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**Reviewers Wanted**
January 2012

Dear Colleagues,

Warm New Year wishes to all! I sincerely hope that 2012 is off to a personally and professionally fulfilling start for each of you.

As the new year begins, I find myself both reflecting on the past as well as looking toward the future—and NECTFL plays a large role in both. I begin by examining how the organization has fostered me as an educator. It was a mere 12 years ago when I began my college internship at NECTFL, an experience that has led me to where I am today, your 2012 Conference Chair. It was in these formative years as an intern that I observed the profound reach that NECTFL has in the profession of language education. I was amazed by the caliber of the people whose badges I was stuffing into envelopes, intrigued by the session proposals that arrived at the office (and in those days, they were often received by mail, not online!), and inspired by the commitment that the NECTFL office staff, Board members, and constituents embodied.

My amazement, intrigue, and inspiration have only intensified throughout the past 12 years. I have observed numerous changes, as NECTFL is a dynamic organization whose goal is to adapt according to constituents’ needs. The Conference now offers webinars, fellowships and scholarships, and—new this year—the Wall of Recognition, a way for educators to recognize the impact that their teachers have had on their own identities. I have enjoyed equally attending NECTFL in Washington, DC, New York City, and Baltimore.

This year, we return to beautiful Baltimore—a small city with world-class appeal and opportunity. Regardless of location, the Conference affords us all the opportunity to connect with colleagues who have become friends, and mentors who have created a sort of professional family. I invite each of you to join us in Baltimore in 2012 to reconnect with these friends and “family” members, as we explore the theme of “Global Identities” through workshops, sessions, and teaching labs. I also encourage you to visit the Exhibit Hall, where our extended family will welcome you with materials and services that will enhance your teaching and your students’ learning.
It is both an honor and privilege to serve as your 2012 Conference Chair. Please do not hesitate to approach me when you see me in Baltimore—to provide me with feedback, to make a suggestion, or just to say hi! I look forward to seeing you in April.

May the new year bring many wonderful opportunities and experiences for each of you.

Warmly,

Jennie Steeley
2012 NECTFL Conference Chair
French teacher, Manheim Township Middle School
Lancaster, PA
From the Managing Editor

Readers,

Welcome to the fourth electronic-format issue of the NECTFL Review. We continue to offer you the same quality of articles and information that you have appreciated in our print version of the journal. You can now read them online or download the entire publication in PDF format. In addition, the electronic format allows us to offer you features such as the integration of color and active links to both websites mentioned and e-mail addresses. These links are in blue; simply click on a link and you will be taken to the site mentioned, or your e-mail program will open with the address of the recipient of your message already in place.

Visit the NECTFL website by just clicking and see what the organization is about and what it is doing. Send me an e-mail and let me know what you think of the format, the articles, the reviews...whatever you would like for me to know and whatever you might want to see changed.

NECTFL and I are very pleased to announce that the NECTFL Review is now included in the EBSCOhost service. EBSCO offers libraries and other institution more than 375 full-text and secondary research databases through EBSCOhost®. EBSCO’s content services the research needs of tens of thousands of customers representing millions of end users from K-12 students to public library patrons, from academic, corporate and medical researchers to clinicians and governments around the world. In addition, the NECTFL Review now also has ISSN numbers from the Library of Congress: ISSN 2164-5957 for our earlier print journals, and ISSN 2164-5965 for our new online format. This is indeed exciting news since being included in EBSCO will help spread the quality articles and reviews that appear twice a year in our journal.

In this January issue of the NECTFL Review, you will find four outstanding articles. In the first article, “Reflections on the combined World Language/English as a Second Language methods course: Perspectives, challenges and prospects for our decade,” Paul García and Patricia Davis-Wiley discuss the implications of a combined methods class for K-12 world language (WL) and English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher candidates. Their discussion is based on personal experience and a very thorough investigation of the literature on methods courses. Inherent in most WL methods sections is the instructor’s challenge of how to address pedagogical issues that are applicable to all languages and those that are germane to the individual languages represented by the enrollees. When the scope of the course includes English as a Second Language, the complications present multiplied objectives.

The next article, written by Jessica Sertling Miller is entitled “Teaching French pronunciation with phonetics in a college-level beginner French course.” Miller’s article claims that using phonetics, i.e., the visual support of phonetic symbols and the description of how sounds are produced, is as efficient a strategy as others to teach French pronunciation in beginner classes, but has perhaps more merit as it addresses both aural and visual learning styles. To test that claim, qualitative and quantitative data were gathered from college students in pilot experiments exploring the effectiveness of two different teaching techniques: (1) the use phonetics, concurrently reinforcing
audio stimuli with the International Phonetic Alphabet; and (2) using reference words, i.e., words already familiar to learners, as reference points to compare and contrast sounds, thus establishing connections between spelling and sounds.

Paula B. Newbill and Brent D. Jones continue the discussion of French in their article, “Students’ motivations for studying French: Examining Undergraduates’ language orientations, expectancies, and values to promote advocacy.” Their study investigated undergraduate French students’ motivations for studying French and their intentions to continue studying French. The participants consisted of intermediate-level French students who enrolled in a college French course by choice. They used two different instruments to conduct the study: (1) to assess students’ language orientations, including Travel, Knowledge, Relationships, Instrumental, and Sociocultural; and (2) to measure students’ expectancies for success and values.

The fourth article, by Kristin Hoyt, is entitled “Developing intercultural competence via semi-directed cross-cultural interviews.” Hoyt developed an intermediate-level French conversation class module, Francophone Interviews, to advance university students’ oral language use and to foster their development of intercultural competence. This four-part module addresses student learning outcomes for the course, while solidly placed within the Five Cs framework. In addition, the module inspires communicative language use in a real-world context.

The upcoming NECTFL annual meeting is being held in Baltimore, MD, at the Baltimore Marriott Waterfront Hotel on April 20–23, 2012. Please read the letter on pages 4–5 from the Chair of the 2012 Conference, Jennie Steeley.

Cordially,

Robert M. Terry
Managing Editor
Guidelines for the 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 the field of teacher recruitment and retention and the originality of that contribution; the soundness of the research or theoretical base, its implications; 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 follow only the most recent APA [American Psychological Association] Guidelines. Please use the latest edition (6th ed., 2010) of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association as your guide. Most 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. 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.
   d. APA — http://www.apastyle.org/ — This is the very source...the APA, with all sorts of help and assistance.
   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:
   a. Use a PC- or Mac-compatible word-processing program, preferably Microsoft Word 2007 or a later version. 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 only when necessary; 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.

4. We require an abstract of your article.

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
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   vii. For joint authorship, indicate 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 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 web sites 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). Please include this paragraph on a separate page at the end of your 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 and your employer’s name
   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 length of manuscripts averages approximately 20-25 double-spaced pages, including notes, charts, and references. This does not mean that a slightly longer or shorter 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 following 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.
A Checklist for Manuscript Preparation

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

1. “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.
   a. Any portions of text in a foreign language must be followed immediately by an English translation in square brackets.
   b. 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.

2. Remember that with the APA guidelines, notes (footnotes or endnotes) are discouraged—such information is considered to be either important enough to be included in the article itself or not significant enough to be placed anywhere. If notes are necessary, however, they should be endnotes.
   a. 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 we prepare an article for eventual publication.
   b. Do not use automatic page numbering; such numbering is often difficult to remove from a manuscript and must be removed before the article is prepared for eventual publication.

3. Please double-space everything in your manuscript.

4. Use left justification only; do not use full justification anywhere in the article.

5. The required font throughout is either Times New Roman 12 pt. or Minion Pro 12 pt.

6. There should be only one space after each period, according to APA format.

7. 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).
   a. In listing items or in a series of words connected by and, but, or or, use a comma before the conjunction.
   b. When providing a list of items, use double parentheses surrounding the numbers or letters: (1), (2), or (3) or (a), (b), and (c).

8. All numbers above “nine” must appear as Arabic numerals [“nine school districts” vs. “10 textbooks”]; numbers below 10 must be written out.

9. 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.

10. Use standard postal abbreviations for states in all reference items [e.g., NC, IL, NY, MS], but not in the text itself.

11. 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 inch.

12. 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
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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.

13. 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.

14. 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.

15. 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.

16. 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”x 11” manuscript page will not usually fit on our journal pages.

17. Please makes certain that the components you submit are in the following order:
   a. First pag—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;
   b. First page of the manuscript—containing the title of the article and the abstract
   c. The text of the article
   d. Notes; References, Appendices—in this order
   e. The short, biographical paragraph (no more than 4-5 lines).

Robert M. Terry
Articles Editor and Managing Editor
NECTFL Review
rterry@richmond.edu

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.
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 you!

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Reflections on the combined World Language/English as a Second Language methods course: Perspectives, challenges, and prospects for our decade

Paul A. García, University of Kansas (retired)
Patricia Davis-Wiley, The University of Tennessee

“Which road do I take?” (Alice)
“Where do you want to go?” (Cat)
“I don’t know.” (Alice)
“Then, it doesn’t matter.” (Cat)

Abstract

This experientially and literature-based position paper considers the implications of a combined methods class for K-12 world language (WL) and English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher candidates. Such a course is typically one semester in duration, and is replete with unavoidable impracticalities. Inherent in most WL methods sections is the instructor’s challenge of how to address pedagogical issues that are applicable to all languages and those that are germane to the individual languages represented by the

Paul A. García (Ph.D., University of Illinois) began teaching in New York area schools in 1965. In (2008-2010), he served as Visiting Associate Professor of Foreign Language Education and Director of the Ph.D. program in Second Language Acquisition, Instructional Technology (SLA/IT) at the University of South Florida after his retirement from the University of Kansas School of Education. Prior to that he taught German and Spanish, K-12, and was the FL supervisor for the Kansas City, MO, Schools (1973-1998), where he implemented immersion language programs for French, German, and Spanish. He was President of ACTFL in 2000, NADSFL (1989-92), FLAM (1984-88), and ALL (1992-1995). His publications and over 100 conference presentations concern immersion education, listening comprehension, methods pedagogy, and general teacher education practice.

Patricia Davis-Wiley (Ed.D., University of Houston) is Professor of WL/ESL Education in the Department of Theory and Practice in Teacher Education at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. She is a former high school WL teacher, active conference keynoter and presenter in both WL and ESL Education, has research interests in the efficacy of early second language study, and is the new Editor of The TFLTA Journal.
enrollees, whose respective fields may include any combination of French, German, Russian, Chinese, Latin, and Spanish. Although the existence of such a linguistically-overloaded WL methods course may well be a budgetary necessity, we argue that the growing appearance of a combined WL and ESL methods section possesses sufficiently unique parameters that compel pragmatic reflection. All stakeholders must share a rationale that addresses multiple objectives. Course intent and content must be praxis-oriented to meet the pedagogical needs of preservice teachers as well as heed the K-12 community’s expectations for teacher preparation. In this paper, we offer recommendations that address this contemporary methods challenge.

Introduction

_Dauer im Wechsel_, the permanence of change, is an expression that students of German literature and culture come to learn. It is, of course, the reality that educators live, irrespective of their teaching assignment. The reason is simple: any given aspect of school exists in a state of continuous revision. Be it technology implementation, textbook usage, instructional practices, assessment, or classroom management decisions, successful teaching is akin to hitting a moving pedagogical target, continuously—and cinematic versions of master teachers in the classroom are wide of the mark (Raimo, Delvin-Scherer, & Zinicola, 2002). This permanent flux is understood by teacher trainers. In the world language (WL) teacher education arena, the complex dialectic presently includes two interrelated challenges for the next decade:

- The first is to shape the role and scope of the methods component for supporting WL teacher candidates, be they pre-service undergraduates/graduates or in-service professionals wanting to obtain additional certification. This challenge, which we have discussed elsewhere (García, Hernández & Davis-Wiley, 2010), will persist as a topic of concern as general teacher education undergoes continued reform (Levine, 2006).

- The second challenge delineating change in WL teacher education—the focus of our paper—is the necessary skill set and experience of WL methods faculty who assume greater responsibilities by preparing yet another sub-group of teacher education students in the same methods section: the beginning English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers for English language learners (ELs), that growing U.S. student population whose home language is not English.¹

The origin of the combined WL/ESL methods course may often be fiscal. Financial considerations may suggest to budget-conscious leadership the merits of offering a unitary language methods section. Enrollment and/or staffing circumstances may prevent separate methods classes from being the optimal option.² Other institutions may have traditionally offered one sequence (perhaps entitled “Teaching Language in the K-12 Schools”), irrespective of an acknowledged differentiation between teaching a WL and teaching ESL. Regardless of whether the inception of the combined course occurs by administrative decree (thus beyond the instructor’s control) or as a result of deliberate faculty conceptualization in light of local realities (such as a low
Reflections on the combined WL/ESOL methods course

student enrollment of K-12 WL education majors), the methods instructor’s critical task remains: how to deliver instruction to both WL and ESL audiences that meets appropriate pedagogical and professional standards in two disciplines. Should an ESL-only methods section not exist and the need for one arise—but whose inception is constrained somehow, then the combined WL/ESL methods class would at a minimum guarantee that pertinent state licensure requirements will have been met. This action would thereby ensure that future K-12 ELs have equitable access to a learning environment taught by qualified, credentialed teachers who have completed a methods sequence.

The genesis of combined methods courses may also be attributed in part to two contemporaneous national education phenomena. First, we continue to experience a surge in EL enrollment in K-12. This growth has occurred primarily over the past two decades. From an estimated 3.1 million students in 1990-1991 (Payán & Nettles, 2008), there are now approximately 5.4 million or more ELs enrolled in 55% of our nation’s 119,150 schools [Keigher (2009, p. 8); National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition (NCELA), 2010]. The raw numbers are compelling. The increase postulates a critical need for additional ESL teachers (and for supplementary professional development in language acquisition for all teachers) in the coming decade (Ballantyne, Sanderman & Levy, 2008). Second is a more complex factor: the numerical decrease of WL teacher candidates. This is a long-standing, well-documented dilemma (Miller, 2010) facing our globalized American society. Paralleling the overall school-age population growth nationally, the absolute numerical increase of enrollees in both traditionally taught and less-commonly taught languages reported by Jackson and Malone (2009) and Rhodes and Pufahl (2010) further exacerbates the WL teacher shortage. Simultaneously, we are witness to a sharp drop in existing K-12 WL teaching posts that is often the case in those communities where financial constraints and/or curricular decisions—some possibly related to No Child Left Behind, as Johnson, Malone, Peyton, Pufahl, and Rhodes (2009) suggest—have reduced the number of WL students and/or eliminated long-sequence programs of study.¹

Be they beginning professionals or experienced WL teachers seeking add-on endorsement in ESL or undergraduate dual majors (i.e., in ESL/French or Spanish/ESL), the pre-service and in-service educators interested in EL education will encounter a wide array of classroom-related instructional challenges. These result from the manifold aspects of teaching English to K-12 pupils whose requirements for promotion include mandatory, state-sponsored high-stakes assessments that offer few appropriate accommodations for language learners (Acosta, Rivera & Shafer Willner, 2008; Shafer Willner, Rivera, & Acosta, 2009). The future EL teachers’ pedagogical skill needs range from developing basic language acquisition activities (Graves, 2009) to teaching content in fields such as science and mathematics. Accordingly, they would employ a sheltered content instruction approach, which is defined as the use of teaching practices and materials adaptation to make grade-level content area learning linguistically accessible to pupils (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2007). Additionally, the methods course students
in ESL must become acquainted with phonology, morphology, pragmatics and syntax (Adger, Snow, & Christian, 2002). They learn how to present to the EL matters of word usage and grammar pattern choice (the linguistics term is *appropriacy*), discourse length expansion, and even the grouping together of certain words in a specific order (*collocations*, such as “God, motherhood, and apple pie;” “baby Swiss,” or “red, white, and blue”). In this way, the ESL teacher helps students develop aspects of English literacy, and provides insights and examples of how Americans express themselves (and what they mean) when they speak or write. The ESL methods students learn about teaching reading in content areas (Ballantyne et al., 2008)—itself an obligation not necessarily limited to future language teachers. Their logical expectation is that the WL methods professor, now serving as their ESL methods instructor, will address such concerns effectively. (This would also be the expectation of a WL methods student on vocabulary acquisition, for example, if an ESL instructor were to direct a combined ESL/WL methods class.)

