candidate preparation. For example, to achieve national recognition by ACTFL/NCATE, Advanced-Low oral proficiency is required for teachers of commonly taught languages, such as French, German, Hebrew, Italian, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish, while Intermediate-High is for required less commonly taught languages, such as Arabic, Korean, or Mandarin. These standards and requirements form the framework by which NCATE-accredited WL teacher preparation programs across the country are evaluated (Huhn, 2012). They also serve as an effective schema by which to examine other programs, articulating what WL teacher candidates should know and be able to do as a result of teacher education.
Method and Data Analysis

Employing the frames of federal educational policy (i.e., NCLB), three state contexts, and three IHEs within each state, this descriptive study explores how each local context interprets the highly qualified teacher provision of NCLB, state licensure requirements, and the ACTFL/NCATE (2002) program standards and requirements to provide a synthesis of that disparate information. This study seeks to answer the following research questions: (1) What are WL teacher licensure or certification requirements in Illinois, Texas, and Wisconsin? (2) Within each state, what do three different programs require for a WL teacher education bachelor's degree? (3) How do those nine programs compare to and contrast with one another? Following Yin's (2009) principles that the “control of behavioral events” is unnecessary and that focus should be instead on “contemporary events” (p. 8), the authors adopted a qualitative approach.

Programs

Nine distinct IHEs that prepare pre-service Spanish teachers for their respective state-level certification or licensure were chosen based on convenience; that is, the authors are familiar with Illinois, Texas, and Wisconsin WL teacher preparation practices. Spanish teacher preparation programs were specifically examined since Spanish is the most commonly taught language in the United States, and most WL teacher education programs prepare Spanish teachers. Three IHEs’ WL teacher preparation programs within each state were examined, identified below using a pseudonym coding system to maintain each IHE’s anonymity. The three Illinois IHEs, for example, are represented as IL-1, IL-2, and IL-3. Similar coding is used for the Texas and Wisconsin IHEs. Table 1 includes general information about each university, including whether it is public or private, its size, setting, and Carnegie Classification for Undergraduate Instructional Program (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, n.d.). The number of students is described as small (fewer than 10,000), medium (between 10,001 and 19,999), and large (20,000 or more).

Table 1. Nine IHEs selected for the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Size</th>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Carnegie Classification for Undergraduate Instructional Program</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IL-1</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Suburban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IL-2</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Large</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IL-3</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Small</td>
<td>Exurban</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Professions plus arts & sciences, high graduate coexistence
Balanced arts & sciences/ professions, high graduate coexistence
Balanced arts & sciences/ professions, some graduate coexistence
## Comparing nine world language teacher preparation programs

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TX-1</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Large</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Balanced arts &amp; sciences/professions, high graduate coexistence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TX-2</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Exurban</td>
<td>Balanced arts &amp; sciences/professions, high graduate coexistence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TX-3</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Exurban</td>
<td>Balanced arts &amp; sciences/professions, some graduate coexistence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WI-1</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Exurban</td>
<td>Balanced arts &amp; sciences/professions, some graduate coexistence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WI-2</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Balanced arts &amp; sciences/professions, some graduate coexistence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WI-3</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Small</td>
<td>Exurban</td>
<td>Professions plus arts &amp; sciences, some graduate coexistence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Data Sources

Multiple data collection methods based on a qualitative approach were utilized, including document analysis and interviews (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2009). The documents collected included seven student teacher handbooks, nine IHE program information websites, and seven undergraduate advising guides. Two WL teacher preparation programs’ student teacher handbooks could not be located, nor could two other programs’ undergraduate advising guides. State department of education materials and their WL teacher preparation mandates to IHEs from all three states were collected, primarily from state government websites. At first glance, this summary of information from various state and university websites may seem unsophisticated and relatively straightforward. On the contrary, locating this information was labyrinthine, with information spread across various sources, including College of Arts and Sciences, Colleges of Education, and states’ departments of education. Further, the information found was rarely clear-cut or easily comprehensible due to the seemingly convoluted nature of the various regulations, rules, and guidelines across and within states.

In addition to document analyses, researchers carried out interviews via telephone or e-mail with nine WL teacher education program coordinators, five WL pedagogy instructors, and five certification officers to verify archived information or to supplement information about WL teacher preparation policy at the state or institutional level. These interviews lasted approximately 60 minutes and were recorded with participant consent. Interview questions concerned certification tests, proficiency level requirements, WL teaching methods coursework, student teaching observations, and clinical hours, as well as trends in teacher education and standardization among IHEs. (See Appendix A for the...
The interviews were carried out to gain perspectives from the various implementation communities (Yanow, 2000).

Analysis

To answer this study’s research questions, a database was created to order and document the data, allowing all researchers access to evidence and to increase reliability (Yin, 2009). The electronic database, shared among researchers in a Google-based spreadsheet and a Dropbox shared file, included IHE- and state-level documents, interview transcripts, and links to online materials from state departments of education and IHE websites. After initial data were gathered and recorded in the database, the authors individually reviewed all state and IHE information and then compared initial perceptions.

Analysis criteria based on ACTFL/NCATE Program Standards (2002) and their “Requirements for Programs of Foreign Language Teacher Preparation” (p. 2) were developed to answer the second research question. In this study, the requirements were used to operationalize the standards, which are subsumed within and inform the requirements. As the authors did not have access to accreditation reports completed by the WL teacher preparation programs, they were unable to use the evidence provided by IHEs’ chosen assessments. Previous WL teacher education and certification literature also helped researchers further hone categories (e.g., Ingold & Wang, 2010; Rosenbusch, 2005; Tedick, 2009; Van Houten, 2009).

ACTFL/NCATE program requirements 1 and 2 concerning candidates’ ongoing language proficiency were combined to form one category, since the required level of proficiency for each program was the focus. Determining formative proficiency diagnostic feedback proved difficult, so one category was used. Proficiency outcomes were measured using the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines and the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) and Written Proficiency Test (WPT), where relevant. Requirement 3, a program with “[l]anguage, linguistics, culture, and literature components” (p. 2), was addressed by examining Spanish classes required by each IHE. Because of the difficulty in determining course content from catalog descriptions, credit counts were used to examine the third requirement. Requirement 4, that a methods class specific to WL instruction be provided, and requirement 5, that field experiences in WL classrooms be completed, formed two distinct categories. Requirement 6, regarding field experiences under the supervision of an FL professional, was addressed by determining the required length of student teaching and the personnel who supervise student teaching placements. Technology and its use in instruction, requirement 7, were examined by determining if an educational technology course was required. The final category concerned study abroad requirements and was based on requirement 8.

The authors employed triangulation techniques to enhance the trustworthiness of the conclusions drawn. Triangulation compares different data points and types to continuously ensure that the conclusions are in keeping with the data’s content. Merriam (2009) suggests triangulating data by “comparing and cross-checking data collected through observations at different times or in different places, or interview data collected from people with different perspectives or from follow-up interviews with the same people” (p. 216). For example, the authors compared the
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information from participant interviews with information from their university’s websites and handbooks, and vice versa. For the authors, triangulating the data meant that all data points overlapped and connected to yield trustworthy results.

Lastly, to further audit for trustworthiness, an external observer who was not part of the research team traced the chain of evidence. The observer examined the data, moving forward from initial research questions to the study conclusions (Yin, 2009). Then, the same external researcher traced the evidence by selecting specific conclusions and working backward to determine the particular evidence needed to support the stated conclusions, ensuring the credibility of the chain of evidence. Few areas of discord were encountered and, when misunderstandings were encountered, the researchers made adjustments to clarify the data and their reporting.

Results

Three brief, state-level educational histories of general and WL-specific teacher certification or licensure follow to answer the first research question. Each of the nine programs is described within its home state, providing a wider educational context for the specificity of WL teaching bachelor’s degree, as required by NCLB. Also within each state description, the three IHEs are examined using the ACTFL/NCATE program requirements (2002, p. 2) to answer the second research question. After the contexts and programs in each of the three states are described, the nine programs across the three states are compared and contrasted to answer the third research question. Of course, in any study of educational policy, descriptions are necessarily abbreviated to meet manuscript length requirements. The authors have attempted to cover the most salient information concerning the state and IHE contexts to answer the research questions.

Illinois overview

Illinois was one of the six states to pass a “law in formal opposition” to NCLB (Shelly, 2008, p. 446). DeAngelis, White, and Presley (2010) report that highly qualified teacher distribution across Illinois improved with NCLB implementation, although it “has a long way to go before disparities in teacher qualifications across schools are eliminated” (p. 2). To help teachers and schools determine their highly qualified status, Illinois chose to implement “professional development-based high objective state standards of evaluation” (Coble & Azordegan, 2004, p. 4), in which teachers can participate in self-determined professional development activities, submitting a plan for becoming highly qualified. In December of 2011, Illinois was awarded 42.8 million dollars from round three of the Race to the Top grants (ISBE, n.d.). As part of that funding, the Illinois State Board of Education (ISBE) implemented the Performance Evaluation Reform Act in January 2012, which requires part of teacher and principal evaluation be informed by evidence of student growth (ISBE, n.d.).

ISBE must approve IHEs to prepare pre-service teachers, and Illinois works with NCATE in a state partnership (NCATE, 2013). The Illinois Professional Teaching Standards were recently overhauled and will be fully implemented by
September 2013 (ISBE, 2010). The nine new standards and 159 indicators state what new teachers in Illinois should know and be able to do and will be assessed via the Assessment of Professional Teaching written test. These new standards emphasize technology incorporation and effective instruction to diverse K–12 learners. The Assessment of Professional Teaching and an accompanying content test assessing WL knowledge and proficiency have been developed to meet the third criterion of highly qualified, that teachers prove that they know the content they teach.

Illinois provides a rich landscape in which to analyze WL teacher education policy. An Illinois WL teaching license spans grades K–12, and in 2006 the ISBE found that 87 percent of elementary school WL teachers were deemed not highly qualified, along with 47 percent of middle school teachers and 28 percent of high school teachers (ISBE, 2006a, p. 21). Finding itself short of highly qualified teachers, Illinois has adopted the Visiting International Teacher Certificate (ISBE, 2006a, p. 65), which invites native speakers from other countries to teach languages in Illinois schools for a non-renewable period of three years. At the same time, budget cuts have hit Illinois, with K–12 WL programs reduced (Illinois Education Association, n.d.) and state foreign language grants completely cut from the budget (Illinois Arts Association, 2008). These losses to WL programs and funding have not been recovered in Illinois. The ISBE currently employs one specialist for both art and foreign language education.

WL teacher proficiency is described in the second of 10 state-level WL teacher standards: “The competent foreign language teacher understands oral communication and interacts appropriately in the target language in various settings” (ISBE, 2002, p. 92). One Knowledge Indicator concerning interpretive communication and four Performance Indicators describing presentational and interpersonal communication, along with knowledge of phonetic features of the language studied, make up Illinois’s WL teacher knowledge expectations. Content tests for pre-service WL teachers are geared toward Advanced-Low proficiency, and those wishing to be certified in French, German, Hebrew, Italian, Latin, Russian, and Spanish complete 100 multiple choice questions and two constructed-response tasks that assess writing and oral skills (ISBE, 2006b). All content and pedagogy tests were developed by Pearson and are unique to Illinois (Illinois Certification Testing System, 2012).

Investigating three undergraduate WL teacher preparation programs across Illinois revealed a range of requirements to earn a bachelor’s degree (see Table 2 on the next page for a summary). The following universities were selected: IL-1 (public, medium, NCATE), IL-2 (public, large, non-NCATE), and IL-3 (private, small, NCATE). Across the three IHEs, several commonalities arise. Per a state requirement, all three IHEs require 100 hours of clinical experiences before student teaching, with at least half of those hours to be completed in “diverse settings,” based on the school or community center’s student demographics. All three institutions encourage study abroad, but none of them requires it. Similar numbers of Spanish credits beyond intermediate classes are required, ranging from 32 to 36 credits. Oral proficiency was evaluated in all three programs using the OPI.
## Comparing nine world language teacher preparation programs

**Table 2. Comparing three Illinois IHEs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State-level Requirements</th>
<th>IL-1</th>
<th>IL-2</th>
<th>IL-3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of university and accreditation</strong></td>
<td>Public; state and NCATE</td>
<td>Public; state and non-NCATE</td>
<td>Private; state and NCATE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Certifications for Majors</strong></td>
<td>K–12</td>
<td>K–12</td>
<td>K–12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>General education credits for Spanish Education Major</strong></td>
<td>22 credits</td>
<td>17 credits</td>
<td>38 credits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other WL pedagogy courses for Spanish Education Major</strong></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Four credits (one class)</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>WL-specific methods courses</strong></td>
<td>Six credits (two classes)</td>
<td>Eight credits (two classes)</td>
<td>Three credits (one class)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Technology specific course</strong></td>
<td>Three credits education; two WL-specific elective credits</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Study abroad requirement</strong></td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Strongly encouraged, not required</td>
<td>Strongly encouraged, not required</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Required level of oral and written proficiency</strong></td>
<td>Advanced-Low, oral and written, as measured by the Illinois content exam</td>
<td>Advanced-Low on OPI</td>
<td>Intermediate-High on OPI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clinical experiences before student teaching</strong></td>
<td>100 hours</td>
<td>100 hours</td>
<td>100 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Length of student teaching</strong></td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>11 weeks</td>
<td>10 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>WL supervisor observations</strong></td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>Six</td>
<td>Six</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>General supervisor observations</strong></td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The ACTFL/NCATE nationally recognized programs at IL-1 and IL-3, however, require Advanced-Low to student teach while IL-2 requires Intermediate-High. Finally, all institutions require WL-specific methods coursework for graduation, ranging from three credits at the small, private university to six credits at the large, public university.

Some differences arise among the three Illinois IHEs. Education credits that are not specific to WL education range from 17 credits at IL-2 to 38 credits at IL-3. Additionally, Spanish teacher candidates at IL-1 and IL-3 are required to take a general pedagogy technology course, and IL-1 offers an elective WL-specific technology course. IL-2 requires no courses specific to using technology in instruction, although their program website explains that candidates will be prepared for pedagogical technology use. While both IL-1 and IL-2 require less than a semester of student teaching, with 11 and 10 weeks respectively, IL-3 requires a full semester or 16 weeks of student teaching. Student teachers from all three IHEs are observed at least six times, but at IL-1 and IL-2, WL specialists carry out all observations, while at IL-3 a WL specialist carries out three observations and a general university supervisor, who has K–12 teaching experience but not necessarily WL teaching expertise, carries out the remaining three.

Further differences lie in the WL teacher education program leadership. IL-1’s WL teacher education specialist is tenure-track and housed within a language department in a College of Arts and Sciences, and IL-3’s specialist holds a tenure-track position in a College of Education. IL-2’s specialist, however, is a non-tenure-track director and is housed within a languages School and under the purview of the university’s teacher education council.

**Highly qualified** in Illinois, it seems, may be dependent on the university from which a candidate graduates. The first NCLB criterion requiring a bachelor’s degree means different things, depending upon whether a candidate graduated from IL-1, IL-2, or IL-3. For example, in IL-1 and IL-2, student teaching was less than three months long, whereas at IL-3 it was four months long. The second criterion, full state licensure or certification, is consistent across the institutions, with passing the content and pedagogical tests an integral part of the certification process. Also consistent across the IHEs is the number of clinical hours required prior to student teaching. All three IHEs specified the same minimum number of clinical hours and all teacher candidates across the state must complete at least 50 of those hours in a diverse setting. As for the third criterion, proving knowledge of the subject taught, it is met by passing the content test created by the state of Illinois, while achieving Advanced-Low proficiency on an official OPI is a requirement for those candidates at IL-1 and IL-3, which are NCATE accredited IHEs and ACTFL/NCATE nationally recognized WL teacher preparation programs.

**Texas overview**

Texas has a long history of educational policy, with educational concerns among the reasons cited for independence from Mexico (Texas Declaration of Independence, 1836). Texas is home to some of the largest school districts in the nation (e.g., Houston, Dallas) and continues to reform and revise K–12 teacher
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certification requirements. Since 1995, Texas teacher licensing policymakers are the members of the State Board for Educator Certification (SBEC) (Texas Education Agency, 2012a, Board Members section, para. 1). According to the SBEC, which “oversees all aspects of the preparation, certification, and standards of conduct of public school educators,” their members “recognize public school educators as professionals and grant educators the authority to govern the standards of their profession” (Texas Education Agency, 2012a, Board Members section, para. 1).

WLs, known as Languages Other than English in Texas, are not part of the core “Foundation Curriculum,” which includes English language arts and reading, mathematics, science, and social studies (Texas Education Agency, 2013, Curriculum Division section, para. 2). Instead of being a core subject as in NCLB, in Texas WLs are included in the “Enrichment Curriculum,” along with subjects such as fine arts and physical education (Texas Education Agency, 2013, Curriculum Division section, para. 2).

Texas WL teachers are licensed to teach students from early childhood through grade 12 (Texas State Board for Educator Certification, n.d.). To become a certified WL teacher, candidates must attend a state-approved Texas Educator Preparation Program that incorporates the state-approved standards for WL teachers (Texas SBEC, 2004). Candidates are later tested on these standards by taking a state-issued exam.

Prior to 2010, Texas used the Texas Oral Proficiency Test as a measure of teacher oral proficiency in more commonly taught languages, but the state now uses the Texas Examination of Educator Standards (TExES), a redesigned and more comprehensive exam phased in during the 2010-2011 academic year. Oral production is now one of several sections that contributes to a cumulative TExES exam score (Texas Education Agency, 2010). For more commonly taught languages, the TExES exam also includes written language proficiency measures (Educational Testing Service, 2012b, Test at a Glance section, table 1). It also covers target language instructional practices, cultural knowledge, and listening and reading skills (Educational Testing Service, 2012b, Test at a Glance section, table 1). In terms of scoring, the Spanish TExES exam, for example, is scored from 100 to 300, with 240 being the minimum passing score (Educational Testing Service, 2013, Passing Standards section, para. 1). Written and oral skills are each weighted 12 percent, so language production comprises approximately one-fourth of the exam score (Texas Education Agency, 2009). Teacher candidates of less commonly taught languages (e.g., Arabic) do not presently have a content-specific TExES exam and are required to take an OPI and a WPT. In summary, a candidate must attend a state-approved program, complete student teaching, and pass the Texas-specific exams to become certified. Any other requirements (e.g., portfolio, residence abroad) are left to the discretion of each IHE’s WL teacher preparation program.

All educator preparation programs are approved by the Texas Education Agency, and many universities carry additional accreditation or organization memberships, such as that of the Southern University Conference. State program approval does not necessarily result in homogeneous programs, although all
programs must adhere to the overarching Texas standards (Texas Legislature, n.d.). Texas fully complies with NCLB’s call for a bachelor’s degree, full certification in the content area, and demonstrating content knowledge.

Three universities of varying sizes and contexts were selected for this sample: TX-1 (public, large, non-NCATE), TX-2 (private, medium, NCATE), and TX-3 (public, medium, non-NCATE). As seen in Table 3 (next two pages), one area of commonality is that all three institutions provide pre-service teachers with exposure to a K–12 setting prior to student teaching, though its duration and level of interaction with elementary and secondary students vary. Further, none of the three IHEs requires study abroad experiences for WL majors, though certification officers, advisors, and professors from each IHE reported promoting it to their pre-service teachers.

While these three WL teacher education programs demonstrate similar characteristics and requirements, diversions do occur (see Table 3). One significant difference is that only TX-1 and TX-2 require WL-specific pedagogy courses. TX-1 requires two WL methods courses totaling six credits, while TX-2 requires one WL methods course for three credits. TX-3 offers numerous courses in Curriculum and Instruction, as well as language content courses, but it does not offer a WL methods course. Additionally, TX-2 recommends introductory teacher education courses beginning in the first semester of freshman year while TX-1 offers teacher education courses upon admittance to the teaching program, typically spring semester of sophomore year or fall of junior year. Beginning teacher education coursework at TX-3 usually begins the spring semester of junior year.

A second area of divergence is that TX-1 and TX-2 require more clinical experiences spread over several semesters before student teaching. TX-3, on the other hand, offers a field walk just prior to student teaching, in which block courses are held in local schools twice a week for a semester. This experience is designed to expose candidates to the K–12 setting, though in a more condensed time frame.

As seen in the previous examples, Texas WL teacher preparation policies are not a prescriptive set of regulations. Rather, the requirements serve as an end goal or destination to describe the knowledge and skills that teachers should possess after WL teacher preparation programs (Texas SBEC, 2004). In terms of Texas producing highly qualified teachers, this preparation involves demonstrated oral and written proficiency and field experiences prior to student teaching. The three IHEs selected for this study show a good deal of variation, though all fully complied with the three requirements of NCLB’s highly qualified teacher policy.

When compared with ACTFL/NCATE’s (2002) program requirements, however, TX-3 does not offer a WL methods course. TX-1 does not offer a technology-specific course, though this experience with “technology-enhanced instruction” (ACTFL/NCATE, 2002, p. 2) may be integrated within other courses. All TX universities surveyed offer “opportunities” (ACTFL/NCATE, 2002, p. 2) for study abroad but none requires it. TX-2 most closely aligns with the ACTFL/NCATE (2002) program requirements while TX-1 and TX-3 align less closely.
## Comparing nine world language teacher preparation programs

### Table 3. Comparing three Texas IHEs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TX-1</th>
<th>TX-2</th>
<th>TX-3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>State level Requirements</strong></td>
<td>Public; state and non-NCATE</td>
<td>Private; state and NCATE</td>
<td>Public; state and non-NCATE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of university and accreditation</strong></td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Certifications for Majors</strong></td>
<td>EC–12</td>
<td>EC–12</td>
<td>EC–12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Arts &amp; Sciences credits for Spanish Education Major (beyond Intermediate Spanish)</strong></td>
<td>27 Arts &amp; Science credits (beyond Intermediate Spanish)</td>
<td>33 Arts &amp; Science credits (beyond Intermediate Spanish)</td>
<td>24 Arts &amp; Science credits (beyond Intermediate Spanish)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>General education credits for Spanish Education Major</strong></td>
<td>12 credits</td>
<td>41 credits</td>
<td>15 credits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other WL pedagogy courses for Spanish Education Major</strong></td>
<td>15 credits (four courses)</td>
<td>Three credits (two courses)</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>WL-specific methods courses</strong></td>
<td>Yes; six credits (two courses)</td>
<td>Yes; six credits (one course)</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Technology specific course</strong></td>
<td>Yes; two credits (two courses)</td>
<td>Yes; three credits (one course)</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Study abroad requirement</strong></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Required level of oral and written proficiency</strong></td>
<td>Oral and written proficiency, as measured by Texas state exam</td>
<td>Oral and written proficiency, as measured by Texas state exam</td>
<td>Oral and written proficiency, as measured by Texas state exam</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Wisconsin overview

Throughout the history of Wisconsin teacher licensure, the Department of Public Instruction (DPI), university departments, schools of education, state legislators, and the Wisconsin Education Association Council have worked to further education, although recent budget controversy has detracted from collaborative efforts (Davey & Greenhouse, 2011). In regard to NCLB, Wisconsin was one of 19 states to “introduce a resolution or bill asking Congress to modify NCLB” (Shelly, 2008, p. 446), although for the 2005–2006 school year the state reported that “98.9 percent of all teachers employed in Wisconsin are highly qualified as defined by the state and by the federal No Child Left Behind Act” (Burmaster, 2006, p.1). Finally, Wisconsin applied for Race to the Top funds and split $133 million with four other states, gaining $22.7 million to improve services for young children (Richards, 2012).