The subtleties of each discipline’s particular knowledge base, and their applicability in the K-12 WL or ESL classroom, may well overwhelm the student enrolled in a WL/ESL methods class. Where the combined methods class may have once been a standard curriculum feature previously limited to smaller institutions, the growth in the incidence of the two-in-one ESL/WL methods course calls for reconsideration of course objectives—*intent*—and course materials—*content*. One cannot invoke past practices as a guide for future programmatic decision-making, given the pace of school population change and language interests in the K-12 sector. The combined WL/ESL methods class is a present reality facing contemporary and continuing challenges. We should reconceptualize this combined course, therefore, and then restructure it into a professional advancement model, whereupon it has its place within the larger context of teacher education.

As instructors of both WL and ESL and combined WL/ESL methods, with over 40 years of teaching and K-12 administrative experience (at five universities in three Midwestern and two southern states), we reflect on the generally-accepted aims of teaching and the requisite aspects of language learning methods for both WL and ESL teacher education candidates. These draw upon the pedagogically ideal and pragmatic bases that characterize successful schools that produce successful students. A principled framework for the combined WL/ESL methods course, we believe, helps education reform help to achieve the goals set for K-12 teaching and learning: highly-trained, qualified teachers; strong administrative leadership; extensive parental and community support; and a positive learning environment, as Marzano (2003) explains.

Awareness of these critical factors for school change is prerequisite for developing the language methods student’s knowledge, skills, and teaching disposition. It empowers future K-12 teachers to provide the WL or ESL student exemplary teaching for language and content area learning. The redesigned combined methods course thus affirms the broader concerns of education while it addresses the real issues inherent in
Reflections on the combined WL/ESOL methods course

a combined WL/ESOL methods course. We begin by situating the successful combined course as the product of five vectors:

- First and second are the two K-12 student populations (ESL and WL), and their respective program and academic requirements;
- Third, the career goals of K-12 WL or ESL teachers;
- Fourth and fifth are the expectations of each academic discipline, ESL and WL.

Their influence is shown through describing a combined WL/ESOL methods class, taken from real-life experiences; it displays the dichotomies in objectives of the ESL and the WL methods students. These five forces, we argue, create and sustain a tension whose differing but related objectives shape the methods course intent. The professional goal of what teaching language means to WL and ESL methods students—the fourth and fifth vectors—is illustrative here. The study of language as language is the traditional province of K-12 WL classes. WL teachers primarily teach students about languages, even when language programs embrace the Standards for foreign language learning in the 21st century (SFLL) [National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project (NSFLEP), 2006] and its advocacy for language to be learned as an avenue to various ends. The WL classroom teacher’s primary focus is on the language itself, and content is selected to show language use in context. The vocabulary, verbs, idioms and their usage are the chief focus of student activities, therefore, and are augmented by important aspects of the speakers’ culture.

The counterpoint to WL programs is subject-specific content area learning. This is nominally the domain of the ESL teacher in K-12, who, together with secondary school subject area colleagues—in biology, social studies, and math—must teach with, across, and through two disciplines: English language study and the respective content. The ESL teacher’s focus is split between teaching content and language—teaching content through the language. This objective—language as content and language in content—is more complex than those goals traditionally established for the K-12 WL classroom of language study as language. Although language immersion students do indeed learn language and content through content [Met (1991); García (1990; 2009)], their impact on broad issues in WL teacher education (and WL study) is minimal, because immersion, being offered in only 323 of the nation’s 98,000 schools [Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL), 2006; U.S. Dept. of Education, 2011] constitutes a very low percentage of learners nationally.

Through understanding the broader perspective of language and content (which does not contradict the objectives of varied learning goals that SFLL endorses), we can develop a joint WL/ESL methods experience that disperses the language/content.

\[The\ study\ of\ language\ as\ language\ is\ the\ traditional\ province\ of\ K-12\ WL\ classes.\ [...]\]
\[The\ WL\ classroom\ teacher’s\ primary\ focus\ is\ on\ the\ language\ itself,\ and\ content\ is\ selected\ to\ show\ language\ use\ in\ context.\]

\[The\ counterpoint\ to\ WL\ programs\ is\ subject-specific\ content\ area\ learning.\ This\ is\ nominally\ the\ domain\ of\ the\ ESL\ teacher\ in\ K-12,\ who,\ together\ with\ secondary\ school\ subject\ area\ colleagues—in\ biology,\ social\ studies,\ and\ math—must\ teach\ with,\ across,\ and\ through\ two\ disciplines:\ English\ language\ study\ and\ the\ respective\ content.\]
tension as simultaneously it resolves potential discipline-related disparities. Reviewing relevant research literature contributes to establishing the necessary course guidelines.

**Review of the Literature**

Despite the abundant research regarding teacher education in general and EL and WL education in particular, there is a dearth of published discussion treating either the combined WL/ESL methods course or its origins. No prior literature exists that illuminates the two essential aspects of instructional decision-making—the course *intent* (the instructor’s consideration of the objectives of language teacher education) and its *content* (course information). As already mentioned, the former (instructor intent) may not have played a role in its inception. An overview of individual ESL and WL methods topics, however, serves to address the latter.

Except for the critical additions of SFLL and ESL standards [Pre K-12 English Language Proficiency Standards (2006), developed by Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)] and approaches to communicative language teaching, we contend that course content for ESL and WL teacher candidates may not have undergone extensive change as the standards and communicative language teaching might suggest. Support demonstrating this stasis is seen when we compare Grosse’s two empirical studies (1991, 1993) with the findings of subsequent research. Grosse provides a meta-analysis describing the topics pertinent to second language methods instruction during the 1980s and 1990s. Her investigation represents the most extensive formulations of course content available. Grosse sought to identify a common core of goals and objectives for ESL and WL methods courses. Syllabi were examined in the two studies to determine course content and the amount of class time dedicated to each topic. In the first study, Grosse (1991) invited 120 teacher preparation institutions to participate. She received 94 responses, consisting of 55 ESL course syllabi and 77 questionnaires completed by ESL methods instructors. Her second report (1993) analyzed 157 WL methods course syllabi, drawn from 144 post-secondary institutions. It presented a side-by-side comparison of content and percentages of time spent for ESL and WL course topics. Included among these were the following: the importance of language study; first and second language acquisition principles; the relationships between language and culture; meeting students’ diverse learning styles; planning increased instructional objectives; and classroom activities. These topics retain their value for future teachers. As such, they continue to be part of contemporary language methods syllabi. In her concluding recommendations for future discussion, Grosse (1993) suggested that instructors address the following issues for language methods content; their abiding presence and relevance two decades later is noteworthy: “…development of the teacher as decision-maker and problem solver…empowerment of the teacher through professionalization….development of metacognitive awareness in effective teaching” (p. 42), and “reflective teaching” (p. 43).

While the WL and the ESL methods syllabi she reviewed had collectively addressed a similar set of content topics overall (see Appendix A), Grosse (1993) found
Reflections on the combined WL/ESOL methods course

meaningful differences, especially in the amount of class time that methods instructors in both fields reported dedicating to specific themes. The WL syllabi (Grosse, 1993) ranked culture, testing, and methods as the top three topics for methods class discussion, compared with methods, language learning theories, and writing as most important for ESL. Oral proficiency and lesson planning occupied the next two rank positions for WL, in contrast with reading, speaking, and grammar for ESL. Occupying the least important position for both method class groups were student motivation and professional attitudes or behaviors. Grosse’s (1993) rank-ordered lists for methods class content further reveal that the importance (i.e., the amount of class time spent) attached to writing, reading, speaking, and pronunciation skills in ESL methods classes by instructors was greater than that given to the receptive listening skill. WL methods instructors, however, ranked writing and listening skills higher than reading and pronunciation. Finally, Grosse makes no mention of an immersion or dual immersion model in either methods sequence; only a minimal amount of teaching time for the general concept of bilingual education was listed.

Contemporaneous with and subsequent to Grosse’s seminal research, other WL education scholars provided additional insights about critical issues facing teacher educators. The methods program itself was one such concern, as echoed later by Vélez-Rendón (2002), who cited it as one of five pressing challenges for teacher educators. Lange and Sims (1990) and Cooper (2004) reported related concerns. The former surveyed 95 teachers regarding their professional preparation and experiences. One of the findings pertinent to the topic of content to be covered in methods courses was their respondents’ endorsement of future pre-service programs providing time to discuss classroom management. Cooper’s (2004) larger survey of 341 teachers in K-12 reaffirmed the call for including practical classroom matters. Furthermore, his respondents urged that strong mentor relationships be established, which was consistent with results reported by García and Petri (1999, ACTFL; 2000) and Schulz (2000) in her comprehensive review of WL teacher education literature from 1917-2000.

Raymond (2002), in an examination of how teachers’ understandings were influenced by the methods sequence and field experiences, demonstrated that WL education majors did indeed gain knowledge about how to teach from their methods course. At the same time, she highlighted their concerns in implementing the new knowledge when circumstances in the practicum assignments did not permit the pre-service students the opportunity to practice what they had learned. This is a significant difficulty when we consider the consensus regarding K-12 students’ target language use, as Allen (2002) determined from her nationwide survey on the implementation of SFL. She found that there was general agreement that students must communicate in the WL, just as Grosse (1993) had earlier concluded when ranking proficiency as an essential topic for WL methods classes, and speaking and pronunciation for ESL methods.

More recently, and similar to Grosse’s earlier work, Wilbur (2007) sought to identify a set of WL methods course goals through an examination of syllabi at 32 universities. She ascertained that action research and reflective practice (Freeman, 2002; Freeman &
Johnson, 1998) were not always a part of WL or ESL course objectives, just as Grosse (1991, 1993) had previously determined that the use of the WL in the classroom and addressing the needs of diverse learners were not present in the syllabi. Taken together, the work of these two researchers seems to document a de facto consensus regarding appropriate topics for inclusion in methods course syllabi—thereby affirming the continuing validity of Grosse’s recommendations. They also call to mind Schulz’ (2000) observation that the field has maintained—and still not resolved—the same teacher education concerns for more than 80 years.

The consistency of methods topics persists, therefore, despite the addition of contemporary teaching approaches and standards to the teacher education curricula. It complicates the conceptualization of a combined WL/ESL methods course that would possess applicable or uniform content. That a national language teacher education curriculum could be developed for individual WL and ESL or combined WL/ESL methods content may be an elusive quest. Its organizational underpinnings provide valuable guidance to a resolution, however. We suggest that the basis of a default standardized methods class curriculum found for WL and ESL education has been produced. The three extant factors or operant conditions in methods practices that have contributed to this content consistency are:

- Dependence on individual methods instructors’ interpretation of what is important for course coverage, and what is needed for that university’s surrounding communities;
- Methods textbooks (Hernández, 1996; Horwitz, 2008; Lee and VanPatten, 2003; Omaggio Hadley, 2001; Shrum and Glisan, 2010), whose availability and respective topics influence instructors’ decision-making regarding syllabi; and,
- Endeavors made in the last decade by teacher educators to align methods and other course content with guidelines of professional education groups for program recognition, such as the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC, 2002) and, most importantly, the WL and ESL teacher preparation program standards developed by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) in cooperation with the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL; ACTFL/NCATE, 2002) and Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL/NCATE, 2010).

The first two and additional factors that shape a local WL or ESL methods sequence may not necessarily extend beyond its respective service area or state. The third, the NCATE program standards (PS), however, do. Their impact on language teacher education programs seeking recognition (and subsequent state accreditation) has begun to be felt nationally (Dhonau & McAlpine, 2005; García, Hernández & Davis-Wiley, 2010), precisely because program standards connect course content to course intent. At a minimum, course intent for a combined ESL/WL methods class requires
Reflections on the combined WL/ESOL methods course

Table 1. ACTFL Standards Compared With TESOL Standards for Teacher Preparation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ACTFL Standards</th>
<th>TESOL Standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Language, Linguistics And Comparisons: Second Language (L2) Proficiency; L2 Language Systems; Comparisons Of English With L2s; L2 Communication Skills</td>
<td>Language As A System, Language Acquisition And Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Cultures, literatures, cross-disciplinary concepts; L2 distinctive views and practices; integration of other disciplines vis-à-vis L2</td>
<td>Culture and its impact on student learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Language acquisition theories and instructional practices; use of L2 in meaningful interaction</td>
<td>Planning, implementing and managing instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Integration of standards into curriculum and instruction; lesson and unit planning and use of appropriate resources; connecting L2 with other disciplines</td>
<td>Assessment: issues for ELs; language proficiency; classroom-based; local, state and federal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Assessment of languages and cultures; appropriate age and L2 level assessment; reflection and reporting of formative and summative student performance results</td>
<td>Professionalism: ESL research, history; professional development; partnerships; advocacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Professionalism: professional development; strengthening of L2 linguistic and cultural competence; reflection of one's practice in the profession; interaction with professional organizations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

consideration of the PS. This is because each document describes the essential practical knowledge base for the respective training program [NCATE uses specialty program (SP)], and thus for pre-service teachers. Although similarities exist between the WL and the ESL PS, as we show in Table 1 above, their discipline-related specificity clarifies the contrasts. These differentiated expectations for WL and ESL teacher candidates arise in part in the portfolio documentation that the teacher education program or unit submits to NCATE as evidence of its adherence to the PS. These considerations aid in constructing a framework to establish our recommendations for the combined methods course, and serve as a point of departure for others in WL or ESL teacher education who undertake the development of either a unitary or combined methods course. The PS mandate obligatory reflections on course content and course intent.6

As can be seen, matters of intent drive matters of content, and vice-versa. Congruencies and differences exist. Both sets of standards, for example, call for the study of language as a unified system that includes grammar, syntax, semantics, phonology, and morphology. Language acquisition is integrated into K-12 content or discipline areas (WL immersion and partial immersion programs and ESL education...
in general). For WL education, the pre-service candidate's oral skills attainment is a feature that speaks directly to quality concerns. The expected achievement benchmark standard of Advanced-Low on the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI; Breiner-Sanders, Lowe, Miles, & Swender, 2000) or level check serves to evaluate a SP’s ability to prepare qualified K-12 teachers, just as the ACTFL Learner Guidelines (Swender & Duncan, 1998) are a means to evaluate K-12 students' language achievement. The same holds for ESL teacher education (TESOL, 2006). Similarly, for WL and ESL teacher candidates, structured lesson planning or the creation of learning units is a customary assignment. Teacher professionalism is also a critical feature for each, and so continuing education—such as the WL teacher improving his or her oral proficiency and cultural knowledge, or the ESL teacher developing new classroom instruction techniques—is stressed as well. Teacher education standards in both the broader and specific contexts thus play a direct role for the combined WL/ESL methods course.

Teaching Matters

Education researchers have analyzed the critical components of successful K-12 schools and their programs (Ancess, 2003; Clark, 1988; Levine, 2006; Meier, 1995; National Capital Language Resource Center (NCLRC), n.d.; Sizer, 1984, 1996; Walqui, 2000; Weinbaum, Allen, Blythe, Seidel, Simon, & Rubin, 2004; Wong-Fillmore, 1985). Their reflections are directly related to pre-service and in-service training for ESL and WL as well. The evidence-based consensus reached by these investigators suggests that key to high-quality teacher induction is its direct coordination with the goals of successful K-12 student achievement. We identify five characteristics of this fundamental tenet:

- Suitably rigorous academic challenges are for all—all students can learn.
- Active and collaborative student/student learning is essential.
- Teacher/student interactions foster thinking skills usage over yes/no responses.
- Enriching in-class and co-curricular educational experiences are foremost.
- Supportive community environments must exist.

Developing an exemplary WL/ESL methods experience means examining the patterns that undergird the methods program's content and intent, and aligning them with the relevant academic goals for K-12 WL and ESL students. Table 2 presents our summary of the heterogeneous attributes of the populations for whom future WL and ESL teachers in K-12 will design, plan, and implement curricular objectives.