Many key stakeholders supported Administrative Rule PI 34, passed by the state legislature in 2000 (for a comprehensive review of PI 34 and Wisconsin teacher licensure history, see Schug & Niederjohn, 2011.) PI 34 provisions mandate that teacher candidates must meet state-level regulations, such as composing a portfolio and passing standardized content exams, to complete a teacher education program (Wisconsin DPI, 2010). In terms of WL teaching requirements, Wisconsin leaves most decisions up to the IHEs, which are accredited by the state. While these IHEs undergo regular programmatic reviews and some are accredited by NCATE, each IHE has some liberty to develop its own WL teacher candidate graduation requirements (see Oxford, 2008, for an example).
A reevaluation of content testing recently occurred at the state level, and since September 2011 WL teacher candidates are required to exhibit at least Intermediate-High proficiency on the OPI or the OPI-Computer, as well as the WPT. This change from Praxis II content knowledge exams to the ACTFL proficiency tests was ultimately due to concern about the redesigned Praxis II geared toward Advanced-Low (Workgroup Report, 2011). Wisconsin stakeholders debated a move to Advanced-Low; however, after much discussion, they maintained the Intermediate-High passing score due to the potentially adverse impacts on IHEs. A higher passing score could have also led to a reevaluation and modification of WL teacher education programs and further K–12 educational implications (Workgroup Report, 2011).

It should be noted that Wisconsin supports WL education at the state level, as evidenced by hiring world and global education consultants within the DPI. In addition, the DPI has developed language-specific projects such as a WL assessment website (Educational Communications Board, 2008-2011) and a website to showcase testimonials of global perspectives in Wisconsin (Educational Communications Board, 2011).

A comparison of three IHEs highlights some of the WL teacher education nuances within Wisconsin. The three institutions selected for the study are WI-1 (public, medium, non-NCATE), WI-2 (private, small, NCATE), and WI-3 (private, small, NCATE). Wisconsin offers WL teaching licenses in grades PK–12, 1–8, and 6–12. These three WL teacher preparation programs reveal a common focus on study abroad, content-specific methods, and practicum experiences. In addition, the Spanish Education major at each institution is comprised of comparable credits from Colleges of Arts and Sciences, ranging from 31 to 43 credits, and from general education, 32 to 40 credits. As seen in Table 4 on the next page, each IHE requires teacher candidates to study abroad, although the state does not require it. All three IHEs require WL teacher candidates to complete a WL-specific methods course ranging from three to four credits taught by a specialist in WL education, but WI-1 splits the credits into two courses. In addition, WI-1 and WI-2 WL methods courses are taught by a faculty member in the Department of Foreign Languages. In the case of WI-3, the methods course is taught by an adjunct who is a language teacher in an area high school.

Perhaps the most salient difference among the three IHEs is the number and type of student teacher observation requirements. PI-34 legislation requires four observations by “[s]upervisors with teaching experience and expertise in the specialty subject matter area and at the grade level of pupils being taught by the student teacher” (Wisconsin DPI, 2010, p. 96). Each of the Wisconsin IHEs analyzed made sense of this rule differently, with WI-2 sending only content-specific supervisors and WI-1 and WI-3 dividing student teacher supervision between general and content-specific supervisors. The reality is that the interpretation of this rule across three programs leads to different opportunities for content-specific feedback.

The three IHEs examined illustrate continuity across programs in terms of how highly qualified was interpreted in Wisconsin. In particular, each IHE has similar requirements for a bachelor’s degree and certification across programs, with comparable clinical hours, student teaching time, study abroad, and WL methods credit counts. In addition, the IHEs examined generally align to ACTFL/
**Table 4. Comparing three Wisconsin IHEs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State level Requirements</th>
<th>WI-1</th>
<th>WI-2</th>
<th>WI-3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of university and accreditation</strong></td>
<td>------</td>
<td>Public; state and non-NCATE</td>
<td>Private; state and NCATE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Certifications for Majors</strong></td>
<td>PK–12</td>
<td>1–8, 6–12</td>
<td>PK–12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Arts &amp; Sciences credits for Spanish Education Major (beyond Intermediate Spanish)</strong></td>
<td>31 credits</td>
<td>36 credits</td>
<td>43 credits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>General education credits for Spanish Education Major</strong></td>
<td>32 credits</td>
<td>40 credits</td>
<td>33 credits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other WL pedagogy courses for Spanish Education Major</strong></td>
<td>Three credits Second Language Acquisition course</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>WL-specific methods courses</strong></td>
<td>Four credits (two classes)</td>
<td>Four credits (one class)</td>
<td>Two credits (one class)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Technology specific course</strong></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes–Three credits, general</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Study abroad requirement</strong></td>
<td>Yes–minimum of six weeks</td>
<td>Yes–minimum of six weeks</td>
<td>Yes–minimum of one month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Required level of oral and written proficiency</strong></td>
<td>Intermediate-High on OPI or OPIc and WPT</td>
<td>Intermediate-High on OPI or OPIc and WPT</td>
<td>Intermediate-High on OPI or OPIc and WPT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clinical experiences before student teaching</strong></td>
<td>100 hours</td>
<td>100 hours</td>
<td>100 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Length of student teaching</strong></td>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>18 weeks</td>
<td>18 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>WL supervisor observations</strong></td>
<td>Four visits by someone with experience in the subject and grade level</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>Four</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Four</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Comparing nine world language teacher preparation programs

NCATE (2002) standards and program requirements, with the exception of WI-1 and WI-3 not meeting the recommended proficiency level of Advanced-Low to be nationally recognized. In addition, only one of the three institutions, WI-3, requires a technology specific course, although each institution does mention technology as being integrated into other courses. In sum, teacher candidates graduating from these IHEs, it seems, share similar requirements and field experiences, with differences in opportunities for feedback from a qualified WL supervisor during student teaching and the number of WL methods courses required.

Comparing IHEs using ACTFL/NCATE program requirements

The ACTFL/NCATE Program Standards (2002) and their requirements are useful for evaluating WL teacher preparation programs and have served as a means of analysis for this study. Although all nine IHEs in this study are equally compliant to NCLB, six of the nine IHEs have WL teacher preparation programs that, in one way or another, do not align with the ACTFL/NCATE (2002) program standards and requirements. The six IHEs that break with the standards and requirements do not require Advanced-Low proficiency of their Spanish teacher candidates. In addition, TX-3 does not require a WL-specific methods course, as outlined in requirement 4. Although each program may integrate technology and provide opportunities to use technology to meet requirement 7, only four of the nine require a technology course.

While there is divergence in many of the ACTFL/NCATE requirements, there is also some alignment. All nine programs provide field experiences supervised by a qualified content supervisor, at least for some observations, as described in requirement 6. In addition, each IHE offers opportunities for pre-service teachers to participate in study abroad experiences, as stated in requirement 8.

Comparing IHEs across and within states

Each of the nine WL teacher preparation programs examined is distinct because IHEs must, in a sense, craft a program to meet their individual needs and interests, based on factors such as faculty interests, resources, placements, student population, and recruitment. For example, the range of WL-specific teaching methods courses (zero to three) and credits (zero to eight) required suggests the potential for variance in teacher preparation quality, based on the university attended. For Spanish education majors, Arts and Sciences credits ranged from 24 to 43, while general education credits ranged from 12 to 41. Course offerings or study abroad requirements may also depend heavily on each IHE environment, and each IHE ultimately provides pre-service WL teachers with different opportunities for structured classroom learning in the United States or abroad. For example, all three Wisconsin IHEs require study abroad, while the remaining six IHEs only recommend it.

Several commonalities were present across all programs. In general, each program required a demonstration of oral proficiency, student teaching, a supervisory visit from a WL content specialist, and clinical experiences before student teaching. It should be noted that Wisconsin and Illinois IHEs demonstrated more commonalities to one another than did Texas’s IHEs.
Differences among the nine IHEs, however, far outweighed commonalities with specific requirements differing across programs. For example, each state and program require some level of oral proficiency, but programs nationally accredited by ACTFL/NCATE require their candidates to meet Advanced-Low proficiency. Some NCATE and non-NCATE IHEs, however, may require lower benchmarks depending on the required proficiency level set by the state. All IHEs also require student teaching, although its length varies from ten weeks at IL-2 to two semesters at TX-2. Another commonality is that each IHE requires clinical experiences before student teaching. However, the experiences vary considerably from a field walk at TX-3 to 100 hours required by Illinois and Wisconsin state-level policy. Finally, student teacher supervisor visits range from four to eight observations, while visits from a WL specialist ranged from one to six. It is clear that from one IHE to another, opportunities for feedback, experiential learning, and clinical experiences vary greatly. The large variance shown in this study suggests each IHE has a distinct program that prepares pre-service WL teachers in a different way than other programs, even within the same state.

Discussion

Despite being called “fairly straightforward” (Birman et al., 2007, p. 12), the first and second tenets of NCLB’s highly qualified teachers mandate proved complicated when examined closely, as did the third tenet. From our analysis, the three NCLB criteria for preparing highly qualified teachers— a bachelor’s degree, state certification or licensure, proving knowledge of the subject taught— may not be so clear-cut when investigated with a specific content area in mind. The same federal policies can trickle down in different ways. At the state level and in each unique IHE context, teacher candidates seem to experience less than uniform WL teacher preparation.

We must keep in mind, however, that highly qualified was intentionally left vague to assuage political disagreements during NCLB’s development (Hess & Petrilli, 2006). Coburn (2006) tells us that interpreting policy vagueness is often left up to the local actors who “actively construct their understanding of policies by interpreting them through the lens of their preexisting beliefs and practices,” which “shapes their decisions and actions as they enact policy” (p. 344). State WL leaders, licensure officers, and program coordinators are sense-makers, interpreting policy based on their local environments and unique contexts. This study has found substantial variability across state and IHE requirements for WL teacher preparation. Furthermore, the two levels of policy interpretation, between the federal and state levels and between the state and IHE levels, bring about complexity and differences across the nine programs. Diversity among WL teacher education programs shows us
Comparing nine world language teacher preparation programs

that *highly qualified* WL teacher candidates are unique products of their particular state and IHE, even though their preparation complies with NCLB requirements.

In a sense, the federal level sets the initial parameters for educational policy, but many other entities downstream shape its implementation. Power structures ultimately determine requirements, with federal and state powers holding more sway than WL teaching professionals. NCLB regulations are high stakes, but ACTFL/NCATE's (2002) program standards may not be as high of stakes, thus creating a major difference in the impact of the two policies. That power structure introduces a wide variety of pedagogical implications across programs and states, including required proficiency levels, types of courses taken, and mandated assessments for pre-service teachers, among others. When these nine IHEs are viewed in light of ACTFL/NCATE (2002) criteria, the authors see a good deal of variation across the programs, with few appearing to align with all of standards and program requirements.

With increased accountability, the need for a collaborative instead of competitive framework is essential. It is oftentimes the case that WL educators from language departments and education departments in the same IHE work in isolation from another, unaware of what each other is doing. With this said, the authors return to the ACTFL/NCATE program standards that describe WL teacher preparation as “the joint responsibility of the faculty in foreign languages and education” (2002, p. 2). The same lack of awareness too often holds true among IHEs in the same state and across states. Ultimately, IHEs must find ways to continue to meet their local needs in spite of increasing pressures to standardize, test, and measure. Simultaneously, IHEs need to work together in order to balance competing local and higher level forces with the end goal of developing *highly qualified* WL teachers without recreating the wheel in each of their local contexts. This article is intended as one way to help improve communication and understanding.

The teacher education landscape is constantly changing and creating new challenges for WL teacher education programs, and presently this could not be truer. In addition to the recent modifications described in each state’s context, IHEs are about to face enormous changes in teacher education accreditation. To be specific, NCATE and the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC) will soon merge to form the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP) (Wiseman, 2012), and new Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers are currently being developed (ACTFL, 2013). Another upcoming challenge is the Teacher Performance Assessment Consortium’s edTPA, a new measure of student teachers’ effectiveness that is currently being implemented in over 20 states as part of student teaching requirements (Hildebrandt & Hlas, 2013). This high-stakes assessment, developed at Stanford University, is based “around the principles that successful teachers apply knowledge of subject matter
and subject-specific pedagogy” (Teacher Performance Assessment Consortium, 2011, p. 4). WL teacher preparation programs all over the country are clamoring to understand the implications on their candidates and programs, particularly given the serious ramifications for not passing the assessment. Many states have tied the edTPA to certification or licensure requirements, while others such as Illinois have also tied it to graduation requirements. Similar to the criticisms of National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, candidates’ writing abilities may confound the results of the edTPA and its implementation may leave programs at risk (Burroughs, Schwartz, & Hendricks-Lee, 2000).

With all of these changes, IHEs and programs will undoubtedly spend vast amounts of time and energy to comply with new state and accreditation mandates. Could that time and energy be better spent helping WL teacher preparation candidates meet the challenges they will face in the K–12 setting? Instead of constantly retooling their programs with each mandate, IHEs could instead focus on analyzing program outcomes, as demonstrated in their graduates’ post-graduation classroom performance or from data collected during their teacher education program. With more time, WL teacher preparation programs could also take what they know about novice teacher development and create opportunities in their communities for their pre-service candidates to carry out real-world teaching. Instead, it seems IHEs and WL teacher education programs must continually focus on the mandates from above to justify and maintain their existence.

Limitations and future research

As with any study, there are limitations that must be acknowledged. This data set represents a small sample of WL teacher preparation programs across the country, and the authors recommend that further comparisons be made with a wider sample of states and greater level of detail in comparing IHEs within and across states. Investigating the teacher candidate perspective would also contribute to our current understanding of WL teacher certification policy.

This study’s methodology relied partially on counting credits, which may tell little about IHE teacher education program orientation or coherence. Also, many course descriptions encountered while collecting data included verbiage about technology, although the authors counted only technology-specific courses when addressing ACTFL/NCATE’s seventh requirement for “technology-enhanced instruction” (2002, p. 2).

All data were gathered by the authors, who may have relied on preexisting knowledge of state and institutional contexts. The act of writing about policy and its interpretation influences the very policy being studied, with the researchers taking an active role (Yanow, 2000). This study is no different, with each author acting as a participant observer (Yin, 2009), although every attempt was made to remain impartial. In addition, states were selected based on a convenience sample, and the selection of three programs within each state inevitably forced the researchers to explore the limited context and artifacts of the states chosen. This study does not address all states or situations. Therefore, the small number of
Comparing nine world language teacher preparation programs

states selected will limit the generalizability of the findings. Finally, though many steps were taken to remove author bias, the researchers acknowledge and take responsibility for any inadvertent bias, with efforts taken to ensure each program’s anonymity.

It is also worth noting that educational policy is ethereal and impermanent, with teacher qualifications influenced heavily by elections and the ebb and flow of power structures (Ryan, 2004). The impending changes to WL teacher preparation described above will surely influence the future of American teacher education and provide a robust opportunity to examine sense-making at the local level as they happen. It is necessary to better understand each local actor’s beliefs and experiences to make sense of policy implementation (Coburn, 2006) as it occurs and to follow the intended and unintended effects, or washback.

Because of the ever-changing nature of these data, the authors encourage the reader to confirm information contained within this article, particularly if attempting certification or directing a WL teacher preparation program. The information presented here is as accurate and current as possible at the time of writing. Because the information sources are varied and decentralized, any errors, omissions, or inaccuracies were unintentional, and the authors assume full responsibility.

Conclusion and Emerging Issues

WL educators, policymakers, and stakeholders between top down and local forces have yet to fully agree on how to specifically operationalize highly qualified as it relates to WL teachers. The varied contexts and differing agendas, along with competing interests, impact American higher education and teacher preparation practices. Donato (2009) points out that schools of education are confronted with the challenge to respond to multiple mandates and to reconstruct programs frequently to satisfy national-level and state-level professional standards. Failure to do so can lead to program sanctions, lack of accreditation or closure of the teacher education program (p. 267).

The complicated nature of policy has occurred, in part, due to questions surrounding teacher quality and subsequent student learning. With increased accountability, the localized licensure process will only receive more scrutiny and examination. Nonetheless, clear and current information on each state’s licensure policy is not readily available or easily accessible in a central repository. In fact, locating and making sense of each state’s educational teacher preparation policies was complicated and frequently convoluted. Given these challenges, a comparison of state IHEs as seen in this study is a worthwhile beginning. Examination of these IHEs and states has demonstrated the complicated, localized nature of U.S. WL teacher preparation programs and serves to further promote dialogue among those who care about improving WL teacher quality.

This study found substantial variability across nine WL teacher education programs across three states. With this variability, it is difficult for programs and states
to collaborate or create a unified vision of what makes WL teachers successful because of the balance needed between complying with requirements and maintaining local autonomy. Therefore, a professional, well-informed front will be necessary to continuously advance WL teaching at all levels and would aid in cross-state and cross-programmatic collaboration.

It is hoped that this article will enlighten WL teacher education program directors to the commonalities and differences at the state and IHEs levels, in an effort to further open lines of communication. That communication is now more important than ever as new directives from above will again force new program modifications. By joining forces, programs can learn from one another’s actions instead of acting in isolation. Within- and across-states collaboration can alleviate some of the challenges caused by the constantly shifting landscape and reoccurring program redesigns. Open communication can also give a stronger voice to those on the ground, doing the important work of WL teacher education, and enable them to have a say in shaping the mandates instead of merely reacting to them. Successfully preparing highly qualified teachers for every WL classroom will require time and dedication. The authors hope that this highly charged label and its associated policies will serve as a catalyst to further investigate how WLs are best learned and taught, particularly in K–12 environments.

Notes

1. Depending on the state, the term licensure or certification can describe the process by which teachers are given permission from the state to teach at the K–12 level. For example, Texas uses the term certification, while Wisconsin and Illinois use licensure.

2. The authors will use NCLB’s term highly qualified in italics to denote compliance with state and federal licensure policy. This term should not be read as the authors’ judgment or opinion of a given program, policy, or teacher. Readers should also note that the use of highly qualified does not necessarily connote effectiveness (Palardy & Rumberger, 2008).

References


Comparing nine world language teacher preparation programs


Comparing nine world language teacher preparation programs


Texas Declaration of Independence. (1836).


Appendix A

Interview Protocol for Institutions of Higher Education

1. Which best describes the accreditation of your institution?
   - NCATE
   - TEAC
   - State-Accredited
   - Other: ________

2. Does your institution certify foreign language education majors and minors?
   - Majors Only
   - Majors and Minors
   - Other: ________

3. In which languages?

4. I see your state currently uses the [Praxis, OPI, Pearson, State Test] for certification. Is this still accurate? Does the same exam apply to all languages?

5. In addition to the Praxis, Pearson, or OPI, does the program require passing other oral or written proficiency requirements? What is the minimum level of proficiency for each skill?

6. I see your state currently requires a proficiency level of [Intermediate-High or Advanced-Low]. Is this still accurate? Does it apply to all languages?

7. Now I'd like you to tell me a little bit more about how foreign language education majors and minors are recommended by the licensure specialist at your institution:

8. Does the sequence of study require a period of immersion (e.g., study abroad) for majors and minors? If so, how long is the minimum stay? Are native speakers held to the same requirements?

9. How many credits of foreign language methods do language education majors take? Minors (if applicable)?

10. Please describe the timing and length of foreign language methods courses and field/clinical experiences with your program.

11. Are there other practicum experiences in FL are required before student teaching? If so, please describe them.

12. How many student teaching observations are conducted by content supervisors? By general supervisors?

13. What are the requirements to be a supervisor?
14. Is a portfolio required of pre-service teachers? Can you describe this process?

15. Some states allow interpretation and flexibility for IHEs; would you prefer to see more flexibility or more standardization? Explain.

16. If states could offer more standardization among IHEs, what would that look like to you?

17. If there was anything that you could change on a state or institutional level, what would it be and why?

18. ACTFL/NCATE’s program standards tell us that 80 percent of all new teacher candidates must demonstrate Advanced-Low proficiency, be supervised by an experienced teacher, and complete a FL methods course. What are your thoughts about these program standards?

19. Is there anything else you would like us to know or would like to share?
Overcoming resistance to 90% target language use: Rationale, challenges, and suggestions

Jean W. LeLoup, U.S. Air Force Academy
Robert Ponterio, SUNY Cortland
Mark K. Warford, Buffalo State College

Abstract

The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) has prioritized maximal classroom use of the target language (TL) for foreign language (FL) instruction. In spite of its edification in the research and standards that inform language pedagogy, extensive teacher use of the TL eludes most Western PreK–12 and postsecondary classrooms. This article offers several perspectives on the topic of promoting teacher use of the TL in FL classrooms, starting with the research and standards literature as a base for informing directions in pre-service as well as in-service professional development, continuing to address challenges faced by FL departments, faculty, pre-service and in-service teachers, and students, and concluding with practical suggestions for effecting maximal TL use in the FL classroom.

Jean W. LeLoup (PhD, The Ohio State University) currently teaches in the Department of Foreign Languages at the United States Air Force Academy (USAFA). She is Professor Emerita of Spanish from the State University of New York College at Cortland where she taught courses in language acquisition, methodology, and Spanish. She is co-moderator of FLTEACH, the Foreign Language Teaching Forum e-mail list. Her research interests include the incorporation of culture and technology in foreign language instruction and the use of target language in the classroom.

Robert Ponterio (PhD, University of Illinois) teaches French language, literature, and civilization as well as technology applications in the second language classroom at SUNY Cortland. Dr. Ponterio is co-moderator of FLTEACH, the Foreign Language Teaching Forum e-mail list. His interests include the preparation and use of authentic materials in the classroom, professional development of language teachers in the field, and improvement of oral proficiency in pre-service language teachers.

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The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) recently published a position statement advocating 90% minimum teacher use of the target language (TL) in the classroom (ACTFL, 2010). While this stance would seem to be a widely accepted principle in the field of language teaching, the step from adoption to implementation appears to be much more difficult than one would expect. Language teachers across the spectrum of instructional levels (from beginning to advanced classes) struggle to comply with the recommendation advocated by their national organization, though it is based on what is generally known and accepted as good language instruction practice. One need only examine the listings of foreign language (FL) conference sessions at the state, regional, and national levels to realize that this is a topic of great concern to teachers at all levels of instruction, PreK–16.

Given that the research on FL teacher discourse points to a number of contradictions to this position such as exaggerated perception of TL use (Edstrom, 2006; Levine, 2003; Polio & Duff, 1994), haphazard employment of the TL (Duff & Polio, 1990), and meager integration of the TL into classroom discourse (Rhodes & Branaman, 1999), it makes sense to revisit and briefly summarize the theoretical and methodological foundations of language instruction in order to articulate a principled position on classroom code-switching—alternating use of two or more languages within a single conversational unit—from first language (L1) to second language (L2). That framework established, the authors of this article will use this base to explore current and possible future directions in pre-service as well as in-service professional development that focus on increased use of the TL by instructors and learners in language classrooms. Consequently, the discussion is divided into three themes: (1) the latest research and standards, and how they synthesize into a principled approach to TL integration into classroom discourse; (2) the current picture with regard to approaches to L1/L2 code-switching in FL teaching and teacher education; and (3) recommendations for pre-service and in-service professional development, and encouragement of departmental conversations related to the promotion of more teacher use of the TL.

**Toward a principled approach to L1 vs. L2: What the research and standards tell us**

While a full account of the modern approaches to language pedagogy is beyond the scope of this article, a focused historical narrative that centers on the theme of L1 vs. L2 use in the FL classroom suggests a diversity of schools of thought when it comes to language code preferences. Many of us are familiar with the story of how language pedagogy and research has evolved over the last six or so decades, but retelling that story from the perspective of use of L1 vs. L2 in the classroom sheds some light on just how much the conventional wisdom has shifted over the years. As the reader will note, this evolution has been anything but a linear process.
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Prior to the rise of Behaviorism in the 1950s, Grammar-Translation focused on the use of L1 as the medium for written translation of L2 passages. The subsequent rise of Behaviorism under the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) shifted Grammar-Translation’s emphasis on reading and writing to experiments in coercing speaking and listening ‘habits’ from L1 to L2. Behaviorist approaches like Audiolingual Methodology (ALM) indicated preference for the removal of L1, with L2 use centered on canned dialogue memorization and mechanical transformation drills.

The displacement of behaviorist approaches with more cognitive varieties in the 1960s ushered in Cognitive Code methodology. Cognitive Code retained many of the controlled, mechanical qualities of ALM, adding a grammar-based syllabus and an emphasis on explaining L2 rules in the L1, followed by carefully controlled language practice drills. Though Krashen and Terrell (1983) derided this approach as ALM in reverse, the input-based approaches associated with Krashen’s Monitor Model have done little to promote a more emancipatory view of the learner, failing to allow the latter more free communication in the L2.

In the last couple of decades, the rise of interactionist theories and methodologies has created space for a more socially situated view of language development, emphasizing that language should be seen as a mode of social interaction rather than simply a structured linguistic system. Lantolf, working within the framework of sociocultural theory (SCT), advanced the empowering image of learner-as-participant (Lantolf & Appel, 1994). The core point of access to L2 development for teachers and learners, within an SCT perspective, has centered on exploration and co-construction of L2 rules through leading questions (e.g. “what do these endings have in common?”).

The current debate within SCT centers on the language medium for teaching and learning (L1 vs. L2). While it is generally accepted that the L1 represents an essential tool students use to manage language learning tasks (Brooks & Donato, 1994; Anton, 1999), the question of the extent to which the teacher should use L1 vs. L2 is not universally agreed on in the literature. Wells (1999) expressed concerns about the consequences of giving teachers and learners unqualified latitude to use the L1, and Adair-Hauck and Donato’s (2002) elucidation of the PACE (Presentation, Attention-to-form, Co-construction, Extension) Lesson Plan suggests a brief transition period to accustom students to full teacher use of the L2. In contrast, Anton (1999) and Lantolf and Poehner (2007) argue that students and teachers should be given free license to use the L1. Warford (2009a), invoking the Vygotskian notion of teaching as centered on ‘just enough’ assistance within the learner’s emergent zone of proximal development (ZPD), proposed an arrangement in which students would be free to use the L1 but the teacher would maintain the L2. The success of this approach depends on a shared commitment to locating and addressing breakdowns in communication.

While we have not reached 100% consensus with regard to articulating a principled position on classroom code-switching (Macaro, 2001), two points are well established in second language acquisition (SLA). First, L2 input and interaction are essential to acquisition and the development of communicative competence, respectively. Second, there is some utility to explicit grammar
First, L2 input and interaction are essential to acquisition and the development of communicative competence, respectively. Second, there is some utility to explicit grammar instruction, though this does not necessarily warrant liberal teacher use of the L1.

The space for 10% L1 use, given the variety of positions on L1 vs. L2 in recent language research and pedagogy, also makes sense.

Professional standards and teaching in the target language

In 2002, professional standards for US foreign language teachers were published. The Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC) and the National Council for Accreditation in Teacher Education (NCATE) both worked with ACTFL in the design of guidelines for FL teacher preparation. Both, as in the case of proficiency-oriented instruction, emphasize using the L2 to the maximum extent. While ACTFL-NCATE (2002) Standard 3.a (Understanding Language Acquisition and Creating a Supportive Classroom) states: “They (the candidates) use the target language to the maximum extent possible” (p. 42), the InTASC (2002) standards are more explicit in their attempt to promote extensive teacher use of the L2. Principle 1 (Content Knowledge), for example, asserts that “They [the candidates] can effectively conduct classes in the target language at all levels of instruction” (p. 13). Principle 4 (Instructional Strategies) openly presents the ability to effectively maximize messages in the L2. These standards also address the need to establish positive learning environments through the L2. InTASC Principle 5 stresses “Language teachers understand that an environment in which communicative interactions occur in the target language is essential for effective language learning” (p. 25). Principle 6 (Communication) asserts that this commitment to use the L2 extends well beyond the immediate classroom environment.

Finally, InTASC Principle 9 (Reflective Practice) underscores research on teacher discourse as a vital tool for professional development: “They reflect on various aspects of their teaching, such as target language use during instruction” (p. 43). It is noteworthy that the ACTFL Position Statement (ACTFL, 2010) on teaching in the L2 appears to have embraced the maximal language used in the InTASC (2002) and ACTFL/NCATE (2002) Standards (90% minimum).

Changing professional cultures: Promoting more L2 use at the department level

The ACTFL Position Statement can be a tool for change among in-service teachers who are not currently using the TL 90% or more in the classroom. There are many reasons why a particular teacher might not be using the TL sufficiently.
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Some of these could be based on conscious decisions and beliefs whereas others stem from unconscious practices and habits that have developed over years in the classroom in a variety of socio-educational contexts (Warford, 2005). Therefore, we prefer an approach to change based on modifying the professional culture. There are many paths to making improvements in our TL classroom use, both as individuals and as members of a department. In order to have an impact on a culture, we need to start from an understanding of where we are and a recognition of the realities that teachers face in their specific classroom with their own students.

What are some of the reasons why teachers do not use the TL as much as they might? One of the most powerful forces pushing teachers to use L1 is the need to be sure that students understand points of grammar and cultural knowledge as we work to raise their proficiency (Warford, 2007). As teachers, we have to be communicating with students to manage the classroom, provide content-based instruction, engage students in activities, assign work, answer questions, give feedback, encourage motivation to succeed, and interact with students on a personal level. Trying to do all these things in the TL can be especially difficult for a teacher who is not used to doing so, for teachers who may not have received adequate training, for those whose own TL skills are weaker than one would hope, or for those who find it difficult to communicate about more complex topics near enough to the students’ own level. All of these forces make it easier to fall back into teaching how one was taught or unconsciously allowing L1 to play an ever increasing role in the language teachers’ interactions with students, whether such L1 use is in accord with the teacher’s personal beliefs about effective teaching or not. Neuroscience today tells us that much of our behavior is not directly governed consciously (Ramachandran, 2011). Driving while talking to a passenger is an oft cited example of this aspect of conscious focus vs. unconscious behavior. If the focus of our attention is limited yet we are engaged in the highly complex behavior that is language teaching while actively using all of the subskills just mentioned, some of these classroom behaviors such as L2 use must necessarily lose focus. How can we make it more likely that the teacher will fall back to L2 rather than L1 when attention is focused on other pedagogical issues? Teachers need to develop good habits and a classroom culture that makes L2 the natural fall back. In this way, changing the classroom culture and specific daily practices can help us avoid using more L1 than we intend.

We know that the error of the teacher constantly translating TL utterances to ensure comprehension leads to students not paying attention to the TL but waiting for the translation (Wong-Filmore, 1985). The teacher can avoid this trap by staying in the TL or carefully and systematically selecting what can and should be said only in the L2 and what needs to be said in L1. Limited translation to support comprehension of new vocabulary or structures can have a place; it just cannot be the routine. If we expect students to understand what we say in the TL, we have to use language they can comprehend. The teacher needs to have a plan for how to handle vocabulary support when reading or listening to new material or when presenting new vocabulary. Getting at the meaning through context, paraphrasing
in the TL, using audiovisual support, asking for student comprehension checks, can all be tried before resorting to translation, even in a classroom that does not have a systematic L2 focus. Having a specific plan and standard practice can help avoid relying on the last resort of falling back into L1 when another approach could be more effective.

Many teachers feel the need to explain grammar in L1. Grammar explanation is certainly above the language level of students in lower- or intermediate-level classes. Explanations in L2 that the students do not comprehend are not productive. Excessive and repeated grammar explanations can crowd out communication in the TL. How many teachers have thought, “If I explain the agreement of the passé composé just one more time, maybe they will get it”? We can keep the explanation to a minimum and spend more time practicing and interacting in the TL by focusing more on modeling correct usage and limiting explanation to brief comments in answer to questions or essential statements that we know through experience will be sticking points. Grammar points in written form, whether in textbooks or handouts, can help get the explanation out of the way and out of the teacher’s mouth, at least to a greater degree. Adopting a classroom culture that says we are more concerned with communication and accuracy than with prescriptive rules does not mean abandonment of those rules. Both teacher and students should know that the rules are just a stepping stone or crutch; competent speakers are not thinking about rules when doing real language. One place for L1 in the classroom might be in helping students become aware of why we learn things in a particular way, why we are building a particular classroom culture. If students buy into the usefulness of classroom practices in facilitating their success, it can allow them to more readily accept the classroom culture we are putting in place even if communicating in the TL forces them out of their comfort zone.

Getting students to begin an activity can be problematic. They must understand what it is that they are supposed to do, and they may resist beginning an activity if they are unsure. Providing instructions in L1 can become a pattern that takes up class time. The problem is often compounded by students who do not pay attention to instructions, whether in L1 or L2. The more complicated the activity, the more difficult it will be for students to follow directions in the TL. It behooves us to keep activities simple so students can focus more on communication and less on the procedural questions. Providing a model by having the teacher engage in the activity with a student in front of the class rather than explaining what we want students to do is frequently a better approach. Using a smaller number of activity types that students will come to recognize and how to perform will save time compared to using many new kinds of activities that students do not recognize and hence will not know how to complete without more procedural input from the teacher.
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We need to address the culture standard by integrating cultural information and behavior in the language classroom. Many teachers think of culture as separate from language and as too complex for beginning students to grasp in the TL. It is certainly the case that if we try to use the L2 to explain complex cultural content, especially perspectives, that requires too much language above the students’ ability to understand, we will not be successful. What we can do is to limit the culture topics and the complexity of concepts to those that can be addressed mostly in the TL through examples, engaging in the cultural practices as part of communication (e.g., shaking hands when saying hello), using video to illustrate cultural products and practices or listening to native speakers comment on aspects of their culture. If necessary, such activities may be followed up with short comments in the L1 to address points that lie beyond the students’ ability to grasp in the TL if that is acceptable in the classroom culture. If a topic simply cannot be addressed in the TL in a level 1 class, then perhaps it is a topic better left for level 2 or beyond. Certainly enough cultural content is available to choose from that we can incorporate something different that will work better at the students’ level. However, it might be that limited information about the topic can be presented in the TL in level 1, and more complex aspects of the topic left for a later date. Such decisions should be motivated by the needs of the particular classroom environment we are implementing, by the teacher’s interests and level of comfort, and not simply by what is in the book, by what materials happen to be available, or what is in the news at the moment.

Managing the classroom, assigning work, and keeping students on track are all areas where very clear student comprehension is essential. Naturally, we have to be sure that students understand what is being assigned or they will simply not do the task because they do not know what to do. One way around this is to give homework assignments in written form rather than spend class time explaining what to do. Teacher personality and student expectations, problems with individual students, and differences among student groups can all lead to incredibly diverse environments that require adaptation to find solutions. Classroom management issues can also crowd out time in the TL. However, keeping students actively engaged in communication in the TL can also help keep management issues under control, simply by keeping students occupied. Individual teachers need to discover what works best for them. Addressing problems outside of class time can be a useful strategy for reducing L1 in a language class. Having clearly established routines and a coherent and consistent plan in advance for implementing classroom management reduces the need for intervention and makes it easier to decide ahead of time rather than on a moment to moment basis how to handle as much classroom management in the TL as possible. Of course, having a clear plan established from the outset is good practice in any classroom.

An important aspect of early language acquisition is getting into the habit of using learned expressions in the right contexts. The more that teachers and
students interact and use the TL with each other in the classroom, the easier and more automatic it becomes and the more natural it feels. Expectations that go too far beyond the students’ abilities are unrealistic, can lead to failure in spite of good intentions, and can generate frustration and a breakdown in the TL environment. The teacher must make sure that those expectations are appropriate and that students are not asked to perform too far beyond their ability. Students who know what to expect because language use has been part of the classroom culture will be able to better deal with the inevitable frustrations of communicating in a new language.

In language departments in the real world, we find a mix of teachers who use the TL extensively and those who resist such use for a variety of reasons. Ninety percent is not a magic number, but it does help give faculty a clearer idea of what we mean by “extensively.” ACTFL’s authoritative statement can support the teacher who is meeting resistance from the students, parents, administration, or even other instructors. This goal also helps underline the importance of developing oral proficiency at all levels, especially for pre-service FL teachers who need to meet proficiency objectives in order to be successful in credentialing programs. These new teachers need more oral practice in their upper-level courses, a need university faculty should better address by requiring more spontaneous student participation and contribution in those upper-level classes, perhaps also reducing the too often teacher-centered nature of the advanced literature course.

Teaching in the target language: Challenges for pre-service and in-service teachers

An important goal of any FL methods course should be to prepare pre-service teachers to be knowledgeable, capable, and committed with regard to teaching in the TL (both in their practicum work as well as their eventual FL classrooms). The idea of teaching in the TL would seem to be a given, considering the subject matter and purpose of the FL classroom. In FL teaching, the medium often is the message (McLuhan, 1964; Bernhardt & Hammadou, 1987), other venues of FL learning such as content-based instruction and immersion education notwithstanding. However, many FL teachers appear to be perpetuating a system wherein much instruction takes place in the L1 and, indeed, the TL at times takes on a secondary role. A large body of research asserts that teachers teach how they were taught, and not necessarily how they are taught to teach (Britzman, 1991; Lortie, 1975). Why does this happen? First, it is easy, familiar, and in many instances, it is the path of least resistance. The sense is “I don’t have to think about this; I’ll just do what I have seen for years.” All pre-service FL teachers have sat in classrooms and observed how their instructors have (or have not) communicated in the TL. It is a scenario they recognize, they know, and thus can follow without a great deal of effort. For a beginning FL teacher trying to juggle all the daily demands of the classroom, the additional requirement of teaching largely or completely in the
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TL, particularly for non-native speakers (NNSs), compounds the pressure and can even be overwhelming (Bateman, 2008). If the role models these teachers have had throughout their educational formation have not used the TL much, they then will not necessarily be predisposed to do so either, despite repeated exhortations by their FL methods instructor.

Nevertheless, we need to fight against this inertia vis-à-vis TL use in the classroom and place it front and center in the FL methods class. One review of FL methods course syllabi indicated very little, if any, attention paid to successful TL teaching; in other words, TL use was not listed as a topic for concentration in the course (Warford, 2009b). This could mean that (a) it was simply ignored, (b) it was touched on but not deemed “worthy” of an entire topics heading, or (c) the very idea permeated the entire course. We have no way of knowing, other than identifying what we ourselves experienced in these courses, what we as FL methodologists do, and/or what our colleagues tell us they do. The stark reality here is that we are not preaching to the choir. We need to convince pre-service teachers of the necessity of TL use in the classroom, and this goes right to the heart of their language learning beliefs. Pre-service FL teachers must examine the extant database of research on TL use and with guidance develop their own position on this very important issue. Then we need to give them the tools to be able to execute (Gwyn-Paquette & Tochon, 2002; Levine, 2003; Pearson, Fonseca-Greber & Foell, 2006). Beginning in the FL methods class, pre-service teachers can be equipped with a TL ‘advocacy kit,’ containing a bibliography of the research base addressing teaching in the L2, the ACTFL Position Statement, additional statements and articles by noted FL practitioners, and input from FL colleagues (So you say, 2009).

FL teachers need good role models of TL use in the classroom. They must see their university professors, university practicum supervisors (PSs), and their public and private school cooperating teachers (CTs) demonstrating good TL practice regularly. Ideal practicum placements are those in which the transition from theory stressed and learned in the FL methods class to practical application in the classroom is seamless. While many excellent and dedicated CTs do accept the role of mentor along with the concomitant increased workload, at times events seem to conspire against this ideal situation. It can sometimes be difficult to find CTs who engage in extensive TL use in their classrooms. Enter the student teacher (ST) who wishes to implement a 90%+ policy of TL use, informed and motivated by a previous FL methods course. Resistance is encountered on at least two fronts. First, the students are unaccustomed to the increase in TL use and rebel accordingly. Second, some CTs do not want the ST implementing a change in TL use policy that they themselves cannot or will not continue, for a variety of reasons, once the ST has departed. The ST is then in a very difficult situation: the PS advocates more TL use and the CT argues against it (e.g., the students just will not understand or they find it too difficult to “do” some classroom actions in the TL). Nevertheless, STs need to be encouraged to persevere and encourage their students to plunge

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into the TL world. They can even anticipate and actively combat resistance to TL use on the part of their students by discussing the rationale for and importance of using the TL in the classroom (Bateman, 2008). It is imperative that STs be placed with those CTs in the field who are in agreement with ACTFL’s stance on TL use and employ the TL optimally in the classroom, thus providing the aforementioned good role models. Unfortunately, sometimes geographical and other constraints work against this goal.

One potential impediment to optimal TL use by practitioners is that of confidence in the use of the TL. Thus, an important area to be addressed is that of TL competence on the part of pre-service and even in-service teachers (Bateman, 2008; Pearson et al., 2006). FL teacher candidates must achieve a certain level of TL proficiency that will enable them to teach in the language, including management of the class and additional pedagogical tasks such as giving instructions and explanations, employing comprehension checks, and carrying on the continual conversational “patter” that goes with an interactive class (Pearson et al., 2006). Upper-level language, culture, and literature courses must be conducted in the TL, and ample opportunities for continued development of oral and written L2 proficiency should be provided in these classes. Pre-service teachers would also be well-served by explicit instruction in how to integrate their language skills with “teacher talk” that will enable them to run their classroom. They also need to be taught the speech patterns used by natives for circumlocution that will help them continue conversations with students when their own strategic competence fails (Canale & Swain, 1980; Jourdain & Scullen, 2002; Pearson et al., 2006). Micro-teaching—giving short lessons targeting specific grammar or cultural points to peers—should be included in all FL methods courses, with each lesson videotaped. Extensive analysis and feedback by both students and instructor should follow to reap the full benefit of the activity. At the very least micro-teaching provides a taste of how one might conduct a class in the TL and whether or not “students” have understood.

Instruction in how to stay in the TL needs to be incorporated in the training of language teachers. Such techniques include how to teach daily routines and conduct warm-up activities, use of common classroom expressions and grammatical structures, and how to convey meaning without resorting to use of the L1 (e.g., use of gestures, concrete objects, and examples). This type of scaffolding will increase pre-service teachers’ confidence and skill in using the TL as much as possible (Henry, 2007; Bateman, 2008). In addition, programs that prepare pre-service FL teachers should have in place a structured system to evaluate the TL competence of their students such as one involving the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) or a series of Simulated Oral Proficiency Interviews (SOPIs). These evaluations should begin early in the students’ program, be consistent, periodic, formative, and directly relate to programmatic goals and objectives. Students not showing satisfactory progress and improvement in TL competence in the requisite skill areas must be advised to make a concerted effort.
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to increase their language proficiency, to consider study abroad, and be directed toward any and all opportunities to engage in TL use on a regular basis. Even with these measures, students must be made aware that these are minimum standards in a life-long learning scenario.

In-service teachers are not immune to the confidence issue. In fact, both native speakers (NSs) and non-native speakers (NNSs) can exhibit reticence to use the TL due to two different sides of the confidence conundrum. While NNSs may struggle with TL competence and merely producing the desired TL input that is comprehensible to their students, NSs clearly are not encumbered by language ability. On the other hand, many NSs suffer from the “fear factor” of not being understood; they use the TL and are greeted with blank stares from students who appear to be terrified by the torrent of TL unleashed by their teacher. Seemingly unable to modify their TL input to assist comprehension, the NSs’ reaction is often to revert to the students’ L1 to quell their apprehension and frustration, and the proverbial vicious cycle ensues. It becomes simpler and “safer” just to run the class in the L1 for much of the time, even extending to regular classroom routines that could easily be conducted in the L2 and perhaps once were (Duff & Polio, 1990; Levine, 2003). Once this pattern is established, it is difficult even for experienced teachers to change. As negotiating meaning is thorny, not necessarily quick, and sometimes exhausting, it is all too tempting to “save time” by using the L1. Thus, NSs could also benefit from training in making their TL usage “comprehensible” to their students.

In essence, we need to win our colleagues (pre-service and in-service alike) over to the ACTFL position of 90% TL use in the classroom. Many FL instructors believe they spend considerable time already in the TL, but research has shown that teachers are frequently quite unaware of the L1 that pervades their own instruction and often make an inaccurate assessment of the amount of TL in use in their classrooms (Duff & Polio, 1990). One way to verify the amount of TL input happening in the classroom is to record one’s lessons. This can be an eye-opening experience for many FL teachers who felt heretofore that the TL predominated in their classes.

Among the arguments in favor of increased TL usage are those promoting TL input as a means to L2 acquisition. Clearly, students must be exposed to TL input in order to acquire the language eventually, and L2 researchers claim that meaningful interaction is an essential ingredient for L2 development, particularly where comprehensible input, focused output, and accuracy cues are involved (Ellis, 1997; Gass, 2003, Toth, 2011). In addition, hearing the TL and trying to figure it out is part of language learning processes and thus promotes movement along one’s interlanguage (IL) continuum. Hence, it seems to follow that the more exposure to the TL, the more learning takes place (Turnbull, 2001). Though input does not
necessarily equal intake and subsequently output (Ellis, 1994), a paucity or even an absence of TL usage will lead to interlanguage stagnation.

Pre-service and in-service beliefs can also figure largely in the discussion of TL use. As Levine (2003) states, nearly all FL instructors have developed their own approach to L2 use versus L1 use in the classroom, said approach being influenced to one degree or another by a variety of components such as knowledge of research base, pedagogical training, departmental policy, and personal experience. If teachers believe certain aspects of the FL class simply cannot be conducted in the TL, their practice will follow suit. These aspects often include managing the classroom, giving instructions for a range of tasks, teaching grammar, covering cultural information, and even establishing personal relationships with students (Polio & Duff, 1994; Macaro, 2001). Nevertheless, some FL teachers have met with great success in all of these areas using the TL. In one study, those who used more TL appeared to be more organized, more focused, had higher expectations for their students, and in general were more successful than their counterparts who used much less TL. Their students also had better listening comprehension (Bateman, 2008). Other studies support the use of the TL for teaching higher-order thinking skills and providing more opportunities for L2 interaction between teacher and students and among students, leading to increased TL proficiency (Gwyn-Paquette & Tochon, 2002; Henry, 2007). Student perceptions of TL use can also vary, differ from the classroom reality, and influence their own language behavior. Thompson (2009) found that the more students perceived TL use by the instructor, the less likely they were to use their L1 in class interactions.

The debate over just how much TL use is optimal in the FL classroom is extensive and will likely continue to engender much discussion in the future. Macaro (2001) provides a succinct summary of the whole range of L1 versus L2 use in the FL classroom, delineating three theoretical positions: The virtual position, which treats the FL classroom as a TL country and permits no L1 at all; the maximal position, which credits no pedagogical value to L1 use but acknowledges that nothing is perfect and thus the teacher may resort to the L1 from time to time; and the optimal position, admitting some pedagogical value in L1 use and allowing that some aspects of learning may even be enhanced by L1 use. FL practitioners need to decide where they stand on this very important issue but, at the very least, they should reflect on their own practice and make the effort to increase their TL use in order to address ACTFL’s recommendation in a way that makes sense to them in their own classroom. Given the difficulty we know we all have in adopting behavioral practices that follow such conscious decisions but differ from past models, a combination of cultural change and specific practical activities can help us successfully implement this recommendation. Following are some concrete suggestions on how teachers might go about doing just that.

Staying in the TL: Confronting areas of classroom discourse that gravitate toward the L1

We have seen how FL teachers can easily slip into L1 use for a variety of reasons in the classroom. Here we offer several practical ideas for staying in the
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TL as much as possible and covering an assortment of tasks and actions common to the FL classroom.

1. Set the stage from day one. Regardless of language level and/or age of the students, the FL instructor can begin class in the TL and thus start students on their path to much language exposure and input. Use of body language, modeling, props, cognates (where possible), and a great deal of enthusiasm all aid in communicating introductory information at the beginning of a course. Students realize from the outset that the TL is and will be the mode of communication in the class. The teacher creates a language community and invites the students to join, facilitating them in their first steps (or continued progress) into the TL.