In reviewing methods course syllabi to determine appropriate content for WL and ESL teacher candidates whose professional assignments derive from the features of Table 2, a neutral observer might erroneously presume that a static language methods student cohort might exist. It probably never did, although some WL and ESL methods syllabi or course descriptors, if considered in isolation, might cause their readers to conclude that the two methods student groups, WL and ESL, are embarked on career paths that will lead them to very similar future teaching assignments. Our experience and conversations with other methods instructors indicates otherwise. There is—and has been—no methods cohort whose needs are congruent. Today’s language education majors enter the methods class with divergent career aspirations in mind;
### Reflections on the combined WL/ESOL methods course

**Table 2. Comparison of the English Learner With the World Language Learner, K-12**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Learners</th>
<th>World Language Learners</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attendance at school is compulsory</td>
<td>WL study is elective; mostly offered at Gr. 9-12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple grade entry points are necessary</td>
<td>Fixed or controlled entry points prevail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple calendar entries are necessary</td>
<td>Fixed or controlled entry points prevail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High transient rate of students</td>
<td>Low transient rate expected; stable cohort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2 (English) required for life in the US</td>
<td>English is Ss’ L1; L2 not required for US</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1 knowledge perceived as deficit by some</td>
<td>L2 education seen as a desideratum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2 education perceived as deficit education</td>
<td>L2 desirable, no career disadvantage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diverse learner styles affirmed; interest in using language learning strategies, focus on higher order thinking skills in evidence</td>
<td>Diverse learner styles affirmed; language learning strategies employed; higher-order thinking skills usage is less evident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culturally, socio-economically and residentially isolated</td>
<td>Mainstream US citizenry, fewer minorities enroll in some areas of a high school’s curricular offerings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1 literacy may not exist</td>
<td>L1 literacy exists for the majority of students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drop-out risk at the high school level is high</td>
<td>Course withdrawal after 2 years is frequent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affirming parental or home support for learning exists, but is in L1; the lack of parental L2 skills may not often permit personal tutoring of the child or provide access to others to request assistance</td>
<td>Parental support for learning exists, but is different from the support found in EL families, due to the mainstream social, economic, and residential environments and traditions of American schooling that most WL students share</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning must include L2 acquisition and content area learning on or near grade-level</td>
<td>Usually, language is taught as a series of forms and functions; aspects of structure and grammar prevail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content/subject matter learning important because of promotion and high-stakes testing in various subjects at various grade levels</td>
<td>The WL is studied, work is not necessarily content-dependent, as in the case of an EL studying biology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High-stakes testing is mandatory</td>
<td>WL study not yet a high-stakes testing subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum objectives are in a continual “catch-up” mode, and/or based on state requirements that often are insufficiently undifferentiated for ELs except by statutory accommodation; student-student interactions heavily relied upon, esp. in K-8. Skills-getting and skills-using are well-balanced</td>
<td>Curriculum is either wholly teacher-created (infrequently), textbook-mediated, and standards-driven. WL program may be sequential or articulated. Student-student interaction or activities are infrequent in teacher-fronted or teacher–directed lessons. Skills-using activities often predominate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner/teacher strategies are prevalent</td>
<td>Learner/teacher strategies are prevalent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
more likely, the students enroll already conscious of vocational preferences. These professional aspirations may range from level uncertain to quite specific teaching and/or geographical preferences. The ESL methods student who has enrolled for the combined WL/ESL methods class, for example, may be an elementary education major whose graduation requirements include coursework and demonstrable proficiency in teaching the basic content areas of reading, mathematics, and science. Another registered student, a social science major, may contemplate teaching English learners to improve future employment prospects, and is willing even to teach non-English speaking adults abroad. Still another enrollee announces that she is a licensed veteran high school French/German teacher now opting to work with adult ELs. For the present, however, she is willing to consider teaching ELs at a middle school. Yet another student hopes to become an elementary school teacher in a Spanish immersion program. Their respective needs are substantial—and significantly different, which consequently dictates adjustments to class objectives, activities, and assignments—content and intent—by the WL/ESL methods instructor. We argue that such accommodations are necessary, despite affirming the contributions that are produced by the methods students’ particular practicum or previous teaching experiences and the completion of other education coursework. Their heterogeneous interests—and their future students’ language skills and needs—must be taken into account during course planning. We use Table 3 on the next page to illustrate the divergent potential WL and ESL teaching paths that the combined WL/ESL methods class students may embark upon.

Despite the lengthy enumeration of the many available career options in Table 3 on the next page, they remain the methods instructor’s starting point in decision-making. Equally clear is the corollary that we prepare for the methods cohorts’ divergent professional intentions (and their future students’ academic needs in K-12) by situating the combined WL/ESL methods course in the larger institutional context of the teacher preparation program. A responsible marriage of language education objectives (i.e., communicative skills and conversational gambits, listening comprehension activities, content-based instruction, cultural knowledge, and the manner or presentation of appropriate vocabulary are among them) with present and impending classroom
realities such as grade level, type of teaching assignment, and location is vital in order to accommodate the complexities of ESL majors enrolled in a WL methods section.

Table 3. Potential WL and ESL Teaching Career Options

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>World Language Educator</th>
<th>English Learner Educator</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Uncertain</td>
<td>1. Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 6-8 Middle School Language</td>
<td>3. Pull-out/Cluster/Center, 6-8 ESL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Immersion, K-8</td>
<td>5. Sheltered Content, K-12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Post-secondary teaching, research</td>
<td>7. Adult ESL education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Heritage/Native speaker teaching</td>
<td>8. English as a Foreign Language (abroad)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The profiles that emerge from this formulation are similar in their respective—and dissimilar—demographics. The preparatory experiences of each methods class student, including the related previous coursework, practicum experiences, and employment history, indicate that course presentation and the content the methods instructor conveys in the combined section are affected. Contrastive skill levels and educational career objectives, that is, require that we individualize the methods sequence for its participants even as we seek to produce cohesion for them. Does the ESL methods instructor work with the future adult learner educator about a “Business English” format and related vocabulary in a perfunctory manner, for example, or should K-12 students’ writing and reading skills be addressed in comprehensive detail? No such binary choice benefits both groups of methods students, unless the two distinctive topics can be purposefully and successfully coalesced—in this case, through demonstrating how sheltered instructional techniques are applicable to both ESL and WL teacher candidates’ concerns.

Such experiences are precisely the challenge encountered by the WL methods course instructor. This underlying predication of variety with the ESL education-only methods students (dual immersion, adult education, English as a foreign language) is mirrored within the WL education-only methods section. One WL teacher candidate may be the traditional 20-22 year-old collegian, a non-native speaker intending to teach high school French, Spanish, or German. Two other enrollees are an empty-nester and a recently-retired member of the U.S. armed forces; they are native or heritage speakers of Spanish. The fourth student, just arrived in the United States a week before, is a teacher from Belgium. She has been contracted for a Kindergarten teaching position in a French immersion school, and is not knowledgeable of American education’s operational codes and systems. And so, in keeping with the desire to individualize instruction, the methods instructor makes decisions that address this diverse pre-

Each vignette (all taken from our own recent methods courses) raises two fundamental questions for our future endeavors as methods instructors. The first, “Why would we even consider how to combine these so disparate student populations that even within their own cohort they are so divergent?” has already been considered: either the methods instructor in ESL or WL may be or has been the only available recourse and resource for all language educators at a certain institution, or, if the budget requires that there be a combined section, then the matter is moot. The second question is at the root of our concern. Its challenges are equally real-world but more confounding: “How, if we have ‘seen this and done this’ before, and are obliged to do so once again, can we do this yet again—but better?” The answers to these two queries address the needs of our methods students’ future K-12 students. To illustrate the web of variegated teacher skill sets and pedagogical suggestions that the ESL and WL cohorts require of their methods instructor, we present two conditions, each drawn from the K-12 classroom teacher’s perspective. First is the matter of entry points into a program. The second, appearing in tandem, is that of curricular content objectives.

For the K-12 WL teacher, there is normally little late enrollment in a language class. Except for the occasional child whose family circumstances dictates a move that could not be completed or delayed until the beginning of either the fall or the spring semester, late-entry WL class registration is infrequent. Consequently, other than perhaps some in-class peer tutoring or after-school help sessions, there is often little curriculum adaptation or revamping of activities to help the student achieve comparably with classmates. The typical new arrival may be an inter-district or intra-district transfer student. Despite language issues brought about by differences in textbooks, the K-12 student begins to acquire new WL vocabulary and structures within a reasonable time frame because of his or her background knowledge and reading and thinking skills. In addition, investigators have found that the knowledge of how secondary schools work helps. The school’s structures, cultures, and routines become predictable to most students within a brief period. They come to know what the teacher expects during class time, and operate accordingly (Cushman, 2003, 2005; Goldwasser & Bach, 2007; Wilson & Corbett, 2001).

Contrastively, for the ESL teacher, the matter of a child’s date of entry is not necessarily determined by the K-12 school year calendar or holiday periods. Instead, the EL may enroll whenever family economic needs have necessitated a move. The student may also be absent for an extended period of a month or more, depending upon family illness/caregiver responsibilities, an emergency trip abroad, or migrant work opportunities outside of the home area. It is important for the methods instructor to devote course time in assisting the ESL teacher candidate in how to deal with the educational consequences of the realities of EL transience. Assume, further, that the future teacher will have the contractual responsibility of a pull-out assignment
Reflections on the combined WL/ESOL methods course

(the child is excused, or pulled out, from one subject daily in order to attend the ESL classroom for a period). The teacher may work with a number of children simultaneously—potentially up to 10 to 15 or even more pupils per class. Each EL possesses limited skills and knowledge in English and academic content areas. The students then must compete with one another for the teacher's assistance in a 45-90 minute time frame regarding discrete assignments, sometimes about topics that the teacher is not familiar with. Simple arithmetic tells us that the minutes available for any one child are but few. The challenge here for the methods instructor is to assist the ESL teacher candidate working under such constraints to develop the requisite skills to work with tasks that are further compounded by another complication. That difficulty is the need to accommodate the students’ varying levels of English, which can range from pre-emergent to early production to an intermediate stage [Haynes (1995; 2007), Peregoy and Boyle (2005), Ariza, Morales-Jones, Yahya, & Zainuddin (2010)].

To be sure, the combined WL/ESL methods class should not offer its students generalities. Practical, tangible, and relevant models and practices are required. As noted, the methods class does not exist in a vacuum. Rather, it thrives within the context of related academic courses purposely designed to facilitate and support pre-service educators across a broad spectrum. Classes on general methods, student behaviors, and multicultural perspectives, when combined with multiple practicum or field opportunities, afford the methods students much-needed learning experiences. Nevertheless, the language methods course and its instructor's experience and knowledge base become the juncture in teacher preparation when the methods student begins to develop a subject-matter consciousness as a (pre-service) professional. That awareness means, we believe, a sustained series of activities that require increased instructor expertise and the facilitation of observing teaching practices directly related to the methods students concerns for teaching ESL or WL. These last could be accomplished in part by critical viewing of the WGBH Educational Foundation series, Teaching Foreign Languages, K-12 (2003), visiting area schools, working with ELs, and participating in group discussions with local K-12 instructional personnel, for example. Thompson's (2000) survey of ELs’ perspectives on strategies that helped them learn can motivate methods students to determine their continuing validity, for instance. They might develop an action research project regarding Wong-Fillmore's (1985) recommendations for teacher-driven classroom language and behavior routines or review the application of listening comprehension activities for language learning (Asher, 1966, 1969; García, 1981; Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Reeds, Winitz, & García, 1977; Winitz, 1981; Winitz & Reeds, 1975)—all of which thus introduce the methods students to education research as a basis for successful teaching. These descriptive possibilities, when taken as part for the whole and operationalized within the greater framework, lead to our recommendations for the combined WL/ESL methods class.
Recommendations

Prospects seem to have improved of late that traditional language methods programs will continue to change for the better (Cummings Hlas & Conroy, 2010; García, Hernández, & Davis-Wiley, 2010). Contributing to this recent progress is the importance that instructors and WL/ESL teacher candidates now attach to fostering active K-12 learning environments. In such classes, the students become engaged in relevant, challenging assignments as the teacher ensures and employs multiple connections to the pupils’ background and academic schemata. Walqui (2000) promotes this classroom context. In developing her argument from research on effective learning for ELs, she analyzes instructional strategies for teachers of immigrant students, from which she posits 10 criteria; we believe these principles are equally relevant for WL teachers:

- Students in class are considered a community of collaborating learners.
- Themes relevant to student curiosity are a mainstay of curricular planning.
- Involving students’ backgrounds as an anchor is important.
- Previously-learned concepts are connected to new learning challenges.
- Appropriate context and subject matter presentation promote achievement.
- Explicit teaching of learner strategies is necessary for growth in critical skills.
- Tasks and assignments should engage the student in exploring the why.
- Interactive classroom activities predominate.
- Lessons should be applicable to the students’ lives.
- Assessment activities/instruments are authentic and meaningful.

Walqui’s advice regarding the implementation of teaching approaches can be supported by teachers in all discipline areas, not just ESL or WL. In K-12 classrooms, students co-invent knowledge. They respond to one another and their instructor through their classroom tasks. Performance or project activities are featured in the (K-12) teacher’s lesson or unit planning. Such a strategic approach emphasizes student-teacher and student-student conversations, pair and group work, and the conscious acquisition and sophisticated use of critical higher-order thinking skills (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Cohen, 1992), all of which techniques are essential for methods students to acquire and practice.

These aspects of classroom practices are correspondingly valid for characterizing either a successful Grade Two ESL lesson on apples—where readings about Johnny Appleseed and the growth cycle of plants are discussed as well as arithmetic problems on acreage measurements and orchard yields—or for secondary school WL students learning language and geography.

Two of the first author’s WL methods students developed just such a model to meet the challenge of appropriate context and learning environment, as Walqui (2000) advocates. Purposefully aligning their ideas for teaching activities with the goals of SFLL, they created a thematic unit for an envisioned second-year high school French class. Their unit, Aidons-nous Haïti, covered more than that nation’s geological, cultural, and geographical profile; it also explored comparative topographical references and connections to the U.S. San Andreas and New Madrid fault lines. The Level Two
Reflections on the combined WL/ESOL methods course

French students would collaborate in their use of video clips, audio files, and primary print source materials in order to devise rubric-driven readings (brochures, posters, ads) and speaking opportunities (school public service announcements, club projects, PowerPoint or Flash presentations) as a means to persuade the school community that helping Haitian earthquake victims is a worthwhile volunteer enterprise. Their work also would prepare the students to respond to potential local calamities, whether or not their immediate region is designated as severe or moderate on seismic hazard activity maps or located in a tornado zone. The power of contextualization and scaffolded instruction through suitable thematic topics thus encourages the K-12 learner to grow intellectually and linguistically as he or she explores backwards in history and projects forward into the future. Based on contemporary subject matter as Beane (1997), Curtain & Haas (1995), and Freeman and Freeman (2000) argue for, the thematic unit assignment for methods course students working in small groups can provide interrelated subject content and language-building activities that align well with K-12 EL instructional goals and the SFLL.

We contend that the successful evolution of language methods programming, whether combined WL/ESL or stand-alone, is nurtured by WL and ESL methods students themselves. Their experimentation in developing a curricular unit similar to the Haiti example promotes methods students' career growth while simultaneously giving validity and relevance to the methods course overall. Operationalizing the SFLL and its goals thus becomes a primary vehicle for improving methods instruction. Class activities emphasize practical applications for subsequent action research and implementation. Another valuable practice for methods students would be to devise task-based instructional examples, as Lee (2000) urges: these activities aim to increase K-12 student language proficiency. A related component for methods instructors to develop would be fostering technology implementation projects that simultaneously employ task-based learning and channel K-12 students' independent learning through the Internet and other electronic media. Approaches that contextualize or extend methods program activities into subject matter areas such as the social sciences advance teaching and learning. Finally, as methods instructors, we assist our students in realizing that not all of their future K-12 students will be motivated or “ideal” learners. Student progress in language will not be as rapid as their teachers’ plans, materials, presentations, and techniques seek to promote. The WL student will not advance in an unbroken manner, for example, on the ACTFL oral proficiency index scale (OPI; Breinder-Sanders, Lowe, Miles, & Swender, 2000). Regressions in the learning curve occur, and thus thwart the teacher’s expectations of seeing continuous student progress.