2. Establish classroom routines in the TL and provide students with scaffolding to enable them to be successful performing these routines from the beginning. If certain procedures need to be followed, delineate these in the TL with gestures, vocabulary, props, and then practice these with the students often. Routines are just that: actions that are repeated over and over. The more they are done, the easier they become. Give students the language to use—in written or oral form—and then expect them to use it. Something as simple as requesting permission can be executed in the TL. If the student reverts to the L1 for this, feign incomprehension.

3. Do “classroom management” in the TL with tone of voice, a look, physical presence near the students, and of course appropriate TL words.

4. Teach a particular grammar point using the PACE Model (Adair- Hauck & Donato, 2002) or a modified version thereof, as an example. In the PACE Model, students are presented with many exemplars of a grammar point in the TL and are then asked to ferret out the rule or rationale for a specific use. By carefully choosing the grammar point, the examples, and the TL used to ask probing questions of students, this task can be completed by all parties in the TL.

5. Introduce effectively many new grammar structures or expressions through just the imitation of models following up with use in groups. Explicitly explaining or even developing rules interactively might not be necessary in some cases where patterns are not complex.

6. Demonstrate completely interactive activities involving students asking each other for preferences, missing information (also known as information gap activities), and any tasks wherein students must negotiate meaning prior to setting students to work. Pick a student as a partner and walk everyone through the activity in detail, using gestures, examples, or visuals if necessary and appropriate. Literally show the students how the activity works and what they are to do; avoid giving any verbal instructions if possible. Once the activity is underway, the teacher should also actively participate, circulating among groups, repeating what was demonstrated initially as a reminder to students.
7. Show short video segments, stopping frequently to interact with students about meaning through circumlocution. Add personal comments to bring in the teacher’s own experience in the culture and show where specific cultural content can be generalized or where it might represent an exception. Follow up with short small group discussion in the TL.

8. Read to students or tell them stories to provide TL input. Use techniques such as circumlocution, images, gestures to provide vocabulary support.

Conclusion

The push for reaching a level of 90% plus TL use in the FL classroom is a laudable and admirable objective; even more so, it is a necessary goal if FL learners are to move along their interlanguage continuum toward maximum TL proficiency. It is underpinned by SLA research, has consensus by stakeholders at all levels of FL education, and is “field-tested” extensively by practitioners in the profession who have realized the need and accepted the obligation to provide as close to an immersion setting in their classrooms as possible. Indeed, implementing 90% plus TL use in the classroom is no small challenge to be met. Using the TL extensively in the classroom is clearly not a revolutionary idea. Nevertheless, judging from the large attendance at conference sessions discussing this topic and also the considerable amount of discussion generated in online FL forums (e.g., FLTEACH) by teachers searching for advice and suggestions on how to do so, staying in the TL obviously continues to be an elusive goal for many FL educators. The rationale for implementing 90% TL use in the classroom and the suggestions for taking beginning steps in the direction discussed above hopefully have provided the impetus for our FL colleagues to take on this challenge, to view it as a worthy undertaking, and to meet with success.

Note

1. The ACTFL Position Statement consistently refers to the use of the “target language” and does not reference “second language” use per se. For the purposes of this article, we use target language (TL) and second language (L2) interchangeably, due to the prevalent use of L2 in the literature.

References


Overcoming resistance to 90% target language use


The beliefs of African American students about foreign language learning

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Abstract

This article describes the beliefs about foreign language (FL) learning held by African American students enrolled in several sections of beginning Spanish at a Historically Black University. The study addresses two research questions: (1) What beliefs about FL learning do African American students hold? (2) How do beliefs impact the students’ intention to continue FL study beyond the university requirement? The Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) (Horwitz, 1985, 2013) was used for data collection. Findings showed that participants were generally optimistic about their ability to learn a FL but not overly confident. Findings also revealed that students had high prospects about the level of proficiency that they would achieve but unrealistic expectations about how long it would take to achieve that level. Participants also showed a significant amount of instrumental motivation, demonstrated by their consciousness of the career benefits of knowing a FL. Willingness to take risks and a certain degree of speaking anxiety were also revealed. Regarding teaching strategies, students valued practice with other learners, favored the study of grammar, and were opposed to classes being taught in the target language. With respect to how beliefs affect students’ intention to prolong their language study beyond the university’s graduation requirement, students planning to continue were more confident about their ultimate level of proficiency and were more interested in gaining awareness about
the culture. They also believed in the importance of communicating with native speakers and of finding ways to learn the FL outside of class. Finally students wanting to prolong their FL study expressed a desire to possess traits that are typical of native speakers, such as thinking in the language and having a native-like accent. Given the small size of the study, which was restricted to only one institution, the findings of the study cannot be overly generalized.

Introduction

Over the past three decades, several scholars have called the profession’s attention to the low numbers of African American students in foreign language (FL) programs (Brigman & Jacobs, 1981; English, 1996; Farfan-Cobb & Lassiter, 2003; Glynn, 2007; Guillaume, 1994; Hines & Jenkins, 2004; Hubbard, 1980; Huber, 1990; Kubota, Austin, & Saito-Abbott, 2003). Despite the efforts to increase minority participation in language classes, these low numbers persist today. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) (U.S. Department of Education, 2011), only 4.1% of the total number of bachelor’s degrees in FLs from postsecondary institutions was awarded to African Americans in 2009-2010. In contrast, African Americans received 10% of the total number of degrees awarded in all fields that same year, and the US Census (2010) estimates that they represented 12.3% of the United States’ population in 2010. In view of these figures, we must conclude that the profession has not been successful at recruiting and retaining a fair representation of African American students in FL programs. A direct consequence of this underrepresentation among students is the small number of African American FL instructors. NCES data show that only 3.6% of the FL faculty members at postsecondary institutions were African American in 2003 (U.S. Department of Education, 2008).

In view of these figures, there is a need for a collective effort to increase these numbers at all levels of instruction, but especially in higher education and beyond the common graduation requirement (Anya, 2011; Dahl, 2000; English, 1996; Farfan-Cobb & Lassiter, 2003; Guillaume, 1994; Hines & Jenkins, 2004; Huber, 1990; Kubota et al., 2003; Lassiter, 2003; Wilberschield & Dassier, 1995). Yet, on the scholarship front, research that focuses on African American FL learners is scarce. Most of studies focus on the infusion of cultural elements of the African Diaspora in FL courses in order to reduce the gap between the learners’ cultural background and that of the native speakers (Dahl, 2000; Davis, 1991; English, 1996; Farfan-Cobb & Lassiter, 2003; Hubbard, 1980; Moore, 1998). Other lines of inquiry include the nature and impact of pre-college exposure to FL study (Brigman & Jacobs, 1981; Campbell-Whatley & Comer, 2000; Glynn, 2007; Hines & Jenkins, 2004; Hubbard, 1980; Moore, 1998, 2005), the social perception of Black English as a barrier for FL learning (Hubbard, 1980; More 1998, Wilberschield & Dassier, 1995), and the causes for low numbers of African American FL educators (Guillaume, 1994; Wilberschield & Dassier, 1995). An additional line of research
The beliefs of African American students about FL learning

has looked at the profiles of successful and unsuccessful learners, with a special focus on affective variables such as attitude, motivation, and beliefs (Anya, 2001; Davis & Markham, 1991; Glynn, 2007; Lassiter, 2003; Moore, 2005; Roberts, 1992).

Although more research is needed in all these lines of inquiry, the beliefs that African American students hold about FL learning has received the least amount of attention (Lassiter, 2003). In contrast, there is extensive research devoted to identifying and addressing the beliefs that the student population as a whole brings into the FL classroom. These studies, which were especially reinforced by the contributions of Horwitz in the 1980s, coincide in their conclusion that beliefs have an impact on FL success and satisfaction (Horwitz, 1985, 1987, 1988; Lassiter, 2003; Rifkin, 2000; Tumposky, 1991). Learners have been found to have counterproductive views and unrealistic expectations that can inhibit learning. These views can negatively influence student satisfaction with their FL courses and with their progress toward achieving fluency. Therefore, it is imperative for instructors and curriculum planners to identify and address these beliefs in order to improve the effectiveness of their teaching practices and to increase student satisfaction and motivation to continue FL study beyond the university requirement (Horwitz, 1988; Lassiter, 2003). In addition, beliefs about FL learning have been found to be conditioned by the societal context and cultural background of the learners (Kouritzin, Piquemal, & Renaud, 2009; Tumposky, 1991). Consequently, there is a need to identify and address the beliefs of learners from a variety of backgrounds, and particularly those of African Americans in view of the gloomy figures reported by NCES.

To that end, the present study investigates the beliefs about FL learning held by students enrolled in 8 sections of beginning Spanish at a Historically Black University (HBCU). The following questions are addressed: (1) What beliefs about FL learning do African American students hold? (2) How do beliefs impact the students’ intention to continue FL study beyond the university requirement?

**Review of Relevant Research**

Given the significance of beliefs, a need was evident in the FL profession to develop a valid and reliable model to elicit students’ preconceived ideas about FL teaching and learning. In the 1980s, Horwitz developed the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) (Horwitz, 1985), which marks the beginning of systematic research about the nature of this affective variable. Since its development, the BALLI has become a standard scale, used in most studies on the nature of beliefs, and widely considered a valid and reliable instrument (Kuntz, 1996b). The BALLI was originally developed for English as a Second Language (ESL) students, learners of the commonly taught languages, and language teachers, but it can be used for students of any FL (Horwitz, 1985). The first version contains 34 Likert-scale items covering a variety of issues concerning FL teaching and learning. There is not a definite correct or incorrect answer to each item since the only purpose of the scale is to describe student beliefs and predict their potential impact in FL teaching and learning situations. The items of the BALLI are not added together or averaged into a single score, but rather analyzed individually.
using descriptive statistics. Horwitz (1985) classified the items into five different themes: Foreign language aptitude, the difficulty of language learning, the nature of language learning, learning and communication strategies, and motivation and expectations. However, a new version of the scale, the BALLI 2.0, published in Horwitz (2013) does not include these themes, which have been cited as a limitation by Kuntz (1996b) due to the fact that they were based on common logic rather than statistical analysis. An additional difference between both versions is that the BALLI 2.0 incorporates 10 new items for a total of 43.

Based mostly on Horwitz’s model, research on student beliefs about language learning has been of a descriptive and sometimes comparative nature. Initially, studies focused on the commonly taught languages (i.e., French, German, and Spanish) and on students enrolled in elementary-level courses at higher education institutions in the United States. Later research has expanded to include the perspectives of students of less commonly taught languages (Husseiniali, 2006; Kuntz, 1996a), as well as English as a foreign language (EFL) and other FLs in different areas of the world such as the former USSR (Tumposky, 1991), Taiwan (Yang, 1992), Lebanon (Shaaban, & Ghaith, 2000), Singapore (Wharton, 2005), and Canada (Rodriguez Manzanaresis, & Murphy, 2010), among others. All these studies conclude that beliefs about FL learning are strongly influenced by the cultural background and society in which the learners grow up. Perhaps the most comprehensive studies on language learning beliefs are those conducted by Rifkin (2000) and Kouritzin et al. (2009).

Rifkin (2000) noted that only students from beginning FL classes participated in most studies, so he surveyed over 1,000 learners of 10 FLs at several levels of instruction in three different institutions over a three-year period. He found that beliefs varied according to level of instruction, whether it was a commonly taught language or a less commonly taught language, and the kind of institution.

Kouritzin et al. (2009) surveyed over 6,000 students in three different countries (Japan, France, and Canada). Their study looked at how attitudes, motivations, and beliefs differed in each country, as well as what factors of the social context influenced FL learners’ beliefs. Similarly to previous research, this study concluded that social and political factors had an impact on motivation for language learning and that beliefs were conditioned by the cultural and societal background of the learners.

In view of all these studies, we must conclude that beliefs about language learning are prevalent in the culture of the learners and they are inevitably brought into the classroom. Those preconceived notions have an impact on (1) FL success and (2) the students’ level of satisfaction with their FL classes and with their own progress. Therefore they cannot be ignored by curriculum planners and instructors. In terms of FL success, counterproductive beliefs have an influence on and sometimes interfere with achievement and learning strategies (Horwitz, 1988). In Horwitz’s study, learners were found to have some restrictive beliefs about how languages should be learned, such
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as excessive focus on translation, grammar, and vocabulary. Their concern for correctness made them less open to communicative approaches and possibly resistant to the practices of instructors who use that methodology (Horwitz, 1987, 1988). This resistance to certain approaches to FL instruction not only hinders learning (Rifkin, 2000), but also leads to lower levels of satisfaction, and even frustration. In addition to their preference for certain learning strategies over others, Horwitz (1988) found that students had high hopes about the proficiency that they would reach in the FL, but unrealistic expectations about how long it would take to achieve that proficiency. Horwitz concluded that this belief would unavoidably lead to frustration when progress is not as fast as expected. This may be a major factor in the students’ willingness to continue their language study beyond the graduation requirement.

Most studies focus on counterproductive beliefs that may hinder success and lead to dissatisfaction. In contrast, Rodriguez Manzanaresis & Murphy (2010) looked at the beliefs of successful FL learners. Using a mixed-methods approach that included the BALLI, these authors found that participants associated their success with their ability to make bonds with the target culture. They also preferred the social and affective component of learning Spanish, especially in authentic settings outside of the classroom.

Although there has been ample research that explores beliefs among students from different cultural backgrounds, little attention has been given to beliefs among the African American student population. Older studies on affective variables, such as LeBlanc (1972), found a general disinterest in FL study among this student population and a belief that FL study should be removed from the graduation requirements. Although in a more recent study Davis & Markham (1991) showed more positive findings, with students being aware of the practical and inherent value of FL study, research has yielded mixed results. For instance, Moore (1998) found that most African Americans in a middle school were either not interested in or had a negative attitude towards learning a FL.

In terms of teaching strategies, several studies have revealed that African Americans prefer a teaching approach that focuses less on grammar (Glynn, 2007; Moore, 2005) and more on the development of speaking skills (Davis & Markham, 1991; Moore, 2005), and the acquisition of cultural knowledge (Davis & Markham, 1991; Moore, 1998, 2005). Anya (2011) studied the experiences and motivations of African Americans who did and did not reach the advanced level. Similarly to Rodriguez Manzanaresis & Murphy (2010), the study found that successful FL learners felt a sense of investment, belonging, and engagement with others in the community of learners. They also had a desire to connect with the culture of the native speakers.

The only study exclusively devoted to beliefs among African American students using the BALLI is Lassiter (2003). Her investigation looked into beliefs
as a possible cause for the low interest beyond the requirement at an HBCU. She found that the majority of the participants were seniors and enrolled in a FL course because of the graduation requirement. Most had had little to no experience with FLs beyond the elementary level. Interestingly, many expected to be successful language learners and overall held somewhat positive views about their ability and the importance of FL learning.

Given the scarcity of studies, the present investigation attempts to expand the research on beliefs about language learning, which is still in its nascent stage. The overall goal of the study is to shed some light on the broader issue of the low numbers of African American FL graduates and to increase participation beyond the beginning courses that often constitute the graduation requirement.

Data Collection Methodology

Participants

The participants were 114 students enrolled in elementary Spanish courses at an HBCU (Spanish 101 n = 42, Spanish 102 n = 72). The sample consisted of 110 African American students (96.5%), two White students, and two foreign exchange students, one from Morocco, and one from Korea. Forty-two were males, 72 were females, and the majority (88%) had had exposure to FL learning prior to entering the university. Regarding class status, 15% were freshmen, 31% were sophomores, 32% were juniors, and 22% were seniors. 68% of the participants reported to be taking Spanish as a graduation requirement, and 37% expressed a desire to continue their language study beyond the graduation requirement (two semesters for most students, and four semesters for honors students and those pursuing a Bachelor’s of Arts degree).

Procedure

Participants were administered the BALLI 2.0 (Horwitz, 2013) during their Spanish 101 and 102 lessons. The scale was chosen because the Horwitz model is considered a systematic valid instrument to assess student beliefs about language learning (Kuntz, 1996b). The BALLI 2.0 is the latest version of the scale and it is comprised of 43 items. For the analysis, descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies shown as percentages, along with cross tabulations were used. Responses for “strongly agree” and “agree” were grouped into the category of “agreement,” and “disagree” and “strongly disagree” were grouped as “disagreement.” This was done with the purpose of showing a more accurate description of students’ beliefs, since many survey respondents tend to avoid extreme responses and gravitate toward more neutral options.
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Findings

Research Question 1: What beliefs about FL learning do African American students hold?

In order to determine the participants’ strongest beliefs, the items of the BALLI that received a percentage of agreement higher than 75% were identified. Results are presented in Table 1 (next page). The items with a strongest percentage of disagreement were also identified. In this case, the cut-off percentage was 50% since participants were not as forthcoming about their disagreement, with the highest percentage being 61%. Results are presented in Table 2 (next page).

As shown in Table 1, item 18 of the BALLI elicited the strongest agreement (91% Students believed that it is a good idea to practice with other learners of the FL. In addition the group had a high level of instrumental motivation, with 87% of students believing that being fluent in Spanish would improve their career prospects. Similarly, 84% of students had high expectations about the level of proficiency that they would achieve in the language. This finding contrasts with the fact that only 37% intended to continue beyond the university requirement. Students were also optimistic about their overall ability, with 83% believing that everyone can learn a FL. Finally, the group showed a strong emphasis on grammar. 81% believed grammatical accuracy to be the most important part of learning a FL.

Table 1. BALLI Items with Strongest Percentages of Agreement (Higher than 75%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agreement</th>
<th>Disagreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 4 3 2 1*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. It is a good idea to practice speaking with other people who are learning Spanish.</td>
<td>28 63 4 3 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. If I learn to speak Spanish very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job.</td>
<td>42 45 11 2 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. I want to speak Spanish well.</td>
<td>46 38 11 4 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.</td>
<td>29 54 12 4 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning the grammar.</td>
<td>27 54 14 4 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree.
Table 2. BALLI Items with Strongest Percentages of Disagreement (Higher than 50%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agreement</th>
<th>Disagreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.

| 1         | 12           |
| 26        | 39           |
| 22        |              |

33. Students and teachers should only speak Spanish during Spanish classes.

| 7         | 14           |
| 25        | 32           |
| 22        |              |

9. You shouldn't say anything in Spanish until you can say it correctly.

| 5         | 17           |
| 24        | 38           |
| 15        |              |

38. People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages.

| 3         | 7            |
| 38        | 32           |
| 20        |              |

27. It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.

| 8         | 20           |
| 21        | 40           |
| 11        |              |

*Note: 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree.

Regarding disagreement, although participants thought that everyone can learn a FL, most (61%) did not think that they themselves had a special ability for FL learning. Additionally, more than half of the participants (54%) were not in favor of being immersed in the target language, disagreeing with the statement about students and teachers only speaking in Spanish during class. Conversely, this group of participants was not afraid to take risks in the FL, regardless of the potential of making mistakes. Fifty-three% disagreed with the statement that you should not say anything until you can say it correctly. Most students did not see a relationship between FL aptitude and mathematical or scientific ability. Finally, 51% of participants disagreed with the statement that, when it comes to learning a FL, speaking is easier than understanding.

Items 4 and 15 of the BALLI do not elicit agreement or disagreement from participants, but rather provide a series of options regarding the difficulty of the FL and the amount of time that it would take to achieve a high level of proficiency. Results are shown in Tables 3 and 4.

Table 3. BALLI Item 4 Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: 5 = a very easy language, 4 = an easy language, 3 = a language of medium difficulty, 2 = a difficult language, 1 = a very difficult language.
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This group of participants was not particularly deterred by the perceived difficulty of the language, yet they were not overly confident. Sixty % perceived Spanish to be a language of medium difficulty. However, the number of students that perceived it as difficult was larger than those who saw it as easy or very easy.

Table 4. BALLI Item 15 Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15. If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take for them to learn that language very well?</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: 5 = You can't learn a language in one hour a day, 4 = 5–10 years, 3 = 3–5 years, 2 = 1–2 years, 1 = Less than a year.

The results discussed earlier show that participants were confident about their ability to reach a high level of proficiency in the FL and saw it as having a moderate level of difficulty. However, 65% believed that it would take up to two years to achieve that proficiency. Only 28% believed that it would take more than two years to achieve a high level of proficiency.

Research Question 2: How do beliefs impact the students' intention to continue FL study beyond the university requirement?

Cross tabulations were used to identify the items of the BALLI that bore a stronger relationship with the participants’ intention to continue their FL study beyond the graduation requirement. The items with the strongest relationships are listed in Table 5.

Table 5. Percentages of Agreement and Intention to Continue Language Study: Strongest Relationships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. I believe that I will learn to speak Spanish very well.</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. In order to speak Spanish, you have to think in Spanish.</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. I would like to have Spanish-speaking friends.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. I feel timid speaking Spanish with other people.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
34. I can find a lot of useful materials to practice Spanish on the Internet.

| Yes | 44 | 41 | 15 | 0 | 0 |
| No  | 15 | 46 | 32 | 3 | 3 |

8. It is necessary to know about Spanish-speaking cultures in order to speak Spanish.

| Yes | 26 | 43 | 26 | 5 | 0 |
| No  | 14 | 43 | 14 | 24 | 4 |

7. It is important to speak Spanish with an excellent accent.

| Yes | 17 | 48 | 26 | 9 | 0 |
| No  | 6  | 37 | 34 | 16 | 7 |

12. I enjoy practicing Spanish with the people I meet.

| Yes | 29 | 52 | 12 | 7 | 0 |
| No  | 10 | 32 | 29 | 22 | 6 |

37. It is important to speak Spanish like a native speaker.

| Yes | 12 | 45 | 29 | 12 | 2 |
| No  | 7  | 28 | 30 | 30 | 4 |

31. It is possible to learn Spanish on your own without a teacher or a class.

| Yes | 15 | 56 | 15 | 12 | 2 |
| No  | 8  | 41 | 17 | 20 | 15 |

*Note: 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree.

Item 6 of the BALLI bears the strongest relationship with the participants’ intention to continue. Naturally, those who planned to take courses beyond the requirement tended to be more confident about the level of proficiency that they would achieve. Additionally, these students believed in the importance of thinking in the FL, communicating with native speakers, and finding study materials on the Internet. They also felt slightly less timid about speaking in Spanish. In addition, those not intending to continue were less interested in learning about the culture, in achieving an excellent accent, and in speaking like native speakers. Of special interest is the willingness among the continuing group to practice the FL with people outside of the classroom, along with their belief that one can learn a FL without a teacher or a class.

**Discussion**

The results of this study indicate that participants were generally optimistic about their ability to learn a FL, but not overly confident. Whereas they believed that anybody can learn a FL, they did not see themselves as having a special talent and considered Spanish a language of medium difficulty. This is consistent with the findings of Lassiter (2003) about other African American FL learners who
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overall expected to be successful and had fairly positive views about their FL learning ability.

The findings of this study also show that students had high expectations about the level of proficiency that they would achieve but unrealistic expectations about how long it would take. Most students believed that high fluency can be achieved in less than two years. This explains the inconsistency between the percentage of students who believed that they would learn the FL very well (87%) and those who intended to continue their FL study beyond the graduation requirement (37%). Students did not believe that it takes longer than the one or two-year requirement to achieve their desired level of proficiency. Similarly, Lassiter (2003) found that African American students had high expectations about the level of fluency that they would achieve but most did not intend to continue beyond the university requirement. This discrepancy between expectations and amount of time needed is also consistent with the findings of Horwitz (1988) about the general student population. Horwitz warns that this inevitably leads to frustration when progress is slower than expected.

Participants of this study also showed strong beliefs related to the affective component of FL learning. Students showed a significant amount of instrumental motivation, demonstrated by their consciousness of the career benefits of knowing a FL. This is consistent with Davis & Markham (1991) who found that African American students were aware of the practical and inherent value of FL study. In contrast, the beliefs of the participants surveyed in the present investigation were unlike those in Leblanc (1972) and Moore (1998), who found a strong lack of interest, even negative attitudes, towards FL study among African Americans.