Methods courses do not and cannot thrive outside of their educational training context. Neither do recommendations for change exist in a vacuum. They must be understood as interdependent constituents within general teacher education reform, and require the support of education stakeholders.
outside our discipline. Our recommendations must address, first, several overarching
demands that our nation's evolving educational and social phenomena have produced.
These forces affect reform in general and language teacher issues in particular. They
provide a basis for combined WL/ESL methods education if we affirm our role and
responsibilities within the broader K-12 and teacher education panoramas. The
development of a strong combined WL/ESL methods course encompasses four
impediments to be overcome:

- Student enrollments and staffing shortages in specific academic and/or
geographic areas together with budgetary crises influence the frequency of
methods course offerings in the academic calendar. This condition must change.
It is the responsibility of educators and the general public to do so through
appropriate advocacy and legislation.

- Professional standards for accreditation or recognition include student
assessment and achievement measures, which thereupon influence methods
course content. This standard must be adhered to from the twin perspectives
of language and pedagogy. K-12 WL and ESL teachers must become expert in
their respective subject areas and demonstrate excellent teaching skills.

- The methods program, whose traditional 3-credit hour allocation is arguably
perceived universally as insufficient by all WL and ESL methods instructors to
permit the inclusion of all the requisite information desired by its stakeholders,
will continue to vie with other pre-service courses for more class time. This
will change when the inevitable realities of inadequate teacher induction force
that credit-hour increase (Darling-Hammond, 2000). Compelled to feature
too many topics in cursory fashion, therefore, and combined or not, the
methods class is regarded as having become a general survey more than the
explicit how to teach experience—which the language methods student will
retrospectively deem as having been essential but unfulfilled. In an effort to
ameliorate the complexities of the combined methods course, the instructor’s
consideration of reflections by former combined WL/ESL methods students
is useful. Their opinions may well provide evidence to validate earlier research
findings as well as detect recent, newer challenges.

- The methods instructor’s personal K-12 teaching experience and knowledge
of contemporary school practices are factors in how the students’ needs for
pedagogical insights and direction are approached. The methods instructor’s
background must be broadened, as we have proposed elsewhere (García,
Hernández & Davis-Wiley, 2010).

Despite the gravity of these and other local barriers, their existence implies that a
quality combined WL/ESL methods program for tomorrow’s teachers can nevertheless
be created. We must understand the concerns of contemporary teacher induction, that
is, while adhering to the greater aims of education in a democratic society. We do so
by creating a praxis-oriented induction model for future combined ESL/WL methods
courses that is predicated on 10 recommendations.

They are research-based propositions that are melded with both general calls
for teacher education reform and our own methods class experiences regarding ESL
Reflections on the combined WL/ESOL methods course

and WL methods class practices. Formulating an appropriately combined ESL/WL methods course, that is, cannot occur without making use of other, extant components of teacher education. Some of our recommendations are new; others are not. It is their totality, not the matter of their novelty, which addresses the broader aspects of K-12 reform and satisfies the discipline-specific needs of WL and ESL teacher preparation. The 10 recommendations follow:

1. Develop a base of six to eight theoretical and practical similarities that the WL or ESL methods class participants' content fields have in common. These then serve as the conceptual course framework, or course intent. Much as the characteristics comparisons of Table 1, these topics, when fused with related activities outside of class and other teacher preparation courses, will provide the WL/ESL methods students a focused experience. Critical themes that are essential for inclusion and expansion in methods curricula are: the national standards and their application to classroom practice; communicative acts and their implementation; cultural differences and practices; learner motivation and learning strategies; model teaching; thematic lesson/unit planning; teaching reading for meaning; and technology.

2. Maintain the focus of the methods experience on EL/WL K-12 student learner outcomes. This is to be accomplished through interactive, communicative, and appropriate technology-supported pedagogy. Part of the similarities between ESL and WL includes charting the progress of all K-12 student language learners to focus on the development of higher order thinking skills. We meet this objective through measurable and authentic performance-based output that showcases student creativity rather than having the student complete textbook end-of-chapter questions, for example, or respond to short-answer tests.

3. Apply research findings on best practices that simultaneously promote K-12 student motivation and learning. It is important for WL/ESL methods students to examine, experiment, and learn how to motivate their K-12 students, as Hernández (2006, 2008, 2010) has demonstrated. The field of listening comprehension is a pertinent example, in that it addresses both learning and motivation. Methods class time that is dedicated to developing comprehension strategies for the classroom results in teaching and learning activities that advance motivation. Success begets continued success.

4. Develop class activities for methods students that assist the future ESL/WL teacher in creating contextually rich thematic units that promote language usage that is anchored to visual, physical real-world activities. The application of theory to classroom practice also engenders a need for the methods to feature content-based learning as vocabulary builders. Socially or biographically rooted language (i.e., greetings, asking for information, rejoinders, games, riddles) should be woven together through appropriate realia, and adapted for classroom use into simple and abstract academic content area topics. K-12 students studying the solar system, for example, could design a small scale model of the planets and asteroids from knitting yarn and different size spheres, use previously learned vocabulary (from a geography unit, for
instance) to present the sizes and relative proximity of the planets and their orbits in a game or riddle format. The use of comparatives and superlatives in the language thus becomes an interdisciplinary vehicle for science learning that is content-based (Stryker & Leaver, 1997).

5. Promote the appropriate conditions for quality field opportunities in both ESL and WL. Augment them with multiple approaches in the contexts of service learning experiences, debriefings between the instructor and the methods students (Bouillion & Gomez, 2001; Springer & Collins, 2008), and focused exchanges between the latter with diverse stakeholders in K-12 education. This means that the methods instructor facilitates initiatives that benefit his or her students within and beyond the formal course setting. Pertinent examples would be: to aid in refining the criteria used to select cooperating K-12 ESL/WL teachers for the practicum experience; expanding connections to local ethnic, cultural or professional organizations; arranging for invitations to in-service teachers to present activities to the methods class students, interviewing recent graduates who now teach K-12 ESL or WL students. Each of these activities reinforces the need for language methods students to understand first-hand that being part of the greater education community in which he/she will teach is an indispensable facet of their own future teaching role.

6. Implement sheltered content area instruction as an approach for WL/ESL methods students to employ. Structured to meet the linguistic and age-appropriate developmental needs of second language learners (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2007), this model of teaching WL or ESL through integrating language into subject matter content should be a fundamental course component prior to and during the methods students’ observation and co-teaching opportunities, and thus benefits their respective future teaching assignments.

7. Utilize class time (approximately 6-9 hours) to explicate the role that performance measurement instruments play for K-12 EL students’ achievement, their teachers, and their schools. By providing sample activities for analysis and review, show how high-stakes testing for ELs (Echevarria, Short, & Powers, 2006) differs from traditional WL evaluation activities in quality, extent, and consequences. This means that the methods students’ reflections on ESL and WL assessment should involve experiences, data, and information about test preparation to be gleaned from interviews with appropriate post-secondary faculty, administrators representing K-12 schools, and visits or observations of students and teachers. The teacher candidate thereby conceptualizes K-12 achievement as substantive and relevant to our times—and a professional characteristic for which the methods student—soon to become-educator—assumes a responsible role. The methods instructor provides the combined methods students with insights into a critical component of K-12 education that helps in the understanding of this abiding concern and its ramifications for the K-12 schools.

8. Develop class activities that demonstrate to ESL and WL methods students the importance of teaching their future students how the K-12 students
Reflections on the combined WL/ESOL methods course

themselves can increase their repertoire of learning techniques. Highlighting successful language learning strategies contributes to the pupils’ preparation for learning in other disciplines, as Oxford (1990) illustrates. In her chapter on direct strategies, she explains three groups of techniques, memory, cognitive, and compensation (p. 37). Memory serves as a means to help students store and retrieve language knowledge—words, tense markers, structures, and phrases—through images, associations, sounds, contexts, keywords, physical responses and sensations, and mechanical techniques (pp. 39ff). Oxford’s arguments encompass a wide range of useful language classroom suggestions that benefit all students who otherwise might rely upon a modest set of strategies for learning that they already know. This recommendation means that the methods instructor should create or share language strategy models with the methods class, and ensure that the objective of some course assignments is to assist the K-12 language learner in acquiring new knowledge through strategy practice.

9. Advocate an increase in the number of credits assigned to the methods course from the traditional and wholly inadequate 3 to at least 6, or preferably even 9 hours. This means that the methods instructor, with the support of methods colleagues and affiliated faculty, should design a combined ESL/WL methods sequence model that fosters a thorough grounding by methods students in how to employ effective approaches in the classroom. As described earlier, learning strategies, assessments, listening comprehension, and sheltered content learning techniques contribute to improved learning environments in K-12 settings.

10. Investigate, employ, or otherwise present innovative techniques for K-12 teaching. This means that the instructor helps the WL and ESL methods students in learning how to utilize print and screen media materials (including wall displays of artifacts and chalkboard work) in addition to non-print mediums (e.g., electronic white boards). Of great significance for the next years will be the methods instructor’s own professional development to that stage where he or she can engage course enrollees in working with models of new technology-assisted approaches to teach ESL or WL (Ally, 2009; van Olphen, 2010) to their K-12 language learners. In this way, the beginning language teachers and their methods instructor become lifelong learners whose habits of mind and inquisitive behaviors reflect their habits of teaching.

Conclusion

“Our future may be beyond our vision, but it is not completely beyond our control.”
Senator Edward M. Kennedy
(Eulogy for Robert F. Kennedy, June 6, 1968)

In the Mayan Popul Vuh, we read: “Don’t wait for strangers to remind you of your duty, you have a conscience and spirit for that. All the good you must do must come from your own initiative” (Menchu, 1984, p. 141). Mindful of this exhortation, we who prepare future language educators must consider its motivational implications. We
must seek avenues to resolve the issues produced by the combined WL/ESL methods class for the next decade and beyond, and engage in solid research activities that inform a viable course of action. Although we believe that it is better to offer language methods sequences that are individually directed at the WL and ESL pre-service educators, we recognize that for some institutions, the dual methods class section may become the only viable option.

We believe that our teacher education candidates will teach in K-12 schools that are reconfiguring their roles in an evolving society. Reform and change are stable components of teacher preparation as well. Language and culture studies will be increasingly vital, as the US Secretary of Education has declared (Duncan, 2010). Our language learners in K-12 WL understand this through the work of their teachers. ELs and their teachers bear an additional responsibility, that of the K-12 EL’s integration into the American dream—which most WL students are already part of. Both EL and WL student populations are partners in our common American goal of maintaining our nation’s intellectual and economic successes. They will do so in multiple languages. Despite the importance of English as an international language, the knowledge of other tongues remains a critical national need, and this is an area of K-12 education that our WL/ESL methods course students will contribute to as future language teachers. How we address their professional needs is our continuing challenge.

Notes
1. The enrollees in English as a Second Language learner (ESL) or English Learner (EL) or English Language Learner (ELL) K-12 programs are found in all grade levels. For this paper, we use the three terms interchangeably, acknowledging the impreciseness in fact and usage (English may not be a “second” but a third language for some). EL is the most recent appellation, ESL the more traditional. Note 3 also addresses this and related topics.

Other challenges face language teacher education; one is the nexus between WL methodology and the growth of Chinese language study. Support must be found to encourage research on how to teach Chinese in the US. We must simultaneously address the attendant concern of how to prepare a domestic cadre of future Chinese language teachers who will be invested in establishing lasting school programs—and thus teacher longevity in position. Reliance on a program's staffing needs being dependent on visas, international exchange agreements, and the subsequent issuance of short-term contracts for visiting teachers is frustratingly complex, and by no means a long-term solution. The demonstrable evidence is the example of language immersion staffing; it remains a critical concern years after the immersion programs have been established (Garcia, 1990; 2009).

2. The genesis of this paper resulted from discussions between the authors and other language methods instructors at the 2009 annual meeting of ACTFL in San Diego. Session attendees had witnessed the growth of combined WL/ESL methods courses at their own or near-by institutions (from California to Indiana, Ohio, Florida, and the Northeast), thereby confirming our experiences in this regard. The participants also noted the increasingly frequent student enrollment pattern that converted their course into a de facto combined ESL/WL methods section. Online investigation
showed that several universities offer combined methods sections, a fact that became
evident upon inspection of course syllabi and descriptors such as those found on
the discussion group FLTEACH (http://www.cortland.edu/flteach/syllabi/). There
was an entry, for instance, of a two-semester methods sequence at the Virginia Polytechnic University and Institute (VT) titled “Teaching Languages.” In addition
to listing a required text for VT’s WL methods students, a parallel, alternative
required text for ESL methods students was given. In the case of recently developed
online world language methods course materials from the University of Texas
(http://www.coerll.utexas.edu/methods), information offered to others—methods
instructors elsewhere—emphasizes the multiple areas of expertise represented by
the teaching faculty. Notably, some modules recommend resources for students that
relate uniquely to ESL. The program planning and these readings suggest a de facto
acknowledgement of combined WL/ESL methods sections’ existence.

3. Three points require detailed explanation: nomenclature, the ubiquity of ELs
in our nation, and EL school population size. First, EL or ELL is an appropriate
usage; they affirm that there are both immigrant and American-born students who
need special assistance in acquiring mainstream US English (Lippi-Green, 1997).
Traditionally, ESL connoted foreign-born learners of English. Second, K-12 EL
populations are no longer located exclusively in urban schools or industrialized
areas and in southern or southwestern states, as Maxwell (2010) has documented.
They are enrolled in rural districts—wherever employment opportunities for their
parents exist. Third, the actual number of K-12 ELs is imprecise. Keigher advises
prudence regarding use of the population numbers drawn from her Table 2 (p. 8)
because of the measurable (15%) non-reporting by state agencies that occurred.
She calculates it is possible that the figures have an error factor of 30%, which thus
causes the population estimate of 5.4 million ELs to range between 3.8 and 7.0
million. Keigher’s warning is commendable, especially when we consider another
recent and equally comprehensive study from the National Center for Education
Statistics (NCES). Aud et al. (2010) conclude that the 5.4 million estimate will be
adjusted up rather than down as additional comprehensive state and local data sets
are revised and submitted for inclusion into NCES common core data. In addition,
see Aud, Fox, and Kemal Ramini (2010) as well as Plotts and Sable (2010) for
additional data on public school district populations and ethnic/racial changes in
the US K-12 population. Hernández (1996) and NCELA (2006, FAQ 6) both offer
brief summaries of the legal statutes governing EL education policies.

4. These two phenomena often produce a third, one that is obscured from public
consciousness: the registration in an ESL methods class (combined with WL or
not) by currently-serving WL teachers. They enroll in order to add an English
Language Learning endorsement to their teaching certificate, and thus enhance
their ability to remain employed at their school or district setting during times of
personnel cutbacks. Contractually guaranteed transfer rights for teachers are based
upon licensure endorsements, tenure, and seniority; all play a role in matters of
staff reallocation or reductions. Miller’s (2010) report offers an historical overview
of teacher shortages in ESL and WL, and underpins several reports published by
professional associations, which note the critical need for WL teachers [Ballantyne,
5. We have not mentioned speaking proficiency in this context, although it is as an important topic for WL and ESL teacher education, and certainly pertains to the domain of methods class activities. Level checks or benchmarking interviews to measure proficiency, such as those we have suggested elsewhere (García, Hernández & Davis-Wiley, 2010), should be considered prerequisites for admission into methods and extended field experience or student teaching activities. Skills achievement and related licensure standards persist as a mutual concern for language programs and teacher education preparers (Cooper, 2004; García and Petri, 2000; Koike and Liskin-Gasparro, 1999; Pearson, Fonseca, Greber, and Foell, 2006; Schulz, 2000; Tedick, 2009). For further information on oral proficiency measures, see http://www.actfl.org/i4a/pages/index.cfm?pageid=3642#speaking for WL and Breiner-Sanders, Lowe, Miles, and Swender (2000). For ESL guidelines, see http://www.tesol.org/s_tesol/seccss.asp?CID=95&DID=1565.

6. Typically, WL teachers teach native K-12 English speakers how to use the target language, whereas ESL teachers have as their student audience K-12 pupils whose home language is not English. Although WL and ESL teachers both stress cultural knowledge in their classrooms, WL teachers—teachers of Spanish excepted—are concerned with non-US cultures, and ESL teachers help students learn about American cultural traditions and practices. Although both are concerned with assessment matters, the ESL teachers must become versed in the many local and state instruments required of the ELs to determine not only their English language achievement, but also their knowledge of different subject areas. K-12 WL methods students and WL teachers do not. Even though commonalities exist for ESL and WL teachers, the WL educators’ aim, arguably, is to teach a second language for students’ enrichment. EL teachers instruct ELs and enrich their students’ lives too, but their teachers do more. They affect the student’s economic and social future, and so prepare them for productive lives in the English-speaking community.

7. This is not to imply that textbooks play only a modest role in learning. They are important; their centrality as a singular source of knowledge is now diminished, however. For related discussions, see Allen (2008) and Bragger & Rice (2000).

8. We did not interview past methods class students, whose sense of dissatisfaction with the inherent issues of the combined methods course may well have been summarized by evaluations of a combined WL/ESL methods course that Professor Lee Wilberschied (Cleveland State University) graciously shared with us. Her former students’ comments support our position that the 3-credit combined methods course is over-burdened by too many competing objectives:
   • “Too many different interests – some ESL, some EFL are within this group; you have elementary, junior high, high school and college. Not enough focus.”
   • “It seems like there are too many populations in this class and so the course lacks some focus on specific for Methods of Teaching ESL. It has become too general for this level.”
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- “I feel that the integration of ESL with foreign language does not help those who are in the foreign language program much. I find a difficult time relating to it.”

9. Our recommendation for increased attention to listening comprehension and visual learning is derived from research performed during the 1960s and after by Asher (1966); Coady and Huckins (1997); Cook (1986), Flowerdew and Miller (2005); García (1981); Krashen (1985); Krashen and Terrell (1983); Postovsky (1974; 1977; 1982); Reeds, Winitz, and García (1977); Terrell (1977, 1986); Winitz (1981); Winitz and Reeds (1975); Winitz, García, and Frick (1985), and Winitz, Reeds, and García (1986). Listening comprehension and memory storage have roots in the field of psychology, as evidenced in Winitz and Reeds’ (1975) references to Miller (1956) and Osgood (1953), especially Chapter 12, “Serial and Transfer Phenomena.” Examples of recently published materials that emphasize visual learning combined with listening comprehension activities are found at tprstorytelling.com, rosettastone.com, and eurotalk.com/us/.

References


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Appendix A

WL and ESL Methods Course Topics, Rank-Ordered by Level of Importance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most Commonly Taught Topics</th>
<th>WL Methods Classes</th>
<th>ESL Methods Classes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>Traditional/innovative methods</td>
<td>Theory/language learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Testing</td>
<td>Writing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing oral proficiency</td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Speaking and pronunciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning lessons</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theories/language learning</td>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>Testing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>Listening</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>Curriculum design</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral proficiency movement</td>
<td>Methods in general</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive skills</td>
<td>Classroom management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context</td>
<td>Culture</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
<td>Communicative approach</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Materials evaluation</td>
<td>History of teaching WLs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language &amp; context</td>
<td>Accuracy/errors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Materials evaluation</td>
<td>Error analysis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional development</td>
<td>Technology innovations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>English/specific purposes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom management</td>
<td>Integrating the four skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>Bilingual education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation/attitudes</td>
<td>Cognitive (student learning) styles</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional development</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teaching French pronunciation with phonetics in college-level beginner French course

Jessica Sertling Miller, University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire

Abstract

Phonetics is typically used as a pedagogical tool in advanced university foreign language courses. In beginner classes, however, the acquisition of pronunciation is often helped through mere exposure to and imitation of the target language. This study argues that using phonetics, i.e., the visual support of phonetic symbols and the description of how sounds are produced, is as efficient a strategy as others to teach French pronunciation in beginner classes, but has perhaps more merit as it addresses both aural and visual learning styles. To test that claim, qualitative and quantitative data were gathered from college students in pilot experiments exploring the effectiveness of two different teaching techniques. One approach used phonetics by concurrently reinforcing audio stimuli with the International Phonetic Alphabet. A second approach used reference words, i.e., words already familiar to learners, as reference points to compare and contrast sounds, thus establishing connections between spelling and sounds. The participants’ oral proficiency was evaluated in recordings, their understanding of spelling-to-sound correspondences assessed in written exams, and their attitude toward French pronunciation and teaching approaches gauged through surveys. The preliminary results showed that both teaching approaches seemed to have an equal effect on the learners’ pronunciation. However, the phonetic approach appealed to more students who reported finding it more helpful.

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Introduction

Beginning language students seem, from experience, to regard speaking as a difficult aspect of learning a foreign language. This is understandable since a multitude of skills beyond grammar and vocabulary are necessary to become orally proficient. Such skills include, first, the ability to hear and interpret strings of sounds, map them correctly, and reproduce them (Chung, 2005; Coutsougera, 2007). Second, the speaker needs to physically produce the sounds of the target language with enough accuracy to be understood. Third, he or she has to pay attention to syntax and lexicon, knowing that an interlocutor is waiting to receive the message. This can be a complex and often stressful experience.

Ideally, when learners see a word, they should be able to retrieve its phonological identity as it naturally happens for native speakers (Perfetti & Liu, 2005). However, reaching that point requires much practice in and out of the classroom, which most college learners cannot afford for lack of time. This creates a disconnect between the learners’ needs and the information provided to meet those needs (Morgan, 2006; Pardo, 2004). Time constraints and traditional pedagogical approaches tend to overexpose writing to the detriment of speaking, precisely because it is easier and less time-consuming for learners to decipher that code, as English and French share an alphabetical system and many spelling features (Jaffré, 2005). For students to be as comfortable speaking as they are writing, more contact with spoken stimuli and more speaking practice would be required. This is nevertheless difficult for an instructor to monitor and assess in a timely manner, unlike writing.

The present article reflects on ways to help students improve their pronunciation in the target language despite time constraints by comparing teaching strategies. In what follows, two teaching approaches are compared: an explicit instruction strategy that uses phonetics, and a more implicit one that uses orthographic examples only. First, the advantages and drawbacks to the integration of phonetics in French 101 are considered. Next, an experiment designed to gather data on the effects of these two teaching approaches on students’ pronunciation and attitudes is described. Finally, appropriate pedagogical approaches are discussed in light of the results of this study.

Integrating phonetics in the classroom: research questions

Phonetics, i.e., “the study of the sounds of speech, their production, combination, description, and representation by written symbols” as Dansereau (1995, p. 639) defines it, is widely utilized in university advanced pronunciation courses as exemplified by textbooks on the market such as her own Savoir Dire (2006), Duménil’s Facile à Dire (2002), or Valdman’s Bien Entendu! (1993), among others for French. Phonetic transcriptions are also commonly used in dictionaries next to each word entry to indicate proper pronunciation (Harper Collins Robert, Oxford Hachette, Larousse, and many more). In Spanish, Lord (2005) has shown that explicit phonetic instruction in advanced courses helped improve pronunciation. Similar results were demonstrated for English (Aliaga-García, 2007; Lu, 2002) and Arabic (Huthaily, 2008). One can then wonder whether exposing learners to some basic phonetic concepts from the very
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beginning might be helpful. Ideally, correct pronunciation practices can be emphasized right away and errors due to fossilization decreased (Chela-Flores, 2001; DiOrio, 1987). As early as French 101, an approach using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) could provide instructors and students with a common code to quickly discuss French pronunciation. Teachers could therefore help learners become aware of phonemic distinctions and give precise feedback; learners could use dictionaries more efficiently, as well as take more precise notes. Phonetics would serve as a visual reinforcement to a type of instruction that usually relies on auditory cues only.

The role of phonetics in foreign language pedagogy has been debated for many years. Enthusiastic support for the use of phonetic symbols dates back almost a century (Ballard, 1920; Kirk, 1958; Kockritz, 1965; Robinson, 1948; Tamborra, 1935). Catford and Pisoni (1970) write that “auditory methods are significantly less effective than teaching production by means of systematic application of articulatory phonetic knowledge” (p. 481), and later Catford suggests the need for explicit instruction (1987). Herold (1972) found that students who used a simplified form of the IPA encountered more success in sound discrimination and production than the groups who relied on traditional orthography, emphasizing the validity of symbols as a pedagogical instrument. In today's competency-focused classroom, this may, however, no longer be true. Examining the role of phonetics and other pronunciation teaching methods within a contextualized pedagogy as well as designing appropriate and efficient teaching activities within that framework is one of my major goals. The present pilot study is a first step toward understanding what methods work best.

More recently, Champagne-Muzar (1998) emphasized the value of teaching the IPA to train learners to predict the correct pronunciation of new words. She adds that teachers can describe how to physically produce the sounds, as long as they do not go beyond simple explanations (pp. 39-40). Dansereau (1995), however, proposes to reserve phonetic symbols for advanced classes. She argues that symbols can add confusion when students are already learning a foreign language. Instead, she recommends teaching “basic rules of sound-symbol association” and demonstrating pronunciation “by the use of orthographic examples” (p. 639), i.e., familiar words to which learners can refer. Berri (2000), on the other hand, suggests that learners can determine the relationship between spelling and sounds on their own (i.e., by osmosis), while conceding that phonetics can be employed sparingly at an early stage.

Dansereau (1995) noted that a “discussion of the acquisition of good pronunciation habits in the beginning and intermediate oral proficiency-oriented classroom” was lacking, despite “the key role played by pronunciation in the early phase of language study” (p. 638). Today, almost two decades later, little experimental research has been conducted on how to teach French pronunciation at an early stage and no consensus has been reached. Even in the general field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), pronunciation instruction has long been neglected (Derwing & Munro, 2005). It is now beginning to gain attention, notably with the annual Conference on Pronunciation
in Second Language Learning and Teaching inaugurated in 2009. This preliminary investigation tries to draw attention to this matter, with a specific focus on French as a second language. This article attempts to offer concrete evidence that pronunciation instruction is crucial in beginner courses, and describes ways of incorporating it.

This current quasi-experimental investigation delves into the issue of pronunciation pedagogy by discussing qualitative and quantitative data collected in the foreign language classroom. The hypothesis to be tested in this study, which emerged from personal teaching experiences and from the claims reviewed above, is as follows: select target sounds will be pronounced with greater accuracy by learners who have received instruction with phonetic symbols than by those who have learned those sounds by using reference words, i.e., words with which they are already familiar.

Methods

The experiment testing the above hypothesis compared two different teaching techniques in two sections of a French 101 course at a mid-sized liberal arts university in the Midwest in the spring of 2009. The instructor, also the principal investigator and a native speaker of French, taught both sections. What is henceforth called the phonetic approach involved using the IPA as visual support, as well as explicit instruction on how French sounds are articulated. The other approach, called the orthographic approach, was modeled on Dansereau’s claims reviewed earlier. For that, the instructor relied on the Roman alphabet and utilized reference words that were well known to students in order to model target sounds. Both strategies engaged students in choral repetition.

The purpose of teaching pronunciation in an introductory course is not to cover the entire French phonological system in one or two semesters, but to instill a solid base of some fundamental French articulatory principles on which to build at later stages. By doing so the speakers’ intelligibility can be enhanced and they can attain more meaningful functionality in the target language. Therefore only a few sets of sounds were selected in this study, chosen according to their communicative benefit for the beginner learner. This investigation can consequently not comment on overall speaking ability after treatment since pronunciation was not tested in the learners’ spontaneous speech. French 101 students have minimal conversational skills at the end of the semester anyway, which is one of the reasons why I chose to focus on single word pronunciation for the treatment and assessment.

All students were introduced to the target sounds in four 15-minute lessons. The lessons were based on minimal pairs, as recommended by Kelly (2000) and shown in Table 1 on the next page. Arteaga (2000) also suggested employing familiar example words in the teaching of pronunciation. The present experiment was consequently designed around the discrimination of common minimal pairs that are frequent and that tend to create problems in communication when produced incorrectly. Hendrickson (1979) prioritizes errors that affect intelligibility as the first ones to address, which is why it is important to introduce minimal pairs early in the learning process. I pronounced the pairs while showing their spelling on flashcards. The difference between the two approaches was in the delivery: the phonetic group could see the IPA transcription. In that group, time was also set aside once at the beginning of the treatment to discuss how to efficiently use the IPA (e.g., to take notes or look up pronunciation in a dictionary).
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additionally received explanations concerning the articulation of the target sounds. For example, the instructor explained that both \[y\] (<u>) and \[u\] (<ou>) are produced with rounded lips, but the tongue is placed forward in the former and pushed back in the latter. Lessons in both approaches concluded with an exercise in which students matched new words with either the given reference words in the orthographic approach (Appendix A), or the new phonetic symbols in the phonetic approach (Appendix B). All groups then repeated those words. Table 1 below shows the phonetic and orthographic transcriptions of the sounds selected for this study. It contains the minimal pairs used as examples for the phonetic approach, as well as the reference words selected for the reference approach. The ability to distinguish those sounds help learners clarify meanings in many everyday situations, but each group targets a specific grammatical function as well. That function is also provided in Table 1.

Table 1. Pronunciation lessons and functions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LESSON 1</th>
<th>PHONEMES</th>
<th>GRAPHEMES</th>
<th>MINIMAL PAIRS</th>
<th>FUNCTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ɛ] vs. [â] vs. [ö]</td>
<td>in, ein, ain, un im, eim, aim, um an, en, am, em on, om</td>
<td>vent, vingt</td>
<td>To distinguish pronouns and articles such as un [a], on [we], and en [some]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LESSON 2</td>
<td>[s] vs. [z]</td>
<td>ss s (between two vowels and in liaison)</td>
<td>poisson, poison</td>
<td>To work on liaison and distinguish between ils ont [they have] and ils sont [they are]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LESSON 3</td>
<td>[y] vs. [u]</td>
<td>u, ou</td>
<td>tu, tout [you, all]</td>
<td>To clarify meaning in descriptions, as in russe [Russian] and rousse [red-haired]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LESSON 4</td>
<td>[ə] vs. [ɛ]</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>le, les [the singular and plural]</td>
<td>To distinguish singular and plural in articles and prepositions, as in “de” [of the singular] and “des” [of the plural]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Because of the small number of students, this study has methodological limitations. One of them is the lack of control group, due to the institution's offering only two sections of French 101 each semester. To maximize the small number of volunteers (28 in all) and receive feedback from everyone regarding both teaching strategies, as well as to avoid the influence of external factors such as time of instruction, level, and motivation of learners that could bias the results, a counterbalance experimental design was adopted: for the first half of the semester, section one (16 student volunteers) studied the discrete topics of the first two lessons using the phonetic approach (Lesson 1 and Lesson 2 in Table 1 above), while section two (12 student volunteers) studied the same material with the orthographic approach. After the middle of the semester, the groups were switched: the orthographic approach was employed in section one for Lesson 3 and Lesson 4, whereas section two covered those same topics with the phonetic approach.

In addition, colleagues' workloads and schedule conflicts prevented me from asking other instructors to carry out the experimental treatment in their classes. Because of the interactive nature of pronunciation instruction, using pre-recorded videos was also excluded. In this pilot study, I was therefore the researcher as well as the pronunciation rater. While objectivity was a priority, it is difficult to conceal personal teaching preferences, which students’ scores can potentially reflect. Finally, no pre-test was carried out in this study on the assumption that students in French 101 have no solid knowledge of the target language and are enrolled either because they are real beginners or because a placement test determined that they have not yet reached the French 102 level. Despite these limitations, the present exploratory study offers the opportunity to reflect on possible improvements to pronunciation instruction and can lead to a more comprehensive investigation in the future.