Willingness to take risks and speaking anxiety were other affective variables that were revealed by the findings of this study. In general, students were willing to say things in the FL, regardless of the risk of making mistakes. Additionally, students perceived speaking as more difficult than understanding, which can be due to a certain degree of speaking anxiety. This finding is noteworthy, since several studies point to the negative impact of speaking anxiety in FL proficiency (Ehrman and Oxford, 1995; Ellis, 1994; Phillips, 1992; Young, 1986).

Besides their perceived ability, expectations, and views about the affective variables of FL learning, students also had strong beliefs about FL teaching strategies. They strongly agreed that it is a good idea to practice with other FL learners. They also identified the study of grammar as the most important aspect of FL learning and were opposed to classes being taught strictly in the FL. These last two beliefs show a restrictive view of FL teaching and learning that may lead to a resistance toward more communicative approaches to language teaching that de-emphasize the role of grammar and promote immersion from the early levels of proficiency (Horwitz 1987, 1988). They are also in direct opposition with the findings of other studies about African American FL learners (Glynn, 2007; Moore, 2005; Davis & Markham, 1991; Moore 1998). These studies found that
African Americans prefer a teaching approach that focuses less on grammar and more on the development of speaking skills and the acquisition of culture.

With respect to how beliefs affect students’ intention to continue FL study beyond the graduation requirement, the findings of this study indicate that those planning to prolong their study were more confident about their ultimate level of proficiency. This implies that students wanting to continue understood that additional time would lead to higher proficiency. However, expectations were mostly unrealistic in light of the fact that most students, regardless of intention to continue, believed that high proficiency can be achieved in less than two years.

Results also show similarities between the participants who were willing to carry on with their FL learning and successful learners described in other studies, both about the general student population (Rodriguez Manzanaresis & Murphy, 2010) and about African American students specifically (Anya, 2011). These studies found that successful learners had the ability and desire to make bonds with the culture of the native speakers. Similarly, the participants of the present investigation who intended to continue their FL study were more interested in learning about culture. Anya (2011) also found that successful learners have a sense of investment, belonging, and engagement with the community of learners. In the same way, Rodriguez Manzanaresis & Murphy (2010) found that successful learners are committed to learning the FL outside of class in authentic settings. The participants of the present study who wanted to take courses beyond the requirement show the same traits. They believed in the importance of communicating with native speakers and of finding ways to learn the FL on the Internet. They were also willing to practice with people outside of class and believed that there are other ways to learn a FL besides the classroom setting.

Finally, the present study found a belief among the students wishing to continue their FL study that, to the knowledge of this investigator, had not been mentioned in previous research. This group of students expressed a desire to resemble traits that are typical of native speakers, namely thinking in the FL and achieving a native-like accent. This is closely related to their desire to connect with the culture of the native speakers and their preference for the social component of FL learning over its merely academic dimension.

In general, and contrary to the studies that emphasize the effect of the learners’ cultural background on FL beliefs (Kouritzin, Piquemal, & Renaud, 2009; Tumposky, 1991), the findings of the present investigation did not reveal significant differences between African American students and the general student population both in their beliefs and their intention to prolong their language study beyond the graduation requirement. The participants of the present study expressed beliefs that are similar to those reported by Horwitz (1998) and Rodriguez Manzanaresis & Murphy, (2010). They also showed signs of speaking anxiety that have been found to be typical of the general FL student population. In addition, although the participants...
The beliefs of African American students about FL learning

of the present study showed many of the traits found in the research about African American students, such as an emphasis on instrumental motivation and a desire to make bonds with the target culture, they also showed important differences, such as their emphasis on grammar, as opposed the findings of Moore (2005), whose participants leaned towards an approach that focuses less on grammar.

Implications

From the practitioner’s perspective, there are numbers of implications that can be drawn from the findings of the present investigation. First, it is imperative that FL instructors and curriculum planners assess students’ beliefs and address those views that may be too restrictive and counterproductive (Horwitz, 1988; Mantle-Bromley, 1995). The current study found that participants had unrealistic expectations about how long it would take to achieve their desired level of proficiency. Instructors should engage students in discussions about the amount of time and effort that it takes to learn languages and share the findings of second language acquisition research in this area. This will help eliminate unrealistic expectations and student frustration when progress is not as rapid as expected.

The participants of this study also expressed an understanding of the career benefits of speaking a FL. However, integrative motivation, or the desire to make connections with the target culture and the community of learners outside the classroom, was only more prominent among those students who intended to continue taking FL courses beyond the graduation requirement. Whereas instrumental motivation, or the desire to attain a specific social or economic goal, must continue to be stressed in the classroom, there should also be emphasis on the intrinsic value of learning a FL as a way to make bonds with the native speakers and their culture. In effect, students who indicated a desire to prolong their language study also expressed a desire to practice outside of the classroom, with native speakers, and on the Internet. They also wished to resemble the native speakers in their accent and by thinking in the FL. Therefore, instructors must provide opportunities for students to interact with native speakers of the FL both face to face and through the use of computer-mediated communication. These opportunities will extend the communicative reach of the FL course beyond the time and space barriers of the 50-minute classroom. Likewise, an effort should be made to provide opportunities to learn the language in real contexts and in relation to the target culture.

Regarding affective variables, although students were not anxious about making mistakes in general, they showed a concern about the difficulty of oral production. Since this can constitute a sign of speaking anxiety, instructors should create a comfortable and supportive classroom atmosphere and provide ample opportunity for oral communication. Additional chances should be provided for students to interact orally with other speakers of the FL through the use of computer-mediated communication, which has been shown to provide a low-
anxiety environment for interaction (Beauvois, 1994, 1996, 1999; Cho and Carey, 2001; McIntosh Braul, and Chao, 2003; Warschauer, 1996).

Regarding teaching strategies, the participants of this study showed restrictive beliefs that may make them resistant to communicative approaches. The students’ excessive focus on grammar versus the importance of authentic communication must be addressed early in the semester. Otherwise, students may feel frustrated to see that what they consider to be the most important aspect of FL learning does not receive enough attention in the classroom. Likewise, instructors must discuss how the use of the target language even in elementary courses benefits acquisition. Finally, given the scarcity of studies and in view of the low numbers of FL graduates within the African American community, more research is needed to identify and address the beliefs that African American students bring to the FL classroom. This will shed some light on ways that the profession can utilize to increase diversity in FL college graduates and instructors.

Finally, since the present investigation did not find significant differences between the beliefs held by African American students and those of the general student population, more studies are needed that compare both groups in order to determine if there are any differences that would justify any differentiation of instruction aimed at increasing the motivation of African American learners to continue FL beyond the university requirement. As mentioned earlier, the research on the factors contributing to the low numbers of African American FL graduates is still in its nascent stage and the profession must dedicate more of its scholarship to this situation, especially since, given the size of the sample of the present investigation and the fact that it was restricted to only one institution, the results cannot be overly generalized.

References


The beliefs of African American students about FL learning


The beliefs of African American students about FL learning


The Northeast Conference makes available in its Review evaluations of both products and opportunities of interest to foreign language educators. These evaluations are written by language professionals at all levels and representing all languages. The opinions presented by reviewers and by respondents (publishers, tour operators, webmasters, association leaders, etc.) are their own and in no way reflect approval or disapproval by the Northeast Conference.

We will accept reviews of

- Software
- Videos and films
- Textbooks, instructional packages, and ancillaries
- Websites
- Grant opportunities
- Programs of study, both abroad and in this country, targeting both educators and students
- Reference materials
- Other

**Arabic**


Arabic teachers at the secondary school level face a compounded challenge: not only is the language intimidating for high school students, but the lack of adequate textbooks for a secondary school audience further amplifies the intimidation level. Teachers have been forced to either adapt college level materials or curricula designed for young children. Neither stories about cute animals nor discussion of the accusative, genitive, and nominative cases are effective means of encouraging high school students to continue studying a language that required a high degree of boldness to even begin. *Marhaba!* aims to fill this gap.

Author Steven Berbeco is a respected pioneer in the field of U.S. high school Arabic. The program he founded at Charlestown High School in Massachusetts has become the model that others seek to emulate, and this package gives an inside look at his methods. As Dr. Berbeco explains in the guide, Charlestown High School is a public school with a fairly low graduation rate, yet it has a thriving Arabic program made up of mostly non-heritage students. These facts all attest to the validity of the *Marhaba!* program as a model for secondary school Arabic programs.

This background is important for understanding the audience and limitations of *Marhaba!. The package is first and foremost a guide to Dr. Berbeco's methods, philosophy, and techniques. It is not a textbook, nor does it provide a complete curriculum for Arabic. The intent of the *Marhaba!* program is to enable students to create the curriculum together with their teacher, who offers guidance and help. This pedagogy will obviously require a great deal of work and creativity by the teacher. The sample lessons focus heavily on early skills, particularly the Arabic alphabet, with far
less discussion of more advanced topics. As such, this package most easily replaces the *Alif Baa* text of the most popular Arabic textbook series today, *al-Kitaab*.

The key component of the *Marhaba!* approach is the *daftar*, or notebook. The package includes a sample student *daftar* and extensive instruction on how to set up and manage a *daftar*. These notebooks start out blank and as the teacher explains new concepts, the students fill out the pages, essentially creating their own textbooks. This has the immediate advantage of encouraging students’ ownership of the material, using their own words instead of the overly technical grammatical terminology of the typical Arabic textbook. As much as this may sound like traditional note taking, *Marhaba!* gives very detailed instruction and examples to guide students in creating a usable text and reference. Here again, the examples focus on teaching the alphabet, with less guidance on how to adapt this method to more advanced concepts. Clearly, a teacher must be very confident, creative and independent to use *Marhaba!* as his/her sole program. While many teachers have had great success with it, I expect many other teachers would choose to use this approach as a complement to a more standard textbook.

The second defining aspect of the *Marhaba!* program is its focus on a high school age group. Dr. Berbeco clearly knows how to relate to older teens and this program makes good use of that knowledge. Pharyngealized letters, for example, are here called “zombie” letters; non-connecting letters are “anti-social,” and the shapes of Arabic letters are learned through an exercise called “Arabic Kung Fu.” Some traditional teachers may bristle at these ideas, but they are well received by older teens. What appeals to high school students, however, will be less appropriate for college students or younger children. Similarly, the *Marhaba!* approach would be too slowly paced to work at the college level. The author has correctly decided that building student motivation and interest and developing a long-term bond with Arabic is the critical goal of a high school program. As such, *Marhaba!* moves slowly through the basics of the language, encouraging students to make it their own. At higher levels, where acquisition of large amounts of vocabulary becomes critical for building proficiency, this pace would not work.

Additionally, the program emphasizes cultural understanding. Although it does not include specific content lessons, it does offer examples of how to build lessons encouraging students to explore new perspectives. As with the language lessons, students express their understanding of new cultural concepts in their own words, in their notebooks, rather than by memorizing facts and figures.

*Marhaba!* is certainly worth exploring by any Arabic teacher at the high school level. Teachers will have to assess how comfortable they feel with this approach, and I expect many will choose to use it as a supplement to a textbook program rather than as the sole classroom resource. While the price may seem high for this amount of material, a class would need only one teacher kit, and student textbook packages could be either eliminated or greatly reduced. Overall, a *Marhaba!* program would cost a school less than a standard textbook program. Lastly, while the program is not meant for the university level, college teachers could benefit from examining its teaching methodology, as well as incorporating some parts of it into their program.
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**Publisher’s Response**

Cheng & Tsui agrees with Dr. DiMeo that the *Marhaba!* program and its innovative use of the *daftar*, or notebook, as a textbook “…has the immediate advantage of encouraging students’ ownership of the material, using their own words instead of the overly technical grammatical terminology of the typical Arabic textbook.” We wish to emphasize the advantages of this approach and assure teachers that “…*Marhaba!* gives very detailed instruction and examples to guide students in creating a usable text and reference.”

*Marhaba!* is a curriculum designed to fit the needs of secondary Arabic programs. As Dr. DiMeo notes, author Dr. Steven Berbeco has substantial experience in secondary schools. He draws extensively on that experience, and has created a curriculum that effectively “relate[s] to older teens.” More specifically, it is a program that not only aims to simply instruct students about Arabic language and culture, but realizes that “…building student motivation and interest and developing a long-term bond with Arabic is the critical goal of a high school program.” We agree that Dr. Berbeco’s success in forming a strong Arabic program at Charlestown High School “…attest[s] to the validity of the *Marhaba!* program as a model for secondary school Arabic programs.”

Using the *Marhaba!* approach may be a new experience for many teachers, but the program expertly guides teachers in how to use the daftar to their students’ advantage. The aptly named “Teacher’s Toolkit” includes everything needed to bring this state-of-the-art curriculum to the classroom. In addition to the *Marhaba!* Curriculum Guide, which explains the pedagogy of the program, the program also includes a Teacher Training DVD and a sample student daftar to visually model and clarify Dr. Berbeco’s teaching methods. The curriculum also includes a companion website at [http://www.Marhabaproject.org](http://www.Marhabaproject.org) with additional resources for Arabic instruction. The *Marhaba!* Level 2 Curriculum Guide and Student Daftars, to be published this fall, expands the scope of *Marhaba!*’s student-centered practices while maintaining its unique structure. The Level 2 Curriculum Guide offers an increased focus on acquisition of vocabulary and grammar, and pacing that encourages students to master higher-level language skills.

As noted by Dr. DiMeo, *Marhaba!*’s unique structure—with student *daftars* at its core—make this a very economical classroom curriculum. Instead of typically spending $35–$75 on a standard textbook for each student, along with separate workbooks each year, *Marhaba!*’s annual curriculum cost per student ranges from $10–$20.

On a final note, while acknowledging that *Marhaba!* was designed in the secondary classroom, we would like to stress that its flexible pacing and focus on generating interest in Arabic language and culture make the pedagogy relevant to any level of Arabic instruction, including college. We strongly support Dr. DiMeo’s recommendation that “…college teachers could benefit from examining its teaching methodology and incorporating some aspects of it into their program.”

Cindy Su  
Cheng & Tsui

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French


Vista Higher Learning’s *D’accord! 1: Langue et culture du monde francophone* is the first in a series of three texts aimed at the beginning French language and culture student. The Teacher’s Annotated Edition is jam packed with resources that facilitate a smooth transition to adoption of and integration into an existing French language and culture program: Program Overview; *D’accord* and the Standards for Foreign Language Learning; Good Teaching Practices; Universal Access; Classroom Environment; the Four Skills; Assessment; Instructional Design and Pacing Guides; Professional Resources; and Index of Cultural References. Indeed, in this day and age when professors are being asked to do more and more with less and less support, particularly in terms of college/university assessment processes that must be understandable to a wider audience which does not necessarily include language specialists, the *D’accord! 1* resources provide a welcomed respite in our busy schedules. Moreover, the fact that *D’accord! 1* is published in both print and electronic format for its Teacher Supplements, makes it truly accessible to all.

A long-time proponent of the idea that French language and culture courses must include as much insightful information as possible on the whole of the Francophone world, *D’accord! 1* is a step in the right direction. The opening pages of the textbook include clear and easy-to-read individual maps of the Francophone World, North and South America, France, Europe, and Africa, thereby setting the stage for the overall theme of the textbook series. *D’accord! 1* is comprised of eight units, each of which includes the following six sections: *contextes*, *roman-photo*, *culture*, *structures*, *synthèse*, and *savoir-faire* (cultural overview with *Panorama*, *lecture*, and *écriture*). The clean layout of each chapter promotes successful learning by students with multiple learning styles. The Teacher’s DVD set contains two Roman-Photo DVDs, one for *Niveau 1* and one for *Niveau 2*. *Niveau 1* follows the eight units of *D’accord! 1*, with two lessons for each unit. *Niveau 2* follows the seven units of *D’accord! 2*, with two lessons for each unit. The Roman-Photo DVD follows a group of students in Aix-en-Provence, France. Also in the Teacher’s DVD set is a Flash Culture DVD. *Niveau 1* has a segment on each of the eight units of *D’accord! 1*, and *Niveau 2* has a segment on each of the seven units of *D’accord! 2*. The Flash Culture segments expand upon each Culture section of each unit by introducing students to the daily lives of people from across the Francophone World.
Important to the adoption of \textit{D'accord! 1} is access to its publisher-supported Supersite. A quick glance at the Supersite reference guide reveals that both teachers and students alike are provided with guided tours, videocasts, user guides, and a toll-free technical support telephone number. I experimented with the user guides for Blackboard IM and Wimba Voice Board and found them both to be highly informative. 

With all that \textit{D'accord! 1: Langue et culture du monde francophone} has to offer in terms of textbook and Supersite support, it is definitely both teacher- and student-friendly. Furthermore, given the structure of the new Advance Placement (AP) French Language and Culture Examination geared towards students preparing to enter a college/university French language and culture course at the 300-level, the three-part \textit{D'accord! 1: Langue et culture du monde francophone} series would be ideal for those high school language programs that already have Vertical Teams in place or are developing a AP Vertical Team for French Language and Culture.

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\textbf{Publisher's Response}

I am pleased to respond to Eileen M. Angelini's complimentary review of \textit{D'accord}. It is clear from her observations that the reviewer examined the textbook program in depth and easily recognized the goals that our editorial development team strived to achieve. 

As Professor Angelini aptly noted, \textit{D'accord} provides extensive resources both in print and online. Support materials include best practices, suggestions for diverse learning styles, and assessment option—all of which allow for a seamless implementation of the program into a French language and culture curriculum. As the reviewer points out, these materials are both comprehensive and accessible.

I am grateful to Professor Angelini for appreciating the clean, clear, easy-to-use layout of \textit{D'accord} and its extensive coverage of the Francophone world. Furthermore, she points to an area of particular strength, the program's approach to culture in both the print materials and the various video programs, including a storyline video and a video focusing on cultural practices and perspectives.

Professor Angelini generously referred to our three-level series as an excellent program for vertical teams whose goal is to prepare students for Advance Placement study. Indeed, the consistent focus on skill development, balanced with the coverage of Francophone cultures, can be ideal for schools seeking rigor and relevance.

Finally, I commend Professor Angelini for recognizing the variety of online instructor resources and student activities on our Supersite. As a specialized foreign language publisher, we pride ourselves on developing digital tools that enhance the language learning process and contribute to the communicative competency of today's students.

Amy Baron  
Vice President, Editorial Director  
Vista Higher Learning

*La langue française à travers les siècles* guides readers through the meanders and complexities of the French language throughout the centuries. The text succinctly covers over a thousand years of history from the earliest days, the time when the language of France was an amalgam of disparate Latin dialects, to the modern standard language. Along the way, the author shows how phonological variations spurred morphological changes, how the evolution of the language was reflected in literary works, and what polemics authorities engaged in on language standardization in France. She also explains the numerous influences other languages have had on French over the centuries and then shows the traces of these influences in its modern vocabulary and pronunciation.

The book is divided into nine chapters. It opens with a discussion of pre-historical times, before the arrival of the Romans, and focuses specifically on the tribes of the Ligurians, Iberians, Greeks, and Celts, who were among the first inhabitants of Gaul. In the second and third chapters, Booth examines the influence of the Frankish, Arab, and Norman invaders, particularly noting words such as *falaise*, *jardin*, *orgueil*, *guerre*, *robe*, *poche*, and others left by the Franks. Chapter 4 presents Old French language and excerpts from some of the oldest existing texts, including *La Chanson de Roland* and *Le Serment de Strasbourg*. The transformation of the French language during the Renaissance is analyzed in Chapter 5. Booth talks about the relative freedom of expression and mentions François Rabelais, who used numerous neologisms, regionalisms, and foreign words in his *Gargantua and Pantagruel*. Of particular importance also is the influence of Italian vocabulary in words such as *façade*, *vedette*, *banque*, *ballet*, *masque*, and others. Chapter 7 focuses on modern French, and covers the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries. The author explains the history behind the creation of the *Académie française* and the role this important institution played in regulating and standardizing the language. In the remaining chapters, she describes the main characteristics of contemporary French spoken both in France and other countries which use French as their official or co-official language. Readers will also find a succinct account of languages spoken in metropolitan France, in addition to French and regional differences of contemporary French in vocabulary and pronunciation.

Each chapter includes a *contrôle des connaissances* section made up of exercises in a variety of formats: comprehension questions, matching words and definitions, sentence completion, true or false, or fill-in-the-blank. The exercises are closely linked to the material presented and will no doubt provide instructors with a useful assessment tool. The key to all the exercises is appended at the end of the book, followed by a French-English glossary and a bibliography of books on the topic of French language.

*La langue française à travers les siècles* is up-to-date and includes some of the most recent lexical additions to both the written and spoken language, in particular acronyms, slang, and words borrowed from the English language. The author quotes examples of abbreviations, such as A2m1, dak, bi1to, en +, PKOI, savapa, Gf1, and others currently used in text messaging and social media. Knowing what these abbreviations mean will
be particularly useful to American students as they communicate with their French counterparts.

The book is thoroughly annotated and all the difficult terms and concepts are explained in the footnotes. Booth defines linguistic terminology such as *substrat*, *superstrat*, *néologisme*, *synthétique*, and *analytique*, and mentions historic events and historical figures whenever they are relevant to the evolution of the language. Consequently, students will learn about Joseph-Ignace Guillotin, Etienne Sihouette, Eugène Poubelle, and the associated words *guillotine*, *silhouette*, and *poubelle*. They will also get to know numerous famous authors, such as Montesquieu, Descartes, Vaugelas, Malherbe, and the contributions they made to the French language. They will learn the origins of the French icon Marianne and understand why she has been such an important symbol of France. Finally, they will be surprised to find out the origin and the history of jeans coming all the way from the French city of Nîmes.

*La langue française à travers les siècles* is more than just a linguistic study of the language. It links the vast domains of language and culture, history and literature, in order to give a full and accurate account of the historical developments that occurred during a particular time in history. Elegantly written in a user-friendly and easy-to-understand style, and supplemented by illustrations, charts, and maps, the book is accessible to intermediate students, as well as advanced students. It can be used in French phonetics courses, or in culture and civilization courses. Last, but not least, it will be of interest to anyone interested in the evolution of the French language from its Latin origins to the twenty-first century.

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Now in its fifth edition, *Quant à Moi: Témoignages des Français et des Francophones* continues to be one of the best and most successful intermediate French programs available. Following the National Standards for Foreign Language Education, the program has been developed to fully integrate the four language skills and to expose students to a variety of interpersonal, presentational and interpretive activities, all within a communicative context.

The textbook consists of six chapters centered on relevant themes of science and technology, contemporary life, environmental issues, and public and private identities, among others. Each chapter opens with a contextualized vocabulary section, *Repères*, which invites students to infer and deduce meanings of French words and phrases from a variety of clues, images, comparisons, and exercises. Vocabulary is also further expanded later in the chapter, and useful lexical lists are provided for each reference. Each of the six chapters includes two well-designed grammar sections, *Fonctions*, and *Contrôle des connaissances*—new to the fifth edition—which test previously learned
grammatical structures. The three *Quant à Moi* sections that follow, in the *Manuel de Classe* and in the *Manuel de Préparation*, include *Témoignages*, which allows students to listen to authentic interviews with native speakers of different backgrounds and ages concerning various aspects of the chapter theme, *Et vous*, which provides vocabulary and communicative activities related to the interview topics, and *Magazine Culture*, which expands on the culture aspects of the theme discussed.

Since the primary focus of this revised fifth edition is on cultural topics, the ample new material included in the *Magazine Culture* is arguably the main strength of the program. The themes are varied and cover the diversity of the Francophone world within the global community. Students will not only gain knowledge of various French-speaking cultures, but also study political and sociological aspects of these cultures. They will explore oral literature in Africa and the French Antilles, read a brief history of French cinema, and get to know what people typically eat in Senegal, for example.