The students’ accuracy in the pronunciation of the target sounds at play in this study was evaluated and graded. Testing was built into the course requirements, which gave students an incentive to perform their best on oral exams. At the end of the semester, final oral exams were given as part of the course. All students were tested, but only the scores of volunteer participants who gave their informed consent were selected for the study. Students read aloud a randomized list of 40 unfamiliar words eliciting specific sounds, 10 words for each of the four pronunciation lessons (Appendix C). I listened to each student during individual interviews and marked a score of 1 if the speaker had produced the phoneme inaccurately, and 0 if there was no error. One might argue that reading a list is a decontextualized task in a setting far from being authentic. It is true. While it is less conducive to learning, this was a test situation. The described set-up was needed to correctly determine whether or not a learner is accurately pronouncing foreign language sounds. Evaluating beginner students’ pronunciation on selected target phonemes in a spontaneous speech context, while ideal, is impossible as the researcher would neither be able to control the words being pronounced nor elicit the phonemes needed from a learner with very little oral proficiency skill. Without a script, the researcher might think a word is pronounced correctly (e.g., mon frère a douze ans [My brother is twelve]), when the participant was trying to convey a different meaning (e.g., mon frère a deux ans [My brother is two]), misinterpreted because of one phoneme ([u] in douze but [ø] in deux).
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The oral evaluations provided quantitative data that measured the performance of the participants after they had received the experimental treatment. Responses to two written surveys (Appendix D and E), one before and one after the treatment, supplemented this research with qualitative data gauging the participants’ attitude towards the teaching and learning of French pronunciation. In both of them the students were asked to comment on what they felt was important to learn in a first-year French course. In the second survey, an open-ended question was added to give participants the opportunity to comment on their preferred approach for teaching pronunciation, though none was identified in order to avoid leading them. Since all sections had, by that time, been exposed to both pedagogical approaches, they were able to compare different techniques, which enriched the data.

Results: quantitative data

The scores presented below reflect the number of mistakes observed in the reading of the 40 words (10 words in each of the four categories): in other words, the fewer mistakes, the lower the mark. The best score would be 0, and the worst 10. The means and standard deviations of the scores obtained by each section for each of the four categories are provided in Table 2 below. It includes the mean and standard deviation for the scores of each group according to the teaching approach.

Table 2. Mean and standard deviation for groups on reading task.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTION &amp; TEACHING APPROACH</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LESSON 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal vowels</td>
<td>1 (phonetic)</td>
<td>2.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 (reference)</td>
<td>2.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LESSON 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[s] vs. [z]</td>
<td>1 (phonetic)</td>
<td>3.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 (reference)</td>
<td>3.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LESSON 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[y] vs. [u]</td>
<td>1 (reference)</td>
<td>2.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 (phonetic)</td>
<td>2.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LESSON 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ә] vs. [e]</td>
<td>1 (reference)</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 (phonetic)</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The means for each group are very close to each other for all categories. On average, all students made two mistakes on nasal vowels, three on the [s] vs. [z] distinction, two for [y] and [u], and one in the production of [ә] vs. [e]. The standard deviations are interesting. Except for the first lesson of the semester, the standard deviation is larger in the section that received instruction with the orthographic approach. The students’ performances therefore varied greatly from one another within the groups that were taught pronunciation with reference words, and without phonetics; some students in that group performed well while others did poorly. In the group that received instruction with phonetics, the pronunciation abilities were not better, but more homogeneous. The implications of this finding will be discussed later.
The scores earned by each section in all four categories were analyzed with Independent Samples t-tests. The goal of this statistical analysis was to locate significant differences between the performance of students in section one and section two for every pronunciation lesson in order to learn whether or not one teaching approach could be connected to higher reading scores. A Levene’s test showed that the groups had approximately equal variance on the dependent variable in all but one category: ([y] vs. [u]). The results of the t tests, taking into account equal and unequal variances, however revealed no meaningful differences between the groups. Therefore, from a strictly quantitative and statistical perspective, it can be concluded that neither teaching approach stands out as being more effective on the pronunciation of end-of-term French 101 students in an oral reading test environment. Both approaches seem to have an equal effect on pronunciation accuracy. The results are summarized in Table 3 below.

**Table 3. Independent Samples t test results.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TARGET SOUNDS</th>
<th>LEVENE’S TEST</th>
<th>T TEST REPORT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nasal vowels</td>
<td>.151</td>
<td><em>t</em>(26) = .71, <em>p</em> = .49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[s] vs. [z]</td>
<td>.247</td>
<td><em>t</em>(26) = 1.27, <em>p</em> = .22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[y] vs. [u]</td>
<td>.007 ( = equal variances not assumed)</td>
<td><em>t</em>(26) = -.80, <em>p</em> = .39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ə] vs. [e]</td>
<td>.266</td>
<td><em>t</em>(26) = .66, <em>p</em> = .51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additional data were gathered through surveys. Participants were asked in a background questionnaire filled out at the beginning of the semester to rate how important, on a Likert scale from 1 to 5, they feel the following components are in a beginner French class: culture, grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. Pronunciation was selected as “very important” by 93% of the respondents as shown in Table 4 on the next page, the most of all options. When collapsing together the results for “somewhat important” and “very important” category, pronunciation and vocabulary are viewed as important for 100% of students.

The same question was asked in a survey at the end of the semester. The attitudes did not change for pronunciation, as shown in Table 5 on the next page. It remains the component to be rated as “very important” most of the time, and the only one to not receive a single “neutral” rating. That could of course be attributed to the teacher’s enthusiasm for pronunciation instruction, and this survey would perhaps deserve to be distributed elsewhere to verify.
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Table 4. Attitudes towards components of a language course at the beginning of the semester.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Rather Unimportant</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Somewhat Important</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning culture</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning grammar</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning pronunciation</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>93%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning vocabulary</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Attitudes towards components of a language course at the end of the semester.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Rather Unimportant</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Somewhat Important</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning culture</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning grammar</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning pronunciation</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>93%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning vocabulary</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These data are interesting because they suggest that students in introductory French classes expect time to be devoted to pronunciation, as they consider it essential. Yet textbooks and instructors typically focus much more on other aspects. This is consistent with Morin’s (2007) recent findings that a misalignment exists between the perceived importance of pronunciation for instructors and for students. Intermediate-level learners ranked pronunciation as their fifth most important learning goal, while teachers ranked it tenth out of 14. Morin also found that students ranked pronunciation instruction as their third preferred activity to reach their goals, while teachers ranked it thirteenth out of 19. Instructors and students do not place the same significance on pronunciation.

Results: qualitative data

The quantitative data analyzed above will help interpret the qualitative data presented below. The responses to the following open-ended question are examined now: “Among the teaching techniques used by your instructor this semester, describe one or more that you feel helped improve your pronunciation of French and explain
how it helped.” A content analysis was conducted in which the written comments were examined multiple times until recurring themes emerged from the students’ responses. Then they were looked at again and encoded according to the themes previously identified. Those themes, which relate to pedagogical techniques, along with the number of times they appeared in the survey, are summarized in Table 6 that also includes the number of students who identified those strategies as helpful. Participants only commented on the approaches that they liked, so there are no data regarding the strategies that they disliked.

Table 6. Students’ preferred pedagogical approaches.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONTENT ANALYSIS THEME</th>
<th>% OF STUDENTS WHO LIKED IT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Explicit instruction</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual input</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aural input</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implicit teaching</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being assessed</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students gave numerous examples explaining why visual input seemed to improve their pronunciation: they cited spelling words, using phonetic symbols, showing mouth movements, and visually grouping words with similar sounds. Within this category, the phonetic approach was mentioned the most frequently (53% of the responses). One participant even used phonetic symbols to illustrate, clarify, and justify her answer. She wrote: “Learning and comparing how to make the different sound like [a] and [e] at the same time. It’s easier to learn that there is a difference and how to tell if a word would be pronounced one way or another.” This shows a French 101 student’s ability to use the IPA to fulfill a communicative need. The orthographic approach was, in comparison, cited in 32% of the responses. Students enjoy seeing words clustered together when they contain the same sound (famille [family] and taille [size] were given as examples by a participant). They also benefit from contrasting minimal pairs on the board or with flashcards (poisson [fish] and poison [poison] were also quoted).

Only 29% of the surveyed students mentioned that aural input (i.e., hearing and/or speaking) helped them. This low percentage can perhaps be explained by the fact that such an approach seems obviously effective, and for that reason the learners did not think of mentioning it. In this category, 50% described repeating after the teacher as beneficial. Interestingly, they explained using that approach to check for the accuracy of their own pronunciation, not as a primary source of acquiring articulatory skills:
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“When we learned a new word (the instructor) says it and we pronounced after her; that helped me (…) as a guide.” In addition, 25% said that reading aloud with a partner contributed to improvement. Practicing speech with an audience in a communicative context, even from a script, therefore seems to be motivating in that it stresses the importance of being understood.

A majority of respondents (75%) mentioned a need to have their attention drawn to matters of pronunciation. In other words, they prefer explicit instruction. They said that they would not notice rules or practice pronunciation otherwise. They also liked understanding the reason for those rules: “Writing different words on the board along with their phonetic symbols and comparing them was helpful. It helped me understand why they were pronounced differently” (their emphasis). This suggests that adult learners might not find it sufficient to acquire pronunciation through osmosis, as supported by Berri (2000). Time has to be set aside, as proposed by one informant, to practice pronunciation. Furthermore, 43% cite the IPA and showing articulation movements as an efficient way to teach explicitly. Another 43% mention comparing and contrasting words, and 24% express the need to work on individual sounds. Their descriptions suggest a preference for the phonetic approach over the orthographic approach.

Discussion

Regardless of the approach used, it seems that the formal study of pronunciation made a positive impact on learners. The comments gathered emphasize that learners value correct pronunciation from the beginning, and motivation as well as attention to pronunciation issues are enhanced when instructors give them explicit means to make improvements. It is not to suggest that those aspects are not important as well and should not be emphasized, nor that students necessarily know what is in their learning interest. Rather, a proposition based on those comments is to perhaps accentuate or formalize the study of pronunciation, without investing large amounts of time, and to recycle the material across chapters. If teachers do not draw attention to a certain topic (whether grammar, vocabulary, culture, or pronunciation) students will likely infer that it has little value. Kendrick's study (1997) brings further evidence in support of the claim that explicit pronunciation instruction has positive effects on the learners. She reports that student participants “gave high ratings to exercises in discrimination and production of segments, and learning how sounds are made” (p. 552), supporting the idea that when given a chance to study pronunciation, students welcome the opportunity.

For example, phonetic transcriptions could be included with new vocabulary as it is in dictionaries. Comments that draw the learners’ attention to pronunciation could also be inserted during or after a grammar lesson. This technique does not seem to be current standard practice from what can be observed in textbooks. In the study’s questionnaire, some students mentioned needing additional time to internalize the concepts linked to pronunciation. According to Ellis (2008) “learners experience difficulty in producing L2 phonology forms in the early stages, becoming more target-
like only very gradually” (p. 103). His observation is a good reminder that recycling basic pronunciation material in introductory courses by combining it with other types of activities, such as vocabulary drills (animals, food, body parts) or grammar review (articles, pronouns, conjugation) can help students stay focused on the importance of accurate pronunciation, and thus provide more opportunities to assimilate the phonological system of the target language while allowing for short but frequent lessons on the topic. Mompean (2005) suggests using phonetics in games such as Hangman, which would serve as vocabulary review at the same time.

In fact, meaningful, contextualized tasks can be easily designed around minimal pairs targeting the phonemes identified in this investigation. Those activities would require correct pronunciation for the speakers to communicate successfully. For example, beginner learners could engage in short conversations describing their tastes. They would be asked to form sentences such as j’aime le poisson with [s] [I like fish], and be sure not to say j’aime le poison with [z] [I like poison]. This would help them practice both pronunciation and vocabulary, with other minimal pairs inserted as dessert [dessert] and désert [desert]. This can be done with other phonemes in different lessons depending on the topic, e.g., [u] and [y]: j’aime les poules [I like chickens] as opposed to j’aime les pulls [I like sweaters]. Another meaningful task illustrating the importance of a single phoneme is to have students pronounce minimal pairs and have their partners draw what they hear to get immediate feedback on whether they pronounced them right: is it a wheel or a street (roue [wheel] with [u] or rue [street] with [y])? A red-haired girl or a Russian girl (rousse [red-haired girl] or Russe [Russian])? A body or a heart (corps [body] or cœur [heart])? Learners can also describe their favorite animals, either in a friendly way or on their plate: by changing the pronunciation of the article, they might inadvertently say that they enjoy eating an animal. Thus, j’aime les poissons with [e] in the article means “I like fish (in general)” whereas j’aime le poisson with [ә] in the article implies “I like to eat fish.” Emphasizing unintended meanings caused by the mispronunciation of one segment is often humorous, and many drawn from personal experience will highlight the importance of one single sound in a communicative setting. Using phonetic symbols may help visual learners internalize those pronunciation concepts and enable them to take accurate notes for further review and memorization.

This research project on pronunciation pedagogy brings to light important, albeit preliminary, observations. Both phonetic and orthographic pedagogical approaches are valid, which explains why the debate between supporters of each approach has not been settled. However, the phonetic strategy seems to have an advantage. This exploratory investigation showed that for the last three lessons the groups exposed to phonetics demonstrated more homogeneity in their production of the target phonemes than the groups taught with the orthographic approach, as demonstrated by a smaller standard deviation. This observation remained true even after the groups were switched at the mid-semester point, which indicates that factors such as learners’ ability and motivation did not affect
Teaching French pronunciation with phonetics

this result. Consequently, the phonetic approach may have a homogenizing effect on the articulatory skills of learners. This correlation should be further explored in a future study focusing on intra- and inter-group homogeneity and consistency. This can perhaps be explained by the fact that the phonetic approach caters to more learning styles than the orthographic approach: it enhances audio input with a shared visual code, it gives IPA users a tool to discuss pronunciation in precise terms, it adds explicit instruction from which many adult learners seem to benefit, and it allows instructors to quickly check with transcription exercises if learners have assimilated spelling-to-sound correspondences.

Moreover, the data revealed that a vast majority of participants in this class preferred explicit instruction. In the case of college-aged learners, this finding demonstrates that leaving learners to acquire pronunciation by osmosis may be insufficient to meet their needs. As we know, there are major differences in the way children and older learners acquire a second language. Ellis (1985) states: “Children do not have the capacity to learn specific rules about linguistics and grammar; however, adolescents and adults can understand these rules and use them to communicate their ideas” (p. 108). Providing university learners with articulatory or phonetic descriptions of sounds would probably be advantageous, then. An opposite view is that of Krashen and Terrell (1983). To them, “language is best taught when it is being used to transmit messages, not when it is explicitly taught for conscious learning” (p. 55). The evidence available in the present exploratory study however suggests that adult learners do find explicit teaching beneficial as it helps them understand the mechanics of a language; this understanding likely contributes to better retention.

Next, visual input was believed to be essential in the acquisition of pronunciation by the students involved in the present study. The phonetic approach was found to be an efficient way to increase exposure to visual stimuli. Indeed, the IPA provides a written code to communicate unambiguously about pronunciation questions. Being familiar with articulatory concepts also enables students to see what happens when the target sounds are produced. Time for quiet, individual practice can also be set aside outside of class for transcription, which could accelerate the assimilation of spelling-to-sound correspondences. Thanks to the written mode, feedback from the instructor is facilitated. For instance, an exercise involving the IPA was included in every test of this class and easily corrected. Evaluating the learners’ conceptual knowledge would be simplified, and thus could be done more often to benefit the learning experience.

One advantage of the phonetic approach is indeed that familiarizing learners with the IPA frees them from relying on their personal interpretation of sounds, generally skewed by their own phonological system. Thanks to an accurate written code that captures phonemic differences in a way for which spelling is not suited, students can take precise notes, discuss issues with a teacher by showing sounds on paper, as well as use dictionaries to their fullest extent. A pronunciation task similar to in-class activities shown in the appendices was included on all written exams for this course. Students
were asked to match short written words to either (1) the phonetic symbol that they contained or (2) the reference word that sounded like them. After the mid-semester mark, when both groups had been exposed to the IPA, a vast majority of students spontaneously matched the items to phonetic symbols rather than to familiar reference words, even when they personally had learned the tested target sound through the orthographic approach. This suggests that, given a choice, learners in this course found the IPA more efficient at expressing their thoughts, and were able to use that code to communicate their conceptual knowledge of the subject, even when they had not received instruction on that topic in that way.

Conclusion

This study, although limited in its scope and methods, suggests that teaching pronunciation with the phonetic approach or the orthographic approach produces statistically comparable performances in learners’ production of phonemes in these two sections of French 101. All strategies being equal, including the phonetic technique in beginner courses would give learners a head start in preparation for advanced classes, and for those who do not wish to pursue French later it would at a minimum help them avoid the fossilization of mistakes created by skewed interpretation of target sounds and spelling-to-sound correspondences. Learners are aware of this advantage. One student who received phonetic instruction in French 101 from the researcher, and as part of her topical minor program later enrolled in the 300-level phonetics and pronunciation class taught by the researcher, candidly remarked in class that she had kept all her phonetics worksheets from her beginner course as she found them useful. She was asked to elaborate and replied: “When I started French courses, I really appreciated the phonetic transcriptions because having previously learned Spanish, the pronunciation was vastly different. The transcriptions and pronunciation helped immensely as I progressed in my French courses as I was able to see the differences in pronunciation from letters that I thought had the same pronunciation such as the letter <e> for example in the words mer and que.” Her explanation illustrates how phonetics directly contributed to her understanding of French pronunciation and gave her the ongoing ability to identify differences between varied phonological systems on her own.

It seems clear that students who are introduced to phonetics possess a tool that gives them an edge, and therefore this approach is worth pursuing. Even those who take French only briefly will gain confidence as they can rely on a lasting, failsafe technique to know that they are pronouncing the language accurately. An approach using systematic symbols might also appeal to scientifically minded students often enrolled in foreign language courses simply to fulfill a university requirement. This study shows that there are no negative effects to adopting this teaching technique, and that most learners find phonetics to be an enjoyable approach to pronunciation teaching and learning in French 101.

In the long term, depending on one’s teaching goals, student population, and curricular program, the phonetic approach may be more
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appropriate than the orthographic technique. The IPA enables motivated learners to use phonemes in original ways: symbols can be combined to make words with which a learner may not be yet familiar, but could guess the spelling and meaning. In contrast, having to rely on the same reference words appears limiting as it leaves little room for vocabulary expansion. This may be why some students spontaneously chose to use phonetic symbols on their written tests. When they become comfortable with this system and are able to use it, this code becomes a powerful device with important, lasting ramifications.

Teaching with the phonetic alphabet is one of several ways to focus on pronunciation in the foreign language classroom for beginners. This study shows that it works as well as other approaches in this particular case, but it is important to acknowledge that a teaching approach is most efficient when it matches the learning and teaching styles of a given class. I encourage teachers to think of creative ways to introduce pronunciation instruction in their lower level classes, so that it is not “relegated to the ‘if-we-have-time’ status,” as Hardison writes in her look at current trends in teaching pronunciation (2010, p. 3). Our field needs to address the issues that she points out such as instructors’ lack of confidence or lack of training in pronunciation pedagogy as noted by Derwing (2010). Designing contextualized, meaningful tasks that deal with pronunciation and sharing them with colleagues is the next important step if we want to help second language learners become better communicators.

Acknowledgements

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References


Teaching French pronunciation with phonetics

Appendices

Appendix A: sample worksheet for a lesson with the orthographic approach.

The pronunciation of ‘u’ and ‘ou’

1. Theory
   In the spelling of the words tu and tout, what indicates that they are pronounced differently?

2. Exercise
   Sort the words below according to their pronunciation: say if they are pronounced like tu ou tout.
   
   lu  pur  doux
   pour  loup  brune

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tu</th>
<th>Tout</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix B: sample worksheet for a lesson with the phonetic approach.

[u] vs. [y]

1. Theory
   In the spelling of the words tout and tu, what indicates that they are pronounced differently?

   How is tongue and lip placement different for [u] and [y]?

   Exercise
   Write the phonetic symbol ([u] or [y]) that you use to pronounce the following words.
   
   lu  pur  doux
   pour  loup  brune
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Appendix C: list of 40 words read by participants at the end of the term.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ton</td>
<td>tonne</td>
<td>lundi</td>
<td>lisez</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chez</td>
<td>menu</td>
<td>cousine</td>
<td>casser</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vous</td>
<td>le</td>
<td>vend</td>
<td>vingt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>refaire</td>
<td>posséder</td>
<td>poule</td>
<td>flâner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>route</td>
<td>désert</td>
<td>philosophie</td>
<td>lissez</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>préféré</td>
<td>flan</td>
<td>dessert</td>
<td>ils sont</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caser</td>
<td>bouche</td>
<td>ils ont</td>
<td>te</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vont</td>
<td>pour</td>
<td>pull</td>
<td>les</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>demain</td>
<td>télé</td>
<td>vu</td>
<td>tes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cousin</td>
<td>pur</td>
<td>préfère</td>
<td>utile</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix D: Survey distributed at the beginning of the semester (Note: not all responses were analyzed for this study).

Name: __________________ Age: ______________ Gender: M F

1. Have you taken any French before this French 101 course? Y N
2. If so, how many years/semesters? _____ years before college _____ semesters in college
3. Why are you taking this French 101 course?
   ______________________________________________________
4. Have you traveled to a French-speaking country? Y N
5. If so, where, when, and for how long? country:________________________
   year: ____________________
   duration: ____________________
6. Have you been exposed to phonetic transcription before? Y N
7. If so, in what manner (class, personal reading)? _______________________
8. How would you rate the following components of a French course?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Not important</th>
<th>Rather unimportant</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Somewhat important</th>
<th>Very important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning culture</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning grammar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning pronunciation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning vocabulary</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9. How comfortable do you feel in your pronunciation when reading French material that you understand out loud?
   1 = not at all comfortable
   2 = not very comfortable
   3 = it varies
   4 = relatively comfortable
   5 = very comfortable

10. How comfortable do you feel in your pronunciation when reading French material that you do not understand out loud?
    1 = not at all comfortable
    2 = not very comfortable
    3 = it varies
    4 = relatively comfortable
    5 = very comfortable

11. To what extent do you use the following methods to pronounce an unfamiliar word?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. I look up the phonetic transcription.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. I pronounce it like English.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. I refer to how it is spelled.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. I refer to how the teacher pronounces similar words.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. I take a chance based on my intuition.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. I don't attempt to pronounce unfamiliar words.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. To what extent are the following difficulties true for you when pronouncing an unfamiliar word in French?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Difficulty</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. overcoming the fear to sound “silly” when speaking French</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. producing the actual sound correctly (ex.: the French “R”)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Understanding spelling to pronunciation correspondences</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. If you have any comments or questions, please write them below.
Teaching French pronunciation with phonetics

Appendix E: survey distributed at the end of the semester (note: not all responses were analyzed for this study).

1. How would you rate the following components of a French course?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not important</th>
<th>Rather unimportant</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Somewhat important</th>
<th>Very important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning culture</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning grammar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning pronunciation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning vocabulary</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. How comfortable do you feel in your pronunciation when reading French material that you understand out loud?

1 = not at all comfortable  
2 = not very comfortable  
3 = it varies  
4 = relatively comfortable  
5 = very comfortable

3. How comfortable do you feel in your pronunciation when reading French material that you do not understand out loud?

1 = not at all comfortable  
2 = not very comfortable  
3 = it varies  
4 = relatively comfortable  
5 = very comfortable

4. To what extent do you use the following methods to pronounce an unfamiliar word?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. I look up the phonetic transcription.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. I pronounce it like English.</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. I refer to how it is spelled.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. I refer to how the teacher pronounces similar words.</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. I take a chance based on my intuition.</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. I don't attempt to pronounce unfamiliar words.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. To what extent are the following difficulties true for you when pronouncing an unfamiliar word in French?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. overcoming the fear to sound “silly” when speaking French</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. producing the actual sound correctly (ex.: the French “R”)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Understanding spelling to pronunciation correspondences</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Among the teaching techniques used by your instructor this semester, describe one or more that you feel helped improve your pronunciation of French and explain how it helped.

7. Please indicate any comments or questions you may have about our study.
Students' motivations for studying French: Examining undergraduates’ language orientations, expectancies, and values to promote advocacy

Paula B. Newbill, Ph.D., Visiting Assistant Professor, Roanoke College
Brett D. Jones, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Virginia Tech

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate undergraduate French students’ motivations for studying French and their intentions to continue studying French. The participants consisted of intermediate-level French students who enrolled in a college French course by choice. We used two instruments to survey students and compared the subscales of these instruments. The first instrument assessed students’ language orientations, including Travel, Knowledge, Relationships, Instrumental, and Sociocultural. The second instrument measured students’ expectancies for success and values. We documented that these students study French in college primarily because they find it enjoyable and because it is important to them. They also find the language to be useful for their future travels, and it allows them to learn more about French culture. Students are more likely to continue taking intermediate French courses when they believe that studying French is important and when they want to learn more about French language and culture. This information may be used to increase French enrollment through advocacy measures, including effective pedagogical strategies.

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French is a global, useful language to learn. Nadeau and Barlow (2006) state that “French is the number-two second-language choice of students across the planet…with two million teachers and a hundred million students worldwide” (p. 3). The language is spoken on five continents and is one of the official languages for world organizations like the United Nations, the International Olympic Committee, and the International Red Cross. In addition, Canada, a nearby French- and English-speaking country, is the United States’ largest trading partner (Shryock, 2009). French can also be an excellent choice for students as a means to increase verbal achievement scores because French is the base of 50% of English words (French Language Initiative, 2007).

Yet, according to the Modern Language Association (Furman, Goldberg, & Lusin, 2007), French enrollment decreased in the 1990s, which parallels foreign language (FL) learning trends in general, as overall foreign language enrollment also decreased during that period. An exception to this finding was Spanish enrollment, which has been on the rise consistently, even during the 1990s. Between 1990 and 1995, the number of Spanish language learners surpassed the total number of learners of other languages (excluding Greek and Latin).

Although French is the second most commonly taught FL in U.S. colleges and universities, enrollments in French increased only 2.2% in institutions of higher education from 2002-2006, the smallest increase reported by Furman et al. (2007). Other languages experienced much greater increases in enrollment from 2002 to 2006, such as Spanish (a 10.3% increase), Arabic (a 126.5% increase), and Chinese (a 51% increase).

Recently however, French enrollment increased by 4.8% according to the 2009 MLA survey (Furman, Goldberg, & Lusin, 2010). This increase is more than double the increase in the previous study. Other languages of high enrollment increases experienced smaller increases in this survey as compared to the previous survey: Spanish increased by 5.1%, Arabic by 46.3%, and Chinese by 18.2% (Furman et al., 2010).

Although French is not declining in enrollment numbers, we wondered why enrollment rates were not increasing as much as for other modern languages during the period of the 2002-2006 MLA survey. An understanding of why undergraduate students study French could lead to advocacy measures that could be implemented to help increase enrollment. The link between the purpose and the implications makes this study unique. The aim of this study was to investigate intermediate French students’ motivations for studying French and their intentions to continue studying French. We chose to study this population at this particular school because these students were not required to study French in college, yet they chose to do so anyway. Thus, their motivations for studying French would not be solely to satisfy graduation requirements.

**Student Motivation**

To investigate university students’ motivations for studying French and their intentions to continue studying French, we used two theoretical frameworks: one that has been used more extensively in language learning settings (i.e., the Orientations in Foreign Language Learning) and another that has not been used as much in language
Students’ motivations for studying French

learning settings but has been used in other domains for such purposes (i.e., the Expectancy-Value Model of Motivation). We define motivation as a process that is inferred from students’ verbalizations (or written reports) and actions, whereby goal-directed physical or mental activity is instigated and sustained (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008, p. 4). Understanding students’ motivation is important because “motivated students tend to engage in activities that help them to learn and achieve highly in academic settings” (Jones, 2009, p. 272).

Orientations in Foreign Language Learning

Gardner and Lambert (1959) provided a motivational theory concerning the individual learner in social situations. Developed in the field of social psychology, they identified second language (L2) orientations, or reasons for learning a language, which were classified as either instrumental or integrative. Individuals are labeled as having an instrumental orientation when “the purposes of language study reflect the more utilitarian value of linguistic achievement, such as getting ahead in one’s occupation” (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 3). College students have an instrumental orientation when they enroll in a FL course to fulfill a FL requirement. Individuals are labeled as having an integrative orientation when they commit to a target language and culture because they want to become a member of that culture. “[T]he orientation is integrative if the student wishes to learn more about the other cultural community because he is interested in it in an open-minded way, to the point of eventually being accepted as a member of that other group” (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 3).

In an instructional setting such as an L2 classroom, many students are likely not committed to the target language culture by integrating themselves into it because they are not able to gain experience through significant contact with the target language culture. For this reason, Dörnyei (1990) posited that instrumental orientations should be regarded as important because the instrumental reasons need to be stronger than integrative reasons in instructed settings, as opposed to natural settings where the integrative reasons could be more important. A study of intermediate Spanish students in a Midwestern university in the U.S. supports this assertion by finding that students were more likely to enroll in courses to meet FL requirements and for reasons related to their future career than for reasons consistent with the integrative orientation (Hernández, 2006). In a global society, the term integrative orientation takes on a new meaning from the original one. An integrative motivational orientation may exist even though the learner has never met someone from that L2 community (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002). In addition, the term integrative has evolved and is associated with identity and self-concept as opposed to simply integrating oneself into the community of L2 speakers (Dörnyei, 2003). Following the original instrumental and integrative orientations (Gardner & Lambert, 1972), researchers investigated many other orientations, such as Career Instrumental, School Instrumental, Integration, Understanding/Identification, Travel, Knowledge, Social/
Cultural, Distant Interest, and Prestige (Clément & Kruidenier, 1983). Clément and Kruidenier's (1983) study in Canada examined these orientations of Francophones and Anglophones learning French, Spanish, and English. The researchers noted that, “Given their stability and generality, reasons related to the acquisition of knowledge, travel, friendship, or instrumentality should be considered as independent orientations in future studies” (p. 286). This conclusion formed the basis of many of the orientations examined thereafter. For example, Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels (1994) tested (a) Instrumental (e.g., necessity for a future career), (b) Knowledge (e.g., ability to read French newspapers), (c) Travel (e.g., spending time abroad), (d) Friendship (e.g., making friends with foreigners), (e) Sociocultural (e.g., learning more about various cultures), and (f) Integrative (e.g., being similar to people of the target language culture) as six orientations for a study of Hungarian students studying English as a foreign language. The orientations in this study are based on the orientations of the Clément et al. study with the exception of the integrative orientation. Identification associated with the integrative orientation “… can be generalized to the cultural and intellectual values associated with the language, as well as to the actual L2 itself” (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 6). Therefore, we feel that four of the six orientations mentioned in the 1994 study relate to concepts that make up the integrative orientation. For example, the travel and friendship orientations involve meeting or communicating with L2 speakers, and the knowledge and sociocultural orientations speak to the intellectual and cultural aspects of the definition. These narrowed orientations and the fact that the definition for integrative motivation is still widely debated are reasons why we do not include the integrative orientation as a separate part of our instrument.

**Expectancy-Value Model of Motivation**

Although researchers have studied the expectancy-value model of motivation in domains such as mathematics, English, and engineering (e.g., Feather, 1988; Jones, Paretti, Hein, & Knott, 2010; Meece, Wigfield, & Eccles, 1990), few researchers have examined the theory in the domain of FL (e.g., Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). The expectancy-value model of motivation (Eccles, Adler, & Meece, 1984; Eccles et al., 1983; Eccles & Wigfield, 1995; Wigfield, 1994; Wigfield & Eccles, 1992) expands on the expectancy and value constructs initially developed by Tolman (1932), Lewin (1938), and Atkinson (1957, 1966). However, Eccles and her colleagues’ model “focuses on the social psychological reasons for people’s choices in achievement settings; thus, expectancy and value are defined as cognitive rather than purely motivational constructs” (Wigfield & Eccles, 1992, p. 278). As such, their model predicts that student performance is directly affected by both expectancies and values.