At the beginning of the textbook, the authors also include a short preliminary chapter, which serves as a springboard for linguistic and cultural discussions, and can be used as a transition between the beginning and the intermediate levels. Students will have an opportunity to revisit, refresh, and recapitulate vocabulary, expressions, and notions they had already seen and used in their elementary French courses. Because most instructors are likely to start using *Quant à Moi* in the fall semester, the obvious, logical, and well-selected components of this preliminary chapter are student introductions, conversations about the activities they had engaged in during the past summer vacation, or the courses they are taking.

In order to enhance students’ listening comprehension skills, three authentic short films have been added: *La Magie d’Anansie*, *Le Grand Jeu*, and *Madagascar, Carnet de Voyage*, accessible via the Premium Website. These videos, accompanied by pre- and post-viewing questions, as well as a cultural and historical commentary, are part of *le ciné-club* section in chapters two, four, and six.

Reading comprehension can be practiced and enhanced through the *Littérature* section of each chapter. The authors present a variety of literary genres, ranging from an excerpt from the well-known *Le Petit Prince*, and a lesser known Québécois short story, *Le Cosmosnaute Romantique*, to fables by Jean de la Fontaine, and folk tales from several French-speaking African countries. Chapter 3 includes a selection from *La Rue Case-Nègres* by Joseph Zobel, which can be effectively supplemented by the famous film adaptation of the novel.

In the last part of the textbook, students will find a clearly presented reference section with a series of appendices. Appendix A contains useful grammar handouts (*fiches de grammaire*), accompanied by practice exercises. Appendix B includes explanations and examples of literary tenses and moods, such as the *passé simple*, the *passé antérieur*, the *imparfait du subjonctif*, and the *plus-que-parfait du subjonctif*. Appendix C presents a verb conjugation chart with both regular and irregular verbs.

The design of the *Quant à Moi* program requires that the book be used together with its technologically enhanced companion Website (*www.cengagebrain.com*), containing an online set of digital resources and specific web activities. Students who purchase the textbook will have free access to the complete in-text audio program, auto-graded tutorial quizzes, cultural Web activities, Google Earth coordinates, and
other useful web links. Premium password-protected content will give them access to the complete SAM audio program, the complete new video program, flashcards, vocabulary and grammar podcasts, as well as a host of grammar tutorials.

A unique feature of the design of this program is the tight link between the *Manuel de Préparation*, also available electronically through the Heinle eSAM, and the *Manuel de Classe*. Students are guided through the *Manuel de Préparation* by a series of À Faire notes and a user-friendly cross-referencing system. Instructors can use a sample chart with suggestions as to how the two manuals can be integrated. Although the textbook is best suited for a two-semester course, there are also recommendations of a number of other configurations, which show how the material can be taught, depending on how many times a week a particular class meets.

In the spirit of the textbook’s title, *Quant à Moi* (“As far as I am concerned”), the authors encourage students to draw conclusions on their own and to make comparisons between their own lives and the lives of the Francophone people presented in the textbook. Needless to say, by discovering Francophone cultures, they will get to better know themselves and their own cultures. Students and instructors alike will appreciate their exposure to a wide variety of authentic materials, magazine articles, literary excerpts, short narratives, and folk tales. They will also appreciate the interrelatedness and the integration of skills, which makes the *Quant à Moi* program an exceptionally rich learning tool. With all the improvements, corrections, and additions made in the fifth edition, this comprehensive, user-friendly and easy-to-use program will no doubt continue to motivate and inspire intermediate-level French students.

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Every teacher, no matter which methodological approach s/he uses in the classroom, wants students to be able to communicate effectively and accurately.
Following the highly successful model developed by Series Editor John Conner for the *Breaking the Spanish Barrier* series, Catherine Coursaget and Micheline Myers created the three-part series *Breaking the French Barrier*. Updated yearly, so as to keep the current events section “current,” the series has a consistently straightforward format. This reviewer particularly likes the page layout: good-size font with enough open space for student notes, as well as eye-catching graphics (for example, in the Level One Textbook, the “boot” verbs have a uniquely designed “boot” superimposed on the stem-changing verb chart).

Each textbook for each level of the *Breaking the French Barrier* series consists of twelve chapters, verb charts, a French-English dictionary, an English-French dictionary, and an index. With the exception of the preliminary “First Steps” chapter of the Level One Textbook, each of the twelve chapters presents thematic vocabulary, introduces grammar concepts with sample sentences highlighting structures and provides multiple practice exercises, a different French-speaking country map with timely national, cultural facts, and end-of-chapter *exercices de révision*. Throughout each chapter, a graphic symbol of a CD indicates to students when they can practice pronunciation using the accompanying audio CD set. A major strength of the audio program is the lead voice on the CD and the absolutely brilliant voice of French actress, Mirabelle Kirkland (Coursaget’s daughter).

The teacher’s editions supply all the answers for all student edition exercises directly on the pages themselves. The Teacher Test Packet, available in both hard copy and on editable disc, includes a four-page test for each chapter. The Answer Key Booklet is a set of reproducible masters for students to be able to correct themselves. The publisher Website furnishes pair or group activities to accompany each book, as well as additional practice exercises. Also provided free of charge is an e-mail quarterly newsletter in which John Conner gives teaching tips.

The preliminary “First Steps” chapter of the Level One Textbook distinguishes itself from the other twelve chapters in the book by focusing mainly on getting the ball rolling. It includes *Exercices de prononciation* and initial vocabulary-building exercises, as well as speaking activities. Building upon the preliminary chapter, the remaining twelve chapters cover essential theme-based vocabulary (for example, people, transportation, and body parts), useful idiomatic expressions and concise explanations for parts of speech. Especially appealing in the Level One Textbook are the action-packed dialogues found throughout the text. Grammar topics covered in the Level One Textbook include: subject and object pronouns, interrogative pronouns and words, nouns (singular and plural forms), definite and indefinite articles, adjectives, verbs (regular, irregular, reflexive and reciprocal), negative sentences, prepositions (pronouns after prepositions and prepositions with geographical nouns), adverbs, expressions with *avoir*, conjunctions, the partitive article, relative pronouns *qui* and *que*, uses of *on* and *tout*, as well as the present, imperative, *passé composé*, *imparfait* and future verb tenses.

The Level Two Textbook continues the focus established by the Level One Textbook, but places more emphasis on the irregular verbs *avoir* and *être* in the *passé composé* and the distinction between the *passé composé* and the *imparfait*. New grammar topics covered in the Level Two Textbook are: stem-changing verbs, conditional, pluperfect
and future perfect verb tenses, the present subjunctive, relative pronouns \textit{qui}, \textit{que}, \textit{dont}, \textit{où}, sentences with \textit{si}, the present participle, uses of the infinitive, expressions with \textit{faire}, and idiomatic reflexive verbs. The Level Three Advanced Textbook, with a table of contents written entirely in French and ideally suited for the third- and fourth-year of high school or 200-300 level courses in college/university French programs, carefully examines both future (le futur, le futur antérieur) and conditional (le conditionnel, le conditionnel passé) verb tenses, as well as the subjunctive mood. In the early chapters of the Level Three Advanced Textbook, the vocabulary lessons put a special focus on adjectives. Other newly introduced topics include the passive voice, cardinal and ordinal numbers, \textit{il} vs. \textit{c'est}, the passé simple, indirect discourse, time expressions, and a comprehensive final examination, \textit{Briser la barrière!} The Level Three Advanced Textbook includes a special appendix on the conjugations of the verbs \textit{parler}, \textit{choisir} and \textit{vendre}, as well as a \textit{Table de verbes irréguliers}.

Truly, the \textit{Breaking the French Barrier} series addresses all the rules of French grammar that a student needs to know. Most importantly, however, the \textit{Breaking the French Barrier} series does not present the rules of French grammar in a dry or staid fashion. It is appropriate for both secondary and post-secondary students of French and can also be used as test preparation for the Advanced Placement (AP), SAT II, International Baccalaureate (IB), and college/university placement examinations. Furthermore, students are exposed to relevant and contemporary information on the French-speaking world. This reviewer was particularly pleased with the range of maps presented for the French-speaking world: they cover French-speaking countries in Europe, as well as Francophone countries and regions in Africa, the Pacific, and the Caribbean. Nonetheless, as a gentle suggestion—since the series is updated yearly—in future editions, it would be nice to see maps of the French-speaking regions in North America beyond Quebec, such as the New Brunswick Acadian peninsula, Newfoundland northern Maine, and the multiple Francophone parishes of Louisiana. Thanks to such maps, American students of French would be able to develop a greater appreciation of the relevance of French in today’s interdependent global economy and Franco-American students would gain a sense of pride for their heritage.

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\textbf{Publisher’s Response}

We are very pleased with Professor Angelini’s thoughtful and thorough review of our French series. She has described beautifully, (better than we could have ourselves!) our approach to teaching this beautiful language. Our latest breaking news is the arrival of the iBook Textbook version of our series available exclusively for the iPad; it will be out in the summer of 2013. The French One iBooks will be ready June 15, the French 2 by July 15 and the French 3 by August 15. These offerings will make our series available both to the lovers of print books, as well as to those who want the latest in technology. Once again, our deepest appreciation to Professor Angelini.

I have used film successfully at every level of the French curriculum, but usually I have had to develop suitable teaching materials on my own to help students understand not only a particular film itself, but also various cultural topics reflected in it. For some unfathomable reason, the foreign language textbook market is overflowing with largely identical first- and second-year language programs, but still is lacking in such fields as civilization, cinema, and French literature. The need is especially severe when it comes to film. Cursing the powers that be, I have had to assemble my own course packets, including introductory texts on the medium itself and introductions to famous French actors and directors, along with study questions, vocabulary lists, writing assignments, group projects, cultural modules, etc. Not any more. Thanks to the good folks at Focus Publishing in Newburyport, Massachusetts, teachers at the high school and college levels now have somewhere to turn if they choose to implement film into the curriculum in a more structured fashion. To say that Kerry Conditto’s Cinéphile fills a void in the market is the understatement of the year; it is a most valuable contribution to the field and will have a profound impact on the way film is taught in the college classroom. In recent years Focus Publishing has produced a wide array of cinema texts such as Alan Singerman’s Apprentissage au cinéma français and Cinema for French Conversation by Anne-Christine Rice, along with a series of manuals presenting specific films titled Ciné-Modules and Cinéphile. Focus has also published (and is planning to bring out) volumes dealing with Spanish, German, and Russian film, and so it is the uncontested leader in implementing film into the FL curriculum.

I welcome this new edition of Conditto’s text and feel confident that it will have a positive impact on the use of film in the foreign language classroom, which is bound to grow in the future since students these days are accustomed to multimedia instruction and do not take kindly to programs that are entirely text based. Although the second edition of Cinéphile contains only cosmetic changes (moving chapters around without significantly modifying their content), its release ensures that the text will remain available to instructors who have decided to incorporate film into their classroom and demonstrates the commitment of Focus to promote film, which hopefully will lead other publishers to publish similar texts. In a future edition, this reviewer would like to see more recent films added to the roster and others dropped. The Round Up (or Sarah’s Key, although partially in English), tackling the ambiguities of French collaboration during World War II, would be excellent choices.

As the term “cinéphile” in Conditto’s title suggests, this text is a fiesta for film buffs (and as such, is a pleasure to read for anyone interested in recent French cinema); what is more, it is a valuable tool for learning French language and culture through film. According to the author, “Cinéphile: French Language and Culture Through Film is a second-year college-level textbook which fully integrates the study of second-year French language and culture with the study of French feature films. The method presents vocabulary and grammar structures and exercises, cultural points, reading selections, and writing activities designed to maximize the development of the

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linguistic proficiency of second-year language students while viewing and analyzing films” (Manuel du Professeur, vii). To the best of my knowledge, it is the only program of its kind anywhere to offer such extensive treatment of so many first-rate French films in one single volume. Sure, there are many short texts dealing with a single film (many brought out by Focus Publishing in their series Ciné-Modules); however, no one has yet tried to create a comprehensive two-semester second-year language text based exclusively on film that reinforces the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in such an exemplary fashion. Anne-Christine Rice’s book Cinema for French Conversation is similar in scope, but does not offer the same comprehensive and in-depth study of grammar.

The program consists of a very attractive and visually appealing text (full of HD color pictures), a fully integrated Workbook, a resource bank titled Compositions and Exams, and a Manuel du Professeur that includes useful teaching tips, as well as an answer key for most of the exercises in the main text, including comprehension and essay questions. In addition, the Teacher’s Edition of the Workbook provides a complete answer key. All units have been authored by Kerri Conditto single-handedly, and one can only imagine the hard work that went into producing a complete program of such high caliber. These days, most textbooks are the work of a team of authors assisted by a motley array of able graduate students and FLTAs (foreign language student assistants).

The main text consists of nine chapters, each presenting a different film, most of them recent box office hits in France; why, a few even made it to North American shores, where they enjoyed their fifteen minutes of fame. These nine films vary in “cultural content and genre: animated film, dramatic comedy, farce, romantic comedy, thriller, drama, adventure” (Manuel du Professeur, vii); moreover, the films gradually become “more sophisticated in language and cultural content” as “students acquire a solid vocabulary base and the ability to easily and accurately manipulate grammar structures they are learning in their discussions and compositions about the films” (Manuel du Professeur, vii). All films can be purchased online from any one of the many American companies that specialize in foreign films; teachers can also purchase the films on their own in France, provided they have access to a multi-standard DVD player in their classroom.

The nine films studied are as follows:

Chapter 1: Les Triplettes de Belleville
Chapter 2: Le Papillon
Chapter 3: Être et avoir
Chapter 4: L’Auberge Espagnole
Chapter 5: Les Visiteurs
Chapter 6: Sur mes lèvres
Chapter 7: Comme une image
Chapter 8: Métisse
Chapter 9: Bon voyage

Most, if not all, of these films are bound to startle students of today’s generation, as much because of their content as because of their artistic style. How many of our students have ever seen a foreign film, much less what people in my generation
euphemistically used to call “fine films”? The only French films that students today are likely to have seen are box office hits in France such as Jean de Florette and Manon des Sources, or maybe Le Fabuleux Destin d’Amélie Poulain, all of which finally made it to our shores, where they received critical accolades and enjoyed a brief moment of commercial success. A surprising number of my language students have seen all three of the films just mentioned (and a few more), thanks to the tireless efforts of my colleagues at the secondary level. Therefore, I am wondering if it would not have been wise to include a chapter on the appreciation of film, since the ones studied in this text—all of them “fine films” to the nth degree—are bound to have an alienating effect on a contemporary American audience, which needs to understand that a “good” movie does not necessarily have to contain graphic violence and extravagant special effects (to complement the “acting” of high-paid cretins, usually “hunks,” accompanied by a motley crew of “dumb blondes”) that distract from character development and the “story,” not to mention “poetry.” Until recently, at least, French films (and European cinema in general) have been fundamentally different from much of American film production, which unfortunately caters to the lowest common denominator by serving up a generous helping of extreme violence and mediocre sex. Thus, studying French film will be an eye-opener to many students who, sad to say, might not otherwise have had the chance to view a foreign film; it might also bring down the wrath of the local school board if the film can be perceived to violate so-called community standards. Therefore, teachers need to be prudent and ponder the French seventeenth-century philosopher Descartes’s exhortation: “he lives well who hides well.”

The presentation of each film follows the same basic order and is evenly divided between language and content, in keeping with the objective of the author, which, as stated above, is to teach language and culture through film. Conditto does not assume that the reader knows anything at all about French cinema or, for that matter, about the medium, period, other than a few commonsensical insights and facts that virtually anyone growing up in today’s visually-dominated, image-oriented society would have. Her approach is practical and pedagogical almost to a fault. Each chapter contains the same subsections, each with clearly defined parameters, which isn’t to say that teachers cannot pick and choose among subsections as indeed they do with any text. Very rarely can teachers cover all the material contained in first- and second-year language texts, and Cinéphile is no exception. There is simply too much good “stuff” here to cover in the time allotted, so most teachers will have to pick and choose. The text is billed as appropriate for a two-semester course, but could also be repackaged for a one-semester course on the assumption that only four or maybe five films would be covered. Presumably undergraduates should also be exposed to literature in their second year of study. Film is important, but so too are literature and the history of French civilization.

For the purposes of this review, just to give readers a sense of what to expect, I will look at chapter 4, L’Auberge Espagnole. I have used this film in class many times and am impressed by how well it “works” to teach language and culture, specifically the workings of the almighty European Union (some would say the failures). This extraordinary film, which tells the story of a French exchange student in Barcelona, is educational in its own right (especially for college-age students), thanks to its plot and main characters; but it has the added benefit of teaching American students
about the educational system in France and the many educational exchange programs available to residents of the European Union, in particular the ERASMUS program, which, at last count, has enrolled more than one million students from all over Europe since its inception in 1987. The chapter also contains a longer unit on the European Union (EU). A few minor updates have been made in the second edition to reflect the evolution of the E.U. (e.g., the chronology is up-to-date) but, in a future edition, the Eurocrisis will have to be addressed in depth and Eurosceptics given a chance to express their concerns about future “construction.” As it stands, the materials on the E.U. come across as overly optimistic, not to say naïve, with unemployment in Spain for educated young people hovering around 50%.

The chapter on L’Auberge Espagnole is divided into three sections, written entirely in French, whose titles are largely self-explanatory: Avant le visionnement, Après avoirvisionné, and Aller plus loin. The first part presents cultural notes, credits (including a biographical and professional profile of the director), a film summary, a cast list, and useful vocabulary. The second part features general comprehension exercises, vocabulary exercises, grammar points and exercises, translation exercises, photos, open-ended exercises, and classroom activities. Part Three offers a variety of readings, cultural topics, and documents, all of which are accompanied by a generous helping of exercises. As anyone can see, there is plenty here to keep students busy for the three weeks or so recommended for each film (in a fifteen-week semester with class meeting three times a week in seventy-minute periods). In the Manuel du Professeur, Conditto provides a useful grid for implementing the program, which teachers are free to adapt as they see fit.

The only quarrel I have with this text is the presentation of grammar, which strikes me as just a bit elementary for a second-year text. Thus, the chapter on the first film, Les Triplettes de Belleville, reviews very basic grammar topics such as the present tense. No doubt most second-year students will already have been exposed to its mysteries. Moreover, it is not immediately apparent why, L’Auberge Espagnole, say, is more conducive to teaching the passé composé and the imparfait. In other terms, the coverage of grammar topics appears just a tad arbitrary. On the other hand how many of our students, who are faux débutants anyway, can spell very well? Not very many in my experience. So I have started to rethink my initial reservations and have realized that a review of basic grammar serves an important purpose: it helps students move from a passive understanding of grammar to confident and correct use of it in context to discuss, for example, a film. If your students are all la crème de la crème (which I doubt), you can always skip ahead or, just for laughs, ask them to conjugate the verb accueillir or s’asseoir (including its variations in français méridional). Readers of this review get the point, I think. Teachers are free to skip ahead and adjust the presentation of grammar to the level of their class. I do it all the time, sometimes without realizing it. This semester, for example, we used the chapter on L’Auberge Espagnole, but skipped the grammar; my students get enough grammar as it is so we use Conditto’s book for practice and cultural enrichment. The films I select all illustrate some aspect of French and Francophone society that I wish to highlight. L’Auberge Espagnole teaches the European Union; Indochine introduces us to colonialism in French Indochina; La Haine helps us understand the divisions in French society today; and Amélie, well,
makes us feel good about why we study French in the first place and look forward to our next trip to the “sweet France.”

Rest assured that Conditto covers “traditional” grammar, too. The grammar lesson in the chapter on L’Auberge Espagnole features the incontournables prepositions used with cities and countries (je vais à Paris; nous allons en France), as well as all commonly used past tenses such as the passé composé and the imparfait. Later chapters cover the plus-que-parfait, but also the futur antérieur, the passé antérieur, and the passé du subjonctif but not, surprisingly, the passé simple. Thus the presentation of grammar in Cinéphile corresponds, roughly speaking, to the “structures and concepts studied in traditional second-year French courses” (Manuel du Professeur, viii), though the presentation of grammar typically is highly condensed. I should add that all grammar explanations and exercises are written entirely in French, forcing students to develop survival skills that will serve them well the day they have to fend for themselves in a French-speaking country.

The strength of this program lies, I think, in the presentation of the films, and here I am referring not only to the exemplary study of each one, but also to the plethora of accompanying exercises: vocabulary, comprehension, culture, you name it, they are all here, language exercises in every incarnation known to the profession: multiple choice, fill-in-the-blank, definition, pairing, translation, short answer, compositions. In addition, the Compositions and Exam test bank provides many ways to test students’ understanding and stimulate their creativity and critical thinking. And the Workbook offers even more exercises for reinforcement, though, naturally, many of them overlap, so teachers will want to exercise caution in assigning homework. Finally, I need to stress once again the visually appealing character of each component of this program (even though pictures are not as large in the second edition as in the first). For example, the correct answers to all exercises are given in red, making grading homework a breeze for the busy teacher. Finally, the quality of the paper is excellent throughout; at a time when many other companies are moving to low-grade paper (perhaps to justify new editions every three years or so?), Focus still relies on high-grade paper that will survive the rigors of frequent use.

In a future edition, perhaps Conditto might include a short section on the cinematographic medium, featuring a short history of film (it has strong French connections) and technical vocabulary, including definitions, in French, of many of the most commonly used terms that students are likely to encounter in film criticism and that they need in order to speak critically about a film. What is the difference between a “court” and a long métrage,” terms that can be found in each edition of the weekly Parisian activities guide Pariscope? Why not include a selection from Pariscope to present one of the films under study? I try this approach with a great deal of success in order to teach terms such as V.O. (version originale) and V.F. (version française). How do you say “full shot” in French? Or “close-up?” An English-language translation of the most commonly used terms would be useful to help students become more articulate film critics. Many students would probably also welcome a list of useful vocabulary to speak about characters, plot, point of view, and style, or at least a lexique at the end of the text including all the terms used in it. My own students are fairly typical in this regard, and I for one still struggle to make them understand cognates and to remember
the difference between caractère and personnage (though the terms sometimes can be synonymous) and between intrigue and action. But these are minor points and could easily be corrected by teachers who sense that their students need reinforcement in a particular area and then provide a handout of their own.

I like this text immensely and decided to use the chapter on L'Auberge Espagnole in my intermediate language course, a happy choice, as it turns out since I am able to teach the European Union and cover a variety of past tenses, as well as discuss the film in French. My colleagues in the field will be impressed by the richness of the program and the ease with which it can be readily implemented in the intermediate classroom. My students love the text and are energized by cinema in a way I never thought possible.

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Publisher's Response

As always, we are grateful to Tom Conner for his penetrating yet sympathetic reviews. Some years ago, when the first proposal dealing with language learning through feature film crossed my desk, I had my “Aha!” moment. This is what I wished my language course had been—something interesting, something engaging, a peek into another culture with an intimacy that only knowing a language well can offer. No more “The pencil is on the table” or “The students are arriving at the door.” This was language learning with passion, conflict, story, and milieu. I knew that when watching a good film, I would want to understand what is being said and have the language skills to discuss what I was seeing. We know that this approach works, and we think that it will grow in popularity as a method of teaching foreign language. Thanks to the reviewer here for explaining how it works so well. I am so very grateful to my authors, such as Kerri Conditto, who share my enthusiasm and dream and have committed themselves to helping me to realize it.

Ron Pullins
Focus Publishing

Chinese


This is a unique book. When the outside wrap is removed, a rather big “pen” and a “business notebook” appear. The “notebook” is actually a colorful textbook and the “pen” is an audio pen. When you turn the pen on and point it to the pages of the book, the pen will read to you, just like magic.

The textbook’s title, in Chinese, is “900 Chinese Sentences;” and it consists of three main parts: Introduction to Pinyin, Daily Chinese 900, and Basic Chinese 100. It also has an Index of Supplementary Vocabulary.
Judging from the Chinese title, one might think that this book follows the model of the famous and popular *English 900* text published by McMillan in the 1960s, but it does not. *English 900* focuses on both grammar and functions, whereas *Everyday Chinese* mainly emphasizes situational conversations.