Researchers have tested the expectancy-value model empirically and found that students’ expectancy for success relates strongly to their performance on a task, whereas their values relate strongly to their intentions and choice of activities (Eccles, 1984a, 1984b; Eccles et al., 1983; Jones et al., 2010; Meece et al., 1990). The power of the model is derived from the fact that students’ achievement and motivation (e.g., their
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choice to engage and persist in something) can be assessed by examining their beliefs about their ability perceptions and values. For instance, Meece et al. (1990) found that junior high school students’ performance expectancies predicted subsequent grades and their perceived importance of math predicted their future course enrollment intentions. Students’ beliefs about their abilities and expectancies have been shown to be stronger predictors of their future grades than their prior achievement (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000).

Although expectancies for success and ability-related beliefs were initially conceptualized as being separate constructs (Eccles et al., 1983), confirmatory factor analyses using data from students in grades one to twelve have demonstrated that students’ expectancies and ability-related perceptions are not empirically distinct (Eccles & Wigfield, 1995; Eccles, Wigfield, Harold, & Blumenfeld, 1993). As a result, Eccles and Wigfield (1995) combined both constructs into one expectancy/ability perceptions factor.

For task value, Eccles and Wigfield (1995) have used factor analysis techniques to demonstrate empirically that achievement task value can be separated into at least three factors: intrinsic interest value, attainment value, and extrinsic utility value. Intrinsic interest value is defined as either the enjoyment experienced from performing a task or the subjective interest an individual has in a task. Attainment value is defined as the importance of doing well on a task in terms of one’s core personal values. The extrinsic utility value of a task is the usefulness of the task in terms of an individual’s short- and long-term goals. Although Eccles and Wigfield (1995) identified three separate factors within the “value” construct, they also found positive correlations between these three factors. Further, they found that the task value factors were related positively and moderately strongly to students’ expectancies/ability perceptions.

Research Questions

We surveyed students using (a) a Language Orientation Instrument (LOI) that assessed students’ language orientations on five subscales (i.e., Travel, Knowledge, Relationships, Instrumental, or Sociocultural) and (b) an Expectancy-Value Instrument for French (EVIF) that measured students’ expectancies for success and three values related to French (i.e., Intrinsic Value, Attainment Value, and Utility Value). The overall aim of the study was to better understand undergraduate French students’ motivations for studying French and their intentions to continue studying French. Our specific research questions, with respect to undergraduate, intermediate French students, were:

1. Are there differences between the mean values for the subscales of the LOI?
2. Are there differences between the mean values for the subscales of the EVIF?
3. To what extent are subscales of the LOI and the EVIF correlated?
4. Which, if any, of the variables measured with the LOI and the EVIF predict whether students will continue studying French?
Method

Participants
Of the 53 students enrolled in three sections of a 2000-level Intermediate French course at a large, public university, 46 students (86.8%) participated in this study by completing an online questionnaire in an on-campus computer lab during class time. Participants’ ages ranged from 17 to 32 (M = 19, SD = 2.28). The ethnic backgrounds of the students were 34 Caucasian (74%), 3 Asian (7%), 3 Hispanic (7%), 3 Other (7%), 1 African American (2%), and two students who did not provide a response (4%). More females than males completed the survey, with 28 females (61%) and 17 males (37%) participating. One student (2%) did not provide gender information. The breakdown by college class was 14 freshmen (30%), 16 sophomores (35%), 8 juniors (17%), and 6 seniors (13%). Two students (4%) did not report their class standing.

Rationale for Studying This Population
The university from which students were sampled is a large, public institution in a mid-Atlantic state and was chosen purposefully because of the FL requirements. The registrar’s office at the university states that “two units of a single foreign or classical language (or American Sign Language) during high school” (Office of the University Registrar, 2007) are required for graduation from the university. If these two units have not been met in high school, students must complete six credits (at three credits per course) of college-level foreign language study. Because many students achieve the two units of FL study in high school, the focus of this study was on students who chose to study a FL when it was not required of them. Furthermore, if the student is not a FL major or minor, additional FL requirements only apply to a couple of disciplines outside of the FL field. For global business minors, there is a three-semester FL requirement, and for international studies majors, there is a 12-hour requirement at the 3000 level (R. Shryock, personal communication, May 7, 2008).

For the current study, we focused on the students in the 2000-level courses because this is typically a level beyond the basic graduation requirement. The students attempting to fulfill the graduation requirement usually enroll in 1000 level courses. In addition, the 1000-level courses would not meet the minor or major requirement, whereas the 2000-level courses fulfill part of the French minor requirements. We did not include the 3000-level students because they are likely to be majors and minors in French and are more likely to continue with the language. The 2000-level students are on the brink of a significant commitment to the language, thus making this level most interesting to us in terms of motivation and enrollment.

At the 2000-level of language learning, the students were probably not affected by the FL requirement of the university because they had generally studied French either at the university or high school levels prior to enrolling in this French course. These students were motivated to enroll in this course due to other factors besides a FL requirement. Yet, these students are not typically planning on having a major in the language. As a result, their reasons for studying French might not be to fulfill major requirements or to continue to a level that would ensure a major.
Students’ motivations for studying French

As for French language enrollment at the university in this study, the enrollment totals from the fall of 2003 to the spring of 2007 indicate a fluctuation in enrollment (see Figure 1). The last fluctuation was an upswing from 483 total French students during the 2005-2006 school year to 661 students during the 2006-2007 school year, then up to 686 for the following 2007-2008 school year (R. Shryock, personal communication, March 12, 2008). This is in contrast to the miniscule increase presented in the MLA survey (Furman et al., 2007). However, in the fall of 2007, the percentage of students at this university who chose to take French was 1.5%, an extremely low percentage of the total students at the school.

Figure 1. French enrollment for school years 1999-2000 through 2007-2008 for all undergraduate levels 1000 through 4000.

Procedure

All students attending class on the day the questionnaire was administered were given oral and written instructions that completing the questionnaire implied their consent to participate in the study. The students did not report their names on the questionnaire in order to ensure anonymity. Instead, they provided the last four digits of their student identification numbers.

To ensure internal consistency, the same professor taught each class section and required the same assignments and assessments. The questionnaire was administered on the same day in October for the three sections of the course. During that week, students decided in which courses they wished to enroll for the next semester. We purposefully selected that particular period during the fall semester because the students had the opportunity to think seriously about whether or not they wanted to enroll in the next 2000-level Intermediate French course for the spring semester. Students were given a password to access the online questionnaire to ensure that no
one else could access the questionnaire website. With no time constraint, it took the students about 20-40 minutes to complete the online questionnaire.

Measures

Language Orientations Instrument (LOI). The items in the Language Orientation Instrument were derived from two previously tested instruments. We modified the instruments used in Clément and his colleagues’ (1994) research by making minor additions and changes. We replaced the word “English” with the word “French” in each of the items. We also changed the initial wording for the items from “Studying English is important to me…” (Clément & Baker, 2001, pp. 28-29) to “I am studying French….” (see the Appendix for the 25 items used in the present study). In addition, the instrumental item of the State Language Exam for Canada was removed from the present study because it does not apply to FL study in the U.S. Due to family influences on FL choice (Bartram, 2006; Sung & Padilla, 1998), we decided that the friendship orientation should include items based on family, so it was renamed Relationships. The item concerning family was added to the Relationships subscale and appears in this category as item number 5 in the Appendix.

The orientations we used in the current study were (a) Travel, (b) Knowledge, (c) Relationships, (d) Instrumental, and (e) Sociocultural. The Travel subscale measured the extent to which students studied French because they wanted to study abroad or travel to French-speaking countries. The Knowledge subscale measured the extent to which students studied French because they viewed it as important to being an educated person or because they wanted to have the ability to read magazines, newspapers, and books in French. The Relationships subscale measured the extent to which students studied French because they wanted to make friends in foreign countries or relate better to others who know French. The Instrumental subscale measured the extent to which students studied French because it is expected of them or they might need it for school or a future job. The Sociocultural subscale measured the extent to which students studied French because they wanted to understand other cultures or the francophone world, including French TV, films, and music. Because this U.S. study was carried out in a monolingual and unicultural setting, the integrative items were not included in our instrument. Whether students realize they are studying a FL for substantial reasons or not, studies indicate that each one of these orientations lends relevance to them as FL motivators.

To enhance test score reliability, we did not classify the items by subscale on the actual questionnaire; instead, we mixed the order of the items. The Cronbach's alphas for internal consistency for each of the subscales ranged from .56 to .83, as shown in the Appendix. With the exception of the Sociocultural subscale, the alpha values were fairly low, indicating a low level of internal reliability. These values were consistent with the alpha values in the Clément et al. (1994) study in which they ranged from .50 to .80 (Clément & Baker, 2001).

Expectancy-Value Instrument for French (EVIF). We designed the four subscales of this instrument to measure the four constructs discussed previously in the expectancy-value model of motivation section, including expectancy/ability beliefs, intrinsic interest value, attainment value, and extrinsic utility value (Eccles et al., 1983; Eccles
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& Wigfield, 1995). The items for each subscale of this instrument are provided in the Appendix. In general, we designed the 12 items to be similar in format and content to those designed by Eccles and Wigfield (1995), because their items have been shown to have excellent face, convergent, and discriminate validity, as well as strong psychometric properties (Eccles et al., 1983; Jacobs, Lanza, Osgood, Eccles, & Wigfield, 2002). Because the scales used by Eccles and Wigfield (1995) measured students’ perceptions in the domain of mathematics, we changed the word “mathematics” in each item to “French” and reworded the items as needed for them to make sense to a student enrolled in a university French course. We also changed the response scale from the original 7-point scale to a 6-point scale to maintain consistency with the scales used in the LOI. For brevity, two of the items from the original Expectancy/Ability subscale were omitted for the current survey. One item was added to the Extrinsic Utility value subscale for the present survey to include the usefulness of the language in today’s world. The Cronbach alpha values for each of the subscales were very good and ranged from .73 to .88, as shown in the Appendix.

Intention to continue studying French item. This item measured the extent to which students intended to continue studying French in the future. The item read “What is the likelihood that you will continue to study French in the future?” and was rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Not likely at all) to 6 (Very likely).

Analysis

We assessed students’ reasons for studying French using the LOI and the EVIF. We computed the means for each of the LOI and EVIF subscales by averaging the values of the items within each subscale. Using repeated measures ANOVAs, we compared the means for the LOI subscales separately from the means of the EVIF subscales because the instruments were derived from different theoretical frameworks. To determine the extent to which the LOI subscales and the EVIF subscales were correlated, we computed Pearson’s correlation coefficients between all of the subscales. We conducted two linear regression analyses using the orientation variables from the LOI as the predictor variables in one regression model and the expectancy and value variables from the EVIF as the predictor variables in a second regression model. The intention to continue studying French item was the dependent (i.e., criterion) variable in both of the regression models.

Results

Comparison of Means

Language Orientation Instrument. Table 1 summarizes the mean values of each subscale of the LOI. To compare the mean values, we conducted a repeated measures ANOVA and documented a statistical difference, \( F(4, 180) = 66.8, p < .001 \), indicating a significant difference in the means of the scales. To identify which orientations differed from one another, we conducted a Bonferroni post hoc test and found that Travel was rated the highest and Instrumental was rated the lowest. Students generally agreed that they studied French for reasons related to travel; they agreed only to an extent that
they studied it for knowledge, sociocultural, and relationship reasons; and they had reservations about whether they studied it for instrumental reasons.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for the LOI Scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Orientation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>95% CI LB</th>
<th>95% CI UB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Travel</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>4.88a</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>5.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>4.16b</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>4.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociocultural</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>4.07b</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>4.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3.73c</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>3.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3.06d</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean values with the same superscript were not statistically different from one another ($p < .05$); $M =$ Mean; $SD =$ Standard Deviation; $SE =$ Standard Error; $CI =$ Confidence Interval; $LB =$ Lower Bound; $UB =$ Upper Bound.

Expectancy-Value Instrument for French. The mean values for each subscale of the EVIF are presented in Table 2. The mean values were compared using a repeated measures ANOVA, $F(3, 135) = 23.1, p < .001$. Mauchly's test indicated that the assumption of sphericity was violated; therefore, the $F$ value was recalculated adjusting for this assumption. The degrees of freedom were corrected using Huynh-Feldt estimates of sphericity ($\epsilon = .94$). The adjusted calculation yielded $F(2.82, 127.13) = 23.1, p < .001$. This finding indicates a significant difference in the mean values of the EVIF subscales. A Bonferroni test revealed that the Intrinsic and Attainment values had similar and statistically higher mean values than Expectancy and Utility. Students generally agreed that they enjoyed studying French and that it was important to them to learn French. They agreed to a certain extent that they expected to do well in learning French and that French was useful in their life and in the world.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for the EVIF Scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expectancy and Values</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>95% CI LB</th>
<th>95% CI UB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>5.20a</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>5.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attainment</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>5.11a</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>5.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectancy</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>4.38b</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>4.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utility</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>4.35b</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>4.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean values with the same superscript were not statistically different from one another ($p < .05$). $M =$ Mean; $SD =$ Standard Deviation; $SE =$ Standard Error; $CI =$ Confidence Interval; $LB =$ Lower Bound; $UB =$ Upper Bound.

Intention to continue studying French item. The mean value of the intention to continue studying French in the future item was 5.16 ($SD = 1.40$), indicating that
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students reported that they were likely to continue studying French. Due to the fact that the criterion variable for the regression analysis of the LOI and the EVIF scales is heavily skewed, the potential correlation with other variables could be decreased.

Correlations among Variables

The results of the correlational analysis among the orientation variables documented that each of the orientation variables was positively and significantly correlated to the other orientation variables, with values ranging from .36 to .76 (see Table 3). All correlations between the expectancy and value variables were also significantly, positively correlated (except for the one between Expectancy and Attainment) and ranged from .29 to .56. The highest correlations involved Attainment, which was highly correlated with Intrinsic and Utility.

In examining the correlations between the orientation variables and the expectancy and value variables, we found a pattern in which the orientation variables were generally not correlated with the expectancy or value variables (see Table 3). In fact, Travel and Sociocultural were not significantly correlated with any of the expectancy or value variables. Relationships was significantly correlated with only Attainment; Instrumental was significantly correlated with only Utility. Knowledge was significantly correlated with Intrinsic, Attainment, and Utility.

Table 3. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients for Orientation, Expectancy, and Value Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LOI subscales</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Travel</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Knowledge</td>
<td>.36*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Relationships</td>
<td>.58**</td>
<td>.67**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Instrumental</td>
<td>.46**</td>
<td>.54**</td>
<td>.49**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Sociocultural</td>
<td>.69**</td>
<td>.70**</td>
<td>.76**</td>
<td>.57**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EVIF subscales</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. Expectancy</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Intrinsic</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.32*</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.42**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Attainment</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.42**</td>
<td>.32*</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.56**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Utility</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.38**</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.44**</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.44**</td>
<td>.37*</td>
<td>.60**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. For all scales, N = 46 and the significance is a 2-tailed test. * p < .05. **p < .01.

Predictions of Intention to Continue Studying French

Orientations as predictors. The intention to continue studying French item served as the dependent (i.e., criterion) variable, and the independent (i.e., predictor) variables were the five subscales of the LOI. Because the five subscales were highly correlated, we examined the tolerance values as measures of collinearity for the regression analysis. A
small tolerance value can be problematic because it indicates that the variable is highly collinear with the other predictor variables, which can cause problems in estimating the regression coefficients. We considered tolerance values of less than 0.25 as indicating a problem with collinearity (Miles & Shevlin, 2004), but found that none of the tolerance values were less than 0.25 for any of our analyses. Table 4 presents