The first section, Introduction to Pinyin, is very brief. There are none of the diagrams of pronunciation organs or complicated descriptions found in many textbooks. The authors demonstrate the sounds by using Chinese-English contrast, which is not scientific, but very effective. For instance, they state that “ai,” sounds like “y” in “by” (5). However, the authors prefer British English to American English, which may create problems for some American users. For example, they state that “uo” sounds like “war” (5). In British English, since there is no obvious retroflex, “war” is similar to “uo” in Chinese. However, in American English, the “r” in “war” is very strong, especially in certain regions. So using “war” to pronounce “uo” is not so helpful.

However, there is one statement that is unclear in this part. The authors state, “when finals beginning with “I” or “ü” have no initials preceding them, the quasi-initial “y” should be added, or “i” or “ü” should be changed into “y” and the dots over “ü” should be omitted” (7). In fact, “ü” does not need to change into “y” at any time; only “i,” in some cases, changes to “y.”

The second section, Daily Chinese 900, is the highlight of the book. It is divided into ten topics: Meeting People, Dining, Shopping, Traveling, Finding Accommodation, Managing Money, Seeing a Doctor, Going to School, Having Fun, and Doing Sports. Under the main topics, there are sub-situations, nearly 70 in total. The topics reflect modern Chinese urban life and are very practical.

With the help of the audio pen, learners can hear every sentence and supplementary word very clearly, as if there were a tutor present to pronounce them. The audio pen has a port for headphones, so learners can study quietly without disturbing anyone around them. Since there are Chinese characters, pinyin, and English for every sentence and word, it is very easy to use in real situations. Colorful illustrations in this part not only make the book more attractive, but also provide related vocabulary. Beyond that, supplementary vocabulary lists provide more words for sub-situations. These words are quite useful and easy to use to replace the vocabulary in main sentences. For example, in “Dining,” thirteen dishes’ names are included in the supplementary vocabulary list. The names of dishes can be big barriers for language learners, and the authors are very considerate to include them.

The authors also mark different pronunciation variations, e.g., “zhè is often pronounced zhèi (13) and Mǎmǎhǔhǔ is often pronounced mǎmǎhūhū” (132).

One drawback in this part is that the audio pen can only pronounce the whole sentence at once; there is no option for listening repeatedly to single words (except for supplementary vocabulary items).

The third section, Basic Chinese 100, contains sentences taken from Daily Chinese 900. They are relatively simple and can serve as a review for learners who studied the previous section, or as a shortcut for those who did not.

The Index to Supplementary Vocabulary provides easy access to many useful words. However, there is no index or list for the basic vocabulary. In the preface, the authors state that the book has “a core vocabulary of 1,500 words composed using around 700 Chinese characters” (iv). Maybe they mean that there are 1,500 words in 900 sentences. But, if 1,500
words and 700 characters were listed, it would be a huge plus since, according to China’s National Language and Character Working Committee, 700 of the most frequently used Chinese characters can cover nearly 85% of the information encountered in the media.

The audio pen is rather large and stored apart from the book. If, in a future design, the pen could have its own space in a book jacket, it would greatly facilitate using the book and the audio pen together.

*Everyday Chinese* is suitable for those who want to engage in conversation with Chinese speakers as soon as possible, who have learned a little bit of Chinese and want to improve their pronunciation and vocabulary, or who are curious about Chinese language and want to experience a flavor of it. It is also a good supplement to traditional textbooks.

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The power of a great textbook can never be understated. *Chinese in Motion: an Advanced Immersion Course* is a powerful Chinese textbook. The twelve lessons divided into four units cover various topics of interest to Western students studying in China. Unit One takes students to Qingdao, a coastal city in Shandong province. It includes three texts, introducing the city of Qingdao, discussing Chinese cuisine, and relating a visit to a local farmer’s market. The focus of Unit Two is shopping. Its three texts introduce shopping centers, discuss how to bargain when shopping, and study the emergence of night markets in China. Unit Three focuses on China’s educational system. The three texts in this section deal with elementary school students’ life, the transition from middle school to college, and the Hope Project to promote poor children’s education. Unit Four is about healthcare. The three texts discuss China’s healthcare system, traditional medicine, and how to see a doctor, as well as how to get diagnosed and receive proper medical treatment.

Each lesson includes five teaching phases. Phase one: Familiarization with the new topic; Phase two: Language Building; Phase three: Language in Motion; Phase four: Discussion and Debate; Phase five: Formal Speech about the topic. Each phase includes language preparation and language activities. The strongest area, in my opinion, is the language preparation for each phase. For example, the language preparation for Phase two is language building. In this section, the grammar points are all well explained and exemplified. Ample learning opportunities are provided. Meanwhile, I see a lot of discussion in the language activity section. For example, on page 60, there are four language activities: Activity 1: “Talk about the shopping center you visited and its features;” Activity 2: “Discuss the differences and similarities of shopping centers in the United States and those in China;” Activity 3: “Talk about your impression of shop assistants in China;” Activity 4: “In your opinion, what is the relationship between the shopping environment and people’s living standard?” I believe students would benefit more if more fun tasks or projects, such as role plays, skits, and movie dubbing, were provided.

In terms of vocabulary, the authentic and high frequency language used in all of the texts reflect an average person’s everyday life in China. Each lesson also provides useful context.
and background information about the cultures and subcultures in which the stories take place. People’s engagement in day-to-day activities is portrayed through some black and white photographs which complement the texts rather well. In this sense, this textbook is a wonderful bridge to understanding contemporary China from the perspective of an educated native speaker of Chinese.

In short, *Chinese in Motion: an Advanced Immersion Course*, Part I integrates all four language skills (reading, listening, speaking, and writing) and is designed with task-based instruction and total immersion in mind. It is ideal for students who have studied mandarin Chinese for two years at the college level or its equivalent. After finishing this book, students are expected to perform at the intermediate-high or advanced-low proficiency level on the ACTFL scale or level 3 on the ILR (Interagency Language Roundtable) scale. Since *Chinese in Motion* utilizes plenty of vocabulary introduced in the textbook Integrated Chinese, students who have completed Integrated Chinese Level 2, will find it suitable but challenging. However, teachers who decide to adopt this textbook might want to create additional fun and meaningful tasks based on their students’ learning styles and personality types in order to enhance teaching effectiveness.

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**Publisher’s Response**

Cheng & Tsui agrees with Professor Zhu’s opinion that *Chinese in Motion* is a “powerful Chinese textbook.” It is gratifying that she sees the strong “Language Preparation” sections in the text. It gives students the tools and motivation to reach an advanced level of Chinese and to access that level as independently as possible. We would like to add that the “well explained and exemplified” grammar explanations she notes are designed to give enough information for students to figure out things on their own, a skill that will serve them well in a study abroad context.

While acknowledging that in many situations students benefit from fun tasks and projects to supplement learning, we believe that these types of activities are less germane to this textbook than to others. Because *Chinese in Motion* is intended for the immersion classroom, the focus must be on intensive language use. As a result, each lesson’s “Language Activities” sections are weighted toward discussion and presentation. The goal of the textbook is to get students to think and express themselves in Chinese at a paragraph level. This is a proven way to measure fluency. Students arrive best at this point by participating in constant classroom discussions, which can be fun when well structured. Students thus spend time using the vocabulary and grammar structures and cultural information that they have learned on their own, which can be highly motivating.

Another important component of *Chinese in Motion* is the cultural knowledge that it provides students about China. We are pleased that Professor Zhu singles out how the lesson texts and accompanying photographs unfold from the perspective of immersion students in China of similar age to those using this textbook. This is an important structural underpinning of the textbook. The author, Yi Lin, based these characters on the experiences of her own
students. These students started out knowing little Chinese, and were afterward able to enroll directly in Chinese universities. Some even obtained prestigious jobs in China. This authenticity allows students using the textbook to connect to what they are learning, and shows them that they, too, can enter a study abroad program and become fluent in Chinese.

Finally, we would like to thank Professor Zhu for summarizing the lessons' content so clearly and succinctly. *Chinese in Motion* focuses on the most useful and interesting topics for students' survival, engagement, and immersion in China. In addition, Unit 1’s focus on Qingdao province introduces an interesting city to immersion learners, and shows them that there are more places to study abroad in China than just Beijing or Shanghai.

Cindy Su
Cheng & Tsui Company

**German**


This revised edition of Gudrun Clay’s classic *Geschäftsdeutsch* is intended to guide third year college students towards a clearer understanding of Germany’s role in the European Union and the global economy, as they continue to perfect their German language skills. The textbook also prepares students for the Business German Exam administered by the *Goethe Institut*. In all twelve chapters, skill-building exercises provide practice for both communicative and analytic linguistic development. After an introduction to the Federal Republic of Germany in Chapter one, the topics range from the European Union, professional correspondence, preparing a job application, tourism, consumers, the social market economy, German Industry, Germany in the global economy, finance and the environment. Franz-Joseph Wehage has also created a Website to provide additional practice through interactive exercises and audiovisual assignments outside of the classroom, as well as links for semester projects ([http://www.muskingum.edu/~modern/german/busgerm/tableofcontents.html](http://www.muskingum.edu/~modern/german/busgerm/tableofcontents.html)).

Each chapter is structured as follows: first, students are made aware of the learning goals (*Lernziele*), read some introductory questions or thoughts as advanced organizers, encounter contextualized readings, comprehension, grammar and vocabulary exercises, engage in oral communication activities, avail themselves of grammar explanations, if needed, and wrap up with some thoughts and statements. A final section entitled *Wussten Sie das schon?* provides pertinent cultural information on common German behaviors and attitudes.

The introductory questions are intended to activate knowledge that students already have about each chapter topic. Each sub-section is centered on texts, most of which are introduced with pre-reading activities and supported with high-frequency vocabulary sections. The majority of the texts appear to be written by the authors themselves and are interspersed with authentic graphs, statistics, and photos. Vocabulary exercises solidify students’ usage and comprehension activities double as preparation for in-class discussion. The final statements (*Schlussgedanken*) are designed to confirm whether or not students have attained each chapter’s learning goals.
The first chapter (Die Bundesrepublik Deutschland) introduces students to the 16 Bundesländer and their economic geography. It also highlights common business topics in order to encourage learners to familiarize themselves with vocabulary pertinent to their own interests. However, for a textbook intended to prepare students to function professionally in German-speaking Europe, there is hardly any indication that German is a pluricentric language, and information about Austria and Switzerland is virtually non-existent. Chapter 2 contains a brief text entitled Die Schweiz: Mitten in der EU und kein EU-Land on pg. 36; however, on the whole, both countries are relegated to statistical footnotes in occasional graphs (e.g., Zahler und Empfänger, pg. 34; Deutschland reist, pg. 115; Familien unter staatlichen Schutz, pg. 168; and Schaufenster der Welt, pg. 220).

The majority of readings are fairly dry prose descriptions, incorporating terms and statistics the authors want the students to learn. Questions following the readings tend to be formulated by the authors and already pre-suppose an answer. More varied and extensive pre- and post-reading activities would help students develop both global and detail-oriented comprehension strategies in greater depth and advance their reading competency. The authors have included a few authentic articles and dialogues, Beim Personalchef (pp. 171-173) and Sozialhilfe (pg. 176). This change of text type is welcome, although the first—the conversation between an American employee and her German employer about social welfare and health insurance—seems rather contrived and unidiomatic. The second is more accessible, although it, too, seems too much like written discourse. It is surprising, nevertheless, that the authors did not include a dialogue modeling a job interview in Chapter 5, where a more natural conversational flow would have been easier to achieve.

The authentic texts Mit dem ICE nach London (pp. 62-63), Durchschnittliches Gehalt (pp. 145-146) and especially the short article Frau Kaufmann macht sich selbständig (pg. 208), on the other hand are refreshingly lively and make me wish the authors had selected more authentic texts.

By its very nature, the vocabulary is complicated, and the authors present it in the usual alphabetical lists of varying length. They divide the words into nouns, adjectives, verbs and idiomatic expressions. Pertinent vocabulary is listed directly before each reading text, and often after an appropriate pre-reading activity. In some cases, topical groupings of words and organization in word families (e.g., in Chapter 10, Einzelhandel, Einzelhändler, Kleinhändler, Versandhandel, pg. 202) or pre-reading exercises with key words would help break up the often lengthy vocabulary lists. This would make them visually less daunting and probably facilitate students’ acquisition of the terminology.

Vocabulary activities are generally either fill-in-the-blank, matching, or true/false exercises. Grammar exercises also ask students to combine or manipulate sentences. Occasionally, students are asked to translate. Some of the activities seem overly long. One such exercise provides a list of 18 new words and fill-in-the-blank definitions (pp. 205-206). Both length and layout make this activity challenging, because the new words are listed on one side of the page while most of the incomplete definitions are featured on the back of the same page. Furthermore, the definitions are unrelated to one another and ask students to create a list of random sentences. Shorter, more varied, and more carefully contextualized activities might help students acquire the vocabulary or practice the grammar more effectively.
Each chapter includes a few oral exercises, which range from partner and interview activities with pre-formulated prompts (e.g. discuss the differences between German and American social services with your partner, pg. 170) and statements for discussion (e.g., *In der Bundesrepublik wird verhältnismäßig wenig gestreikt. Was sind wohl die Gründe dafür?* pg. 216) to a few role plays and oral report topics. More creative and varied language practice could also serve to provide additional stimuli for oral conversations. Take, for example, one such activity currently hampered by length and layout. Here students are asked to match pictograms with a word list. This exercise, which encompasses three pages (pp. 130-132), could be divided into two: One, a shorter one, could ask students to match expressions to images; another one, with different images, could ask students to guess what the pictograms could mean and discuss them with their partners, and find the appropriate words on their own. This would provide students with meaningful opportunities for cultural comparisons and stimulate discussions about cultural specificity of imagery and pictograms.

The authors take a model-based approach to writing in Chapters 4 and 5, which introduce students to professional correspondence and the job application process. The questions preparing students for oral interviews are very useful and appropriate, and the authors also provide analytic questions after each model letter or résumé to help students identify conventions, make cultural comparisons, and write their own letters. In addition to the excellent models, a few more focused writing exercises would have been useful in both chapters. For example, where the authors state that online applications are becoming more common in Germany, they could have provided a simulated online form as one such exercise.

Overall, *Geschäftsdeutsch* is a solid foundational text for a third-year class on German business culture. The geographic and economic information about Germany, the alphabetized vocabulary at the end of the book (pp. 275-297), and interview questions, as well as model letters and résumés, make the book a solid reference for students familiarizing themselves with more specialized communicative conventions. In a future edition, the publishers need to correct the spelling errors on the copyright page (eg., *Griechenland Niederlände* instead of *Greichenland Neiderlande*, pg. 299), include substantive information on Austria and Switzerland address the lack of variety in structural practice activities, and include more diverse authentic text types. In the meantime, the Website could fill the void by adding additional, less Germany-centric materials, in order to ensure that those students who plan to work with multi-national companies from other German-speaking countries would also receive appropriate cultural preparation.

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**Publisher's Response**

We thank the reviewer for her very thoughtful comments on the new edition of Wehage and Clay’s *Geschäftsdeutsch. An Introduction to German Business Culture*. We naturally hope that we have made a good book better, and the suggestions made here will be given serious consideration, should we undertake a new edition in the future.
Meanwhile, we do hope that the authors will provide additional German language materials to the Website on Austria and Switzerland. We know that these are important parts of the German-speaking community. We are happy to provide what the reviewer describes as “a solid foundational text” because we feel that it is important to provide language students with learning materials that will lead to careers that will enable them to draw on their linguistic skills.

Ron Pullins
Publisher
Focus Publishing
Newburyport MA

Portuguese


*Bom Dia, Brasil*, is the third edition of the previously titled *Português Básico para Estrangeiros*, by Rejane de Oliveira, the first edition of which appeared already in 1993. This beginning-level Portuguese textbook can be used conveniently in semester-long courses at the college level and consists of an introductory section followed by 36 lessons. The preface states that the linguistic-pedagogical foundation of the book is a principle—the acquisition of a lexicon. The editors go on to state that after completing the book, students will have acquired the vocabulary necessary to be able to express themselves, interact, and communicate in Portuguese. In other words, following the communicative method, students improve their comprehension of the grammar and syntax through readings, dialogues, and spoken interactions among instructor and students.

The short introductory section presents the alphabet, pronunciation, the various kinds and function of accents, punctuation, and a very limited selection of vocabulary items that will enable students to begin using the language in practical and high-frequency situations from the first day of class. The vocabulary items provided cover nationalities; general references to one’s age (for example, adult, youth, child, baby); marital status, and finally, 20 brief exchanges between people, involving tasks such as greetings, leave-taking, thanking, and others, both formal and informal. Each exchange is accompanied by a simple drawing of the people engaged in the conversation. Students can listen to the conversations, as well as to all dialogues and readings in the textbook, via a free Website: www.yalebooks.com/bomdia.

Thirty-six thematic lessons follow the introductory section. The themes include common subjects, such as food, daily routines, travel, weather, work, domestic life, the human body, and sports, as well as cultural topics, such as the history of the Portuguese language, carnival, the Brazilian Northeast, the Amazon, and the cities of São Paulo and Brasilia. The 36 lessons are made up of one or more of the following elements: readings, dialogues, vocabulary, and grammar, with the great majority of lessons having all of them, though not always in the same order and with differing numbers for each element. For example, the components and order of Lesson 1 are Reading, Dialogue, Grammar,
Vocabulary, Grammar, Vocabulary, Grammar, Reading. The components and order of Lesson 7 are Reading, Vocabulary, Reading, Reading, Vocabulary, Vocabulary, Reading, Grammar, Reading. In contrast, Lessons 29 and 33 are made up entirely of readings.

Most of the readings are from 100 to 400 words of prose or poetry—as well as a few lyrics of popular songs—and a few are lists or chronologies of history. The final lesson includes three examples of the Brazilian chronicle (crônica brasileira), short, often humorous, prose writings that capture aspects of daily life and include elements of fiction and non-fiction prose. Following the readings are either questions or instructions to ask and answer questions on the reading in pairs or small groups. After completing these readings, students are asked to do independent research on the Internet.

The dialogues range from informal exchanges among peers and friends, to formal, professional situations. They reflect the themes, vocabulary and grammar items presented in the lesson and recycle material previously presented. The shorter dialogues include approximately two to four statements from each person, the longer ones approximately ten to twelve statements.

When new vocabulary components are introduced, they are accompanied by drawings, where appropriate. These are simple, but quite clear and easily identifiable; for example, the list of fruits and vegetables in Lesson 16, which includes a number of tropical fruits that many students may likely never have seen or heard of. Lesson 15 includes a house floor plan, and Lesson 14 includes an elaborate outdoor scene.

Grammar explanations—all in Portuguese—are brief, simple, and understandably, depend on the instructor to expand and apply as necessary depending on student need. For example, in the lesson contrasting reflexive and non-reflexive forms of some verbs (Lesson 17), sample sentences are provided for the verb sentir. “Vou a farmácia porque não me sinto bem” is contrasted with “Sinto muito frio no inverno.” The two examples provided will most likely require instructor input to make clear the different uses of the verb. In some cases, the textbook provides clarification, expansion, or exceptions through footnotes to the sample sentences following grammar lessons or in the exercises themselves. In the same lesson on reflexive and non-reflexive verb differences, a footnote points out that the normally omitted subject pronoun is used when a reflexive pronoun would otherwise begin the sentence (“Eu me levanto,” not “Me levanto”). Exercises to practice and apply grammar require students to fill in blanks, answer or form questions, modify sentences, describe drawings, and write brief compositions. The exercises provided tend to be short and manageable, but not overwhelming in number. Depending on particular course requirements, it is likely that all exercises in a lesson could be assigned without significant time demands.

The Internet provides sources of information for some assignments on Brazilian culture. For example, Lesson 27 includes a project for students to identify two singers of Brazilian popular music, drawings of whom are provided in the textbook, and then to research them on the Internet and present a paragraph about them and a sample of their songs.

With the exception of a handful of small black and white photos, the illustrations consist of black and white drawings, diagrams, and maps. Most deal with grammar and vocabulary, while others provide help with reading comprehension.
**Bom Dia, Brasil** has many positive features. With an emphasis on readings and dialogues, the textbook promotes content and student use of Portuguese to communicate about interesting and important ideas, rather than to focus on grammatical accuracy. The audio versions of dialogues are very helpful in learning the difference between written and spoken Portuguese. Dialogues and readings are long enough to give breadth, but not so long as to overwhelm or discourage the beginning student. The total exclusion of any language other than Portuguese for the entire textbook may make it less attractive to some instructors, though this same feature makes it more easily useable for a wider range of students, and of course, reinforces the importance of avoiding or reducing exact equivalences between two languages. Some textbooks currently in use incorporate graphic symbols for activity type that are more visually pleasing than informative, but, in this textbook, they are simple and easy to understand: two heads for paired or small group oral activities; a pencil for writing activities; headphones for listening activities; a laptop computer for Internet research. The drawings are fairly simple but clear, precise, and abundant. They are especially helpful in light of the above-mentioned exclusion of translations. There could even be more use made of them, such as in the section on the comparison of adjectives, which has only one drawing. Finally, the handy size and weight of the text—it is paperback—will make it appealing to users and coupled with the emphasis on black and white drawings in lieu of glossy, color plates and diagrams, make it a more affordable option for students in a day when textbooks are increasingly expensive.

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**Publisher’s Response**

Yale University Press thanks *The NECTFL Review* and reviewer John F. Day for the detailed and positive review of the 3rd edition of the textbook. The book includes many exercises, readings, and cultural content in a way that is relevant and not overwhelming to beginning Portuguese students. Audio files accompanying the book are at [www.yalebooks.com/bomdia](http://www.yalebooks.com/bomdia). If instructors would like to request an examination copy of this or any of our language textbooks, they may do so at [yalebooks.com/languageexam](http://yalebooks.com/languageexam); selected books are also available to view online at [yalebooks.com/e-exam](http://yalebooks.com/e-exam).

Karen Stickler  
Academic Discipline Marketer  
Yale University Press

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**Spanish**


As foreign language educators who face the technology-enhanced, professionally-oriented, and practically-minded students of the twenty-first century, we often struggle
with how to introduce students to literature that will appeal to them. One possible resource is Paolo Bianco’s *Conversando con literatura*. Bianco explains that her main purpose in writing *Conversando con literatura* as a conversation text was:

… topics that engage students in exciting and dynamic conversations and discussions. Rather than emphasizing typical conversational topics such as scenes in a hotel, airport, or restaurant, or focusing solely on common unit themes such as the family, student life, travel, and hobbies, I have chosen literary texts as a primary point of departure for conversation in Spanish. These texts lend themselves well to discussions of a wide range of topics and universal themes that are intriguing and familiar to students. (XI)


All the literary texts selected by Bianco allow students to progress naturally from an initial awareness of the text’s themes to a more in-depth understanding of Hispanic culture. For example, in the first unit, *Recuerdos de la niñez*, which features Meira Delmar’s “Regresos” and Gloria Fuertes’ “Nací en una buhardilla,” the two “Mesa redonda” discussion questions are extremely topical and pertinent to today’s students: “Si un/a niño/a es adoptado/a porque es huérfano/a (orphan), ¿cree que él o ella deberían conocer a la madre biológica? Justifique su respuesta.” And “Si un/a niño/a es huérfano/a y no tiene una familia adoptiva, ¿qué cree que debería hacer el gobierno para asegurar el bienestar de este/a niño/a?” (14) A second example is from the unit on *Diversidad étnico-racial*, with Nicolás Guillén’s “Balada de los dos abuelos” and Nancy Morejón’s “Mujer negra,” in which students are asked to discuss the significance of quotes by Martin Luther King and Bob Marley as they pertain to the readings and as a result, extend the meaning of the readings beyond their significance to their own Hispanic culture (National Standard for Foreign Language Learning 4.2: “Comparisons – Students demonstrate understanding of the concept of culture through comparisons of the cultures studied and their own”).

Even though *Conversando con literatura* is geared for the upper-level undergraduate Spanish courses, Bianco does well to include five appendices that succinctly review important grammar points: “Apéndice A: el imperfecto;” “Apéndice B: el pretérito;” “Apéndice C: ser y estar;” “Apéndice D: el presente de subjuntivo;” and “Apéndice E: el imperfecto de subjuntivo.” Particularly noteworthy is the fact that each appendix clearly indicates which units are best served by the information contained in it (for example, “Apéndice A” matched with “Unidad 4: La mujer: ayer y hoy” and “Unidad 7: El ser y sus máscaras”). Moreover, within each unit clear references are made to the appendices when appropriate for completing unit exercises and activities.
Conversando con literatura is a carefully organized and well thought-out text. It would serve a conversation course with a focus on culture quite well since it provides students with a foundation in Hispanic literature while at the same time broaching timely and thematically relevant topics.

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Publisher’s Response

We agree with the comments that Professor Angelini makes in her evaluation of Conversando con literatura. Still, we would like to add that each of the units of the book begins with an introduction to controversial topics about which most students are familiar. The topics addressed in these introductions reflect not only on cultural issues but also connect a variety of disciplines, including medicine, history, philosophy, and literature, as well as real life issues and current events. We believe that the well-designed selection of topics and their variety will captivate students and foster good discussion. Needless to say, the large number of topics and exercises included in this textbook will allow professors the opportunity to choose and select those that they deem to be appropriate and pertinent in their classroom.

The readings, exercises, pictures, and activities included in Conversando con literatura will serve students well insofar as they will enable them to practice all the language skills, such as speaking, reading, writing and listening. In addition to serving as a conversation textbook, Conversando con literatura can be used as a cultural reader and/or as a general introduction to a literature course.

Panda Publications
Wilkes Barre, PA
www.Pandapublications.info


The editors of this book have gathered an excellent collection of papers written in Spanish on first and second language Spanish pragmatics. The book is an exceptional resource for undergraduate and graduate students and researchers in Spanish linguistics. Pre-reading reflection questions and practice exercises are useful features for those teachers who want to use this textbook in an advanced undergraduate or graduate Spanish linguistics course.

The book contains 15 chapters divided into four sections. The first section is an introduction to the field of pragmatics. In the second section, the authors give an overview of linguistic methods and their application to specific aspects of pragmatics research. The third section presents a series of socio-pragmatic themes from distinct theoretical and methodological perspectives. In the fourth section, the authors explore the relationship between language and communication.
Part 1, “Nociones básicas del estudio pragmático,” contains two chapters. Blackwell distinguishes the field of semantics from pragmatics, arguing that, in order to understand how meaning is represented, one must take into account both semantic and pragmatic meaning. In the second chapter, Martínez Camino discusses the theoretical principles involved in inferential communication. His chapter focuses on the work of Grice, as well as that of Sperber and Wilson.

Part 2, “Métodos de análisis,” consists of five chapters. Félix-Brasdefer describes how speakers use language to express communicative acts or speech acts. The author presents sample speech acts and discusses them by using the frameworks established by Austin and Searle. Félix-Brasdefer concludes with recommendations for the learning of speech acts and other aspects of pragmatic performance. Bravo discusses linguistic politeness as an important aspect of the pragmatics research agenda. In delineating the relationship between indirect speech acts and politeness, the author refers to the theories of Lakoff (1972), Leech (1983, 1988), and Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987). Bravo does an outstanding job of using authentic speech samples to elicit reflection and discussion. Koike and James discuss the use of conversation analysis to investigate social interaction. Cashman discusses the use of discourse analysis to examine oral and written language, while Zavala outlines the tenets of critical discourse analysis.

Part 3, “Lengua y poder,” contains six chapters. De los Heros explores the relationship between language and gender in the first chapter of this section. The author traces work on gender from the variationists and pre-feminists to more recent work grounded in sociopragmatics, postmodern theories, and feminist studies. She concludes with an interesting discussion of issues, including language and gender, language and sexual expression, and sexism in language. González-Cruz considers the relationship between linguistic variation and social class. In doing so, the author addresses work on social stratification, stereotypes, hyper- and ultra-correction, social networks, and other areas. In doing so, the author discusses the work of Labov on social stratification. Blas Arroyo reflects on language and politics. Using excerpts from authentic political speeches and interviews, the author investigates the linguistic strategies politicians use to persuade and manipulate the public. Escobar, del Puy Ciriza, and Holguín-Mendoza discuss the relationship between language and identity. The authors explore a number of interesting aspects of sociolinguistics: linguistic variation, the social construction of meaning, social networks and communities of practice, sociolinguistic expression of identity, construction of sociolinguistic identity, language contact, and code-switching. Bustamonte-López offers a fascinating discussion on language and immigration. Focusing on Spain and the United States, the author examines attitudes toward immigrants as expressed in public blogs and webpages. She concludes with a discussion of the linguistic features associated with immigration and language contact. García Tesoro discusses the relationship between language and education in the Spanish-speaking world. She compares traditional instruction with its focus on the structural aspects of language with more recent communicative approaches. The author then delineates the tension between a standard Spanish and varieties of Spanish, as well as indigenous languages.

Part 4, “Lengua y comunicación,” contains two chapters. Hernández Flores demonstrates how the media, in addition to transmitting information, are a central figure in the creation, confirmation, and redefinition of ideologies. It is in this sense that the media, together with
political, economic, religious, social, and artistic groups, form an elite group of society. The author argues for the use of CDA as a theoretical framework to investigate the use of the media to propagate and reinforce prejudice and discrimination toward specific groups. In the second chapter, Niño-Murcia elucidates the at times indefinable construct of globalization. In doing so, she differentiates globalization as a process from current discourses on globalization. The author goes on to discuss recent phenomena associated with globalization: deterritorialization, reterritorialization, and call centers. Niño-Murcia concludes with an excellent discussion of the relationship between language and globalization, and Spanish as an international language.

This book is an outstanding resource for undergraduate and graduate students, as well as researchers in Spanish linguistics. It offers a clear and comprehensive introduction to the most important areas of research in Spanish pragmatics.

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According to conventional wisdom, Spanish is the easiest language to learn for most American students. No doubt it is, at least when compared to languages such as Russian or Japanese. Already knowing French and Italian, I figured it would be a breeze to pick up some basic Spanish and my gut feeling proved to be right. Armed with my new SPANISH in 10 Minutes a Day textbook, I breezed through the equivalent of half a semester’s worth of beginning college Spanish in about a month and found the experience thoroughly enjoyable. The text employs a pedagogy well adapted to the busy schedule of people like myself who cannot study every day or for very long. So, course material has been slimmed down and focuses on the essentials, on what you need to know in order to survive, but just enough to make you want to learn more. To no one’s surprise, therefore, next semester, I plan to sit in on my Spanish colleague’s 101 class in order to gain a better mastery of basic grammar and also to have an opportunity to test my new language skills in a less threatening environment than Spain or Mexico (who wants to make a fool of oneself?). Also, I need to work on pronunciation because the accompanying CD-ROM, though a good beginning, does not provide enough practice.

SPANISH in 10 Minutes a Day tends to favor standard “American Spanish” (defined broadly speaking as the Spanish spoken in the Americas), and therefore does not embrace the vosotros (colloquial “you” form) or zeta sound familiar to anyone who has visited Spain. However, in some places the vocabulary taught is either Castilian or American Spanish, which can be confusing to the beginning student. For example, in one place (76), the text teaches that “car” is carro (American Spanish) but then, a few pages later, uses the word coche (80) which is Castilian Spanish. And the woman in the picture on the front cover of the text clearly is a flamenco dancer from Andalucia. Also, as a small token of the text’s all-inclusive nature, there is a map of the Spanish-speaking world on p. 1. With the exception of a handful of Spanish-speaking territories in Africa (where Spanish is not the only language spoken), all Spanish-speaking nations are represented, but why not list all the countries in
Spanish, underscoring the fact that English is not the native tongue of inhabitants in the
Spanish-speaking world?

As should be clear by now, this is a low-key introduction to Spanish, a light version of
a first-semester language program primarily intended for travelers and would-be students
of Spanish eager to make a good first impression in their host country. As such, it is quite
effective, in the opinion of this reviewer, and I have enjoyed using it under the auspices of
my colleague in Spanish, Mr. Juan Carlos Martinez Belda.

Spanish in 10 Minutes a Day is divided into two dozen or so commonsensical mini-
chapters: “Alphabet, Pronunciation Guide,” “Key Question Words,” Look Around You
in Your House,” “Numbers,” “Colors,” “Sticky Labels,” “Money, Seasons, Temperatures,”
“Upstairs, Downstairs,” “Post Office, Mail,” “Traffic Signs, Conversion Tables,” “Paying Bills,”
“Traveling, Getting Around,” “Dining, Menu,” “Telephone,” “Transportation,” “Shopping,”
“Packaging, Getting Ready to Go,” “Glossary,” “Beverage and Menu Guides,” “Flash Cards,”
and “Software Disk.”

Each section includes a panoply of useful vocabulary and phrases, which the hurried
(and lazy) traveler who never had the chance (or took the chance) to take a real language
class can try out on the natives on his or her next trip. Spanish in 10 Minutes a Day is
both fun and educational, and will empower absolute beginners to become proficient in
conversational Spanish in very little time. It will enable them to begin from scratch and to
go where the average undergraduate goes in a year. Spanish is supposed to be easy, but a
word to the wise: no language is easy, not even Spanish. You need to work at it and—a word
to the wise—you will need a good teacher.

Even though this is not a language primer in the traditional sense of the word and
clearly is intended for self-study, there are many reasons to like this book and its
many companion volumes in the same series: everything from its very basic and non-
threatening, easy-to-handle design to its comprehensive coverage of a wide array of topics
from everyday life. Novice learners will learn how to get around in Spain, for example,
and to communicate in real-life Spanish, making their visit that much more enjoyable.
Perhaps the user is a business person about to be posted to a Spanish-speaking country,
or just an ambitious world traveler who revels in the thrill of being able to say more than
just a perfunctory “hello” and “thank you” to the natives in their own tongue. Either way,
Spanish in 10 Minutes a Day is a winner and will provide you with a set of basic skills
that the author hopes will motivate you enough to want to continue and really learn how
to speak Spanish. In other words, Spanish in 10 Minutes a Day is an excellent beginning.
According to the author: “The purpose of this book is to give you an immediate speaking
ability in Spanish” (2). Ever mindful of its communicative goal of empowering the first-time
visitor to Spain to pick up enough basic Spanish to survive (but just barely!) an encounter
with the local folks, the text opens with the universal interrogative words “where,” “what,”
“who,” “why,” “when,” “how,” “how much,” and “how many” (5). Each word listed includes a
commonsensical phonetic transcription into basic monosyllables (not to be confused with
the IPA [international phonetic alphabet]), judged too awkward for hurried learners who
no doubt never learned it in college in the first place): dónde = “dohn-deh.” Now, if only you
understand you are likely to elicit, you would be in fine shape and could plan a clever retort.
The text follows an eminently practical and obvious, almost “phenomenological” kind of order, moving from the objects you might find surrounding you (at home or in town) to your attempt to somehow respond to them rationally (by naming, counting, or inquiring about them in some way). Thus, to begin with, we learn how to name the different parts of a house and how to get around town. Next, we look at colors, money, the calendar (days of the week, months, seasons, temperatures), the family, the clock, the post office, traveling, and eating out. Topics are not always listed in any logical order, but some are deemed important enough to require further study (e.g., the home and food) and appear in follow-up sections throughout the book. About the only obvious topic not covered is self-introductions. I do learn how to say: “Hello, my name is Tom Conner; I am from Green Bay, Wisconsin. I am a teacher;” however, these phrases are in different sections of the text (32, 77, 38, 58), whereas I am thinking they should be in an introductory unit with the express purpose of getting learners started.

The program teaches an abundance of useful vocabulary and phrases and does so in such a way that learners (at least those who have already studied a foreign language and know what to look for when they start up another) can teach themselves through trial and error, thanks to the pattern-practice type of exercises favored by the author. For example, on page 76, we learn how to say “Pedro travels by car.” Simply exchange the mode of transportation (“by car”) for another and you will quickly memorize other common forms of travel (“by boat,” “by plane,” etc.). Except that it is wrong to say “Ana viaja por avion” (76) if you mean to say that you are traveling by air. The correct preposition is “en.” “Por” is used to send something by airmail.

To reinforce vocabulary and structures, there are numerous fill-in-the-blanks exercises along the way. A basic structure is introduced; then, the learner repeats it in a different context. For example, beber (50) means “to drink.” So, first we learn Yo bebo leche (“I drink milk) and then “I drink coffee, tea, etc.”

The book also comes with detachable vocabulary sticky tags you can plaster your own home with to help you find your way around in Spanish, as well as a CD-ROM for reinforcement. It is easy to install thanks to the Setup Wizard (but does require Adobe Flashplayer 9) and gives the user a chance to work on pronunciation and to increase a sense of personal when comfort using a foreign language. The main menu lists a set of four different exercises focusing on pronouns and verbs, colors, numbers, and objects of daily life (house, office, city, outdoors). Most are multiple-choice or click-and-drag. Words are clearly pronounced several times by a native speaker, which is immensely useful to the novice learner. The author deserves kudos for organizing so much material into just a handful of easy-to-do review exercises.

As I started out by saying, I really like the way this program is set up: it has no intellectual pretensions and clearly wants nothing more than to teach the first-time visitor or recent expat how to survive in a Spanish-speaking country. However, as mentioned above, Juan-Carlos did find various errors throughout: bistec (not biftec) on p. 10 (though there are a few regions where the latter is acceptable); the first day of the week is Monday, not Sunday, on p. 23, etc. A thorough proofreading by an Anglo-Spanish team of two experienced bilingual teachers with near-native ability in the other’s mother tongue should result in an error-free second edition of this very useful and user-friendly book. That said, my overall impression of Spanish in 10 Minutes a Day as a novice learner is extremely positive, and
I remain convinced that anyone who begins reading this book will not only finish it, but also learn a lot from it. And that goes for regular first-semester students looking for review and reinforcement, as well as adult learners curious about Spanish who enroll in a weekly evening class offered at a local community college.

Thanks to globalization, so many people everywhere speak at least some English. Still, being able to speak just a little bit (and, let’s face it, that’s all that you are going to learn in the weeks leading up to your big trip or on the transatlantic flight over), it does make a good impression to know just a few polite phrases.

In addition to the “Foreign Language of Your Choice” series, which I fondly call LOTS (Languages Other Than Spanish), now at 20 and counting, Bilingual Books offers “language maps” (laminated plastic fold-out booklets consisting of useful vocabulary and phrases) in about two dozen languages, from the commonly taught to the less commonly taught (for example, Vietnamese), which, at $7.95, are eminently affordable. They are intended for travelers and can supplement a textbook because of their emphasis on practical language. For those serious about an academic approach to language, however, there is no substitute for a traditional classroom and a passionate (and competent) teacher, such as Mr. Juan Carlos Martinez Belda.

Tom Conner
Professor of Modern Languages and Literatures
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Publisher’s Response

Thank you for the very warm and positive review of our book SPANISH in 10 minutes a day® with CD-ROM.

You referenced bistec and biftec. Both are used and it seems to be a regional choice. You are absolutely correct that for a Spanish speaker the first day of the week is Monday and you’ll see that reflected on the calendar on page 22. For the exercise on page 23 we do start the pattern with domingo.

The map on page one does focus upon the Latin American world plus Spain and those countries whose official language is Spanish. We left off Equitorial Guinea where Spanish is an official language and Western Sahara where it is a de facto language. We wanted to make the map large enough to clearly show the many Spanish-speaking Latin American countries and because the number of visitors to Spanish-speaking Africa is relatively small in comparison.

Our goal has always been to make the 10 minutes a day® books fun and the first step for those wishing to learn a foreign language. There is no replacement for the skills and passion which teachers bring to the classroom and in tandem with that we want our books to excite and motivate students. We want to show them that learning a new language can be enjoyable so they can be better prepared for a classroom setting and benefit even more from it.

Kristine K. Kershul
Author of the 10 minutes a day® Series
Bilingual Books, Inc.
Seattle, WA

September 2013

*Introducción a la historia de la lengua española* by Melvin C. Resnick and Robert M. Hammond focuses on the origins of modern Spanish, the reasons behind its current form and its relationships to other languages, both those within and outside the Romance family. In the introduction, the authors explain that the changes made to the second edition were designed to make it the principal text in an introductory postgraduate class and they suggest how many hours of class time the instructor might dedicate to each chapter.

The strong organization of the volume allows it to be comprehensive, yet accessible. Three reference charts describing phonological symbols immediately follow the prologue: one for consonants, one for diacritics, and one for vowels. Each chapter contains various charts and is divided into sections and subsections. Such structural outlining is both practical and straightforward. The table of contents reflects these divisions, making the location of a desired topic quick and simple.

While the authors designed the volume to serve as the basis of an introductory postgraduate course, the first part of the text could also be utilized in a lower-level course on the history of the Spanish language. The first three chapters lay the basis for the remainder of the text as they move through a broad geographical and historical introduction into a discussion of foreign influences and then into a discussion of miscellaneous, yet essential topics. These topics include derivatives and cultismos, pronunciation, infinitives, cognates, as well as criteria that establish the relationship between words. The third chapter also examines the alphabet vis-à-vis phonological transformations. The fourth chapter is entirely dedicated to phonology, and alternately addresses different groupings of consonants and vowels, as well as the yod. The fifth is dedicated to changes in grammar while the sixth examines the history of Spanish dialects. The seventh and final chapter investigates the expansion of the Spanish lexicon vis-à-vis external and internal factors. This chapter traces the birth and formation of Castilian and traces its travels to the New World and its consequent contact with indigenismos and africanismos. It also includes sections on English and other foreign influences, both ancient and as recent as the twentieth century. The volume is thus comprehensive, yet succinct, in the covering of the material.

There are various features of *Introducción a la historia de la lengua española* that assist both the instructor and the student. The section titled *Temas y datos adicionales* at the end of each chapter provides supplementary information for students and possible expansion topics for instructors. The following section, *Para contestar*, provides a series of questions that can serve as a chapter review. These questions could be asked in class, assigned as homework, or even used as testing material. Having such pedagogical tools at their fingertips help instructors design an introductory postgraduate course with ease. The bibliography is listed first in the expected alphabetical fashion, then again by topic. This reorganization of the bibliography greatly facilitates further research by students.

The second edition of Melvyn C. Resnick and Robert M. Hammond’s *Introducción a la historia de la lengua española* provides possible structural bridges into the classroom, thus making course design more efficient for the instructor and the material more accessible for the student.
Listen 'N Learn Spanish with your Favorite Movies is a practical, fun, and thorough, albeit not culturally authentic, pedagogical tool for improving Spanish listening skills and vocabulary, drawing on a method that uses English-language movies with foreign language audio tracks through DVD and other digital formats. By taking popular or classic English-language films with which students are familiar, the authors explain how to build and retain vocabulary: “While there is some benefit to watching movies and trying to pick out familiar words, it is easy to become overwhelmed as the wave of unintelligible, indistinct, and meaningless syllables crashes over you. It’s also not very efficient: You can spend many hours listening to a lot of dialogue and come away with only small gains in understanding. That could be boring and frustrating, but it wouldn’t be if you could progress more rapidly – and mark the progress you’ve made” (VI). Thomas and Thomas then detail the rationale behind their method:

1. Words and phrases. By knowing the words and phrases ahead of time, your ear will be pre-disposed to identify them. This allows you to avoid the frustration of being unable to distinguish, without tremendous effort, what you are hearing.

2. Definitions. By knowing the definitions for the words and phrases ahead of time, you can attach meaning to them without having to search a traditional dictionary.

3. Making progress. Being able to refer to lists of common words and phrases that occur in a specific movie allows you to monitor your progress and increases your motivation.

4. Familiar movies. When you watch movies you’re familiar with – like those that are a part of this collection - not only does your comprehension go up, but you have more fun learning! (VII)

Thomas and Thomas outline a clear-cut three-step process: (1) Learn core vocabulary; (2) Select a movie by level of difficulty, genre, or chronology; and (3) Study the vocabulary guide and watch the movie. To help with the learning of core vocabulary, the authors created a twenty-page section of 614 vocabulary items that represent eighty percent of the words spoken in most Spanish-language movies. The core vocabulary section includes common phrases, numbers, connectors (specifically, articles, interjections, conjunctions, and prepositions), cognates, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs.

The sixteen movies (plus an on-line bonus of four films), for which Thomas and Thomas have developed movie profiles, are divided into four categories: Beginner, Advanced Beginner, Intermediate, and Advanced. The Beginner films are: Eight Below (2006); The Fox and the Hound (1981); March of the Penguins (2005); and The Princess
Bride (1987). The Advanced Beginner films are: The Absent-Minded Professor (1961); Eragon (2006); The Chronicles of Narnia: The Lion, the Witch, and the Wardrobe (2005); and Tarzan (1999). The Intermediate films are: Holes (2003); Home Alone (1990); Hoosiers (1986); and Rocky III (1982). The Advanced films are: Anne of Green Gables (1985); Finding Nemo (2003); The Incredibles (2004); and Mary Poppins (1964). The four additional movie profiles that can be obtained free-of-charge at http://www.mhprofessional.com are: In Memoriam: New York City, 9/11/01 (2002); The Bishop's Wife (1947); Facing the Giants (2006); and Rudy (1993). Most of these films are widely available and as they are not recent releases, are quite reasonable in price (an extremely good aspect given the current tough economic times in which we currently live).

What this reviewer particularly likes about the Thomas and Thomas method is the structure of the movie profile for each film. Along with providing pertinent background information on each film (for example, plot line, actors, date of release, etc.), a general indication of the level of difficulty of Spanish in each film, and some basic vocabulary, the vocabulary is presented in order of the film's scene chronology with the exact time stamp for each scene. Especially pertinent is the fact that within the presentation of the vocabulary for each scene are given the phrases for which one should listen, the names of the key characters in the scene, and background information describing the scene (for example, for the opening credits of the movie Eight Below, the following information is provided: “Voices are heard over a darkened screen. A penguin thermometer shows the temperature inside”[2]). This background information is essential for helping students to orient themselves to the sequencing of the film, thereby enhancing the vocabulary acquisition process. In addition, teachers could potentially use the list of phrases for which one should listen in order to create written comprehension activities, such as cloze paragraphs or storyboards.

Thomas and Thomas’ Listen 'N Learn Spanish with your Favorite Movies provides an excellent base upon which to build. In other words, by building upon the experience of working with English-language films with foreign language audio tracks through DVD and other digital formats to improve listening comprehension and build vocabulary, students are able to watch foreign language films in the target language with greater ease, i.e., without subtitles, thereby enabling them to work directly with authentic linguistic and cultural material.

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Reviewers Wanted

The Northeast Conference invites you to submit your name as a reviewer of textbooks, software, websites, programs, ancillaries, videos — in short, any product or opportunity or program that might be of interest to you and your colleagues. You can help others make their way through the wide array of materials they may see at a conference, in a catalogue, on a website, or through advertising! Share your knowledge and experience ... and see yourself in print! Don’t be shy if you’ve never written for publication before; we are eager to work with you!

Reviewers are needed at all levels and in all languages. If you would be interested in exploring this possibility, would like to submit a review, or wish to receive materials to evaluate, please send your name, address, telephone and fax numbers, and e-mail address to Tom Conner (see below). If your company produces educational materials or provides educational services, and if you would like to have them reviewed in our journal, please contact Tom.

Guidelines for reviewers can be found at [http://www.nectfl.org/software.html](http://www.nectfl.org/software.html)

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2014 CONFERENCE DATE AND LOCATION

March 27–29, 2014

Marriott Copley Place Hotel
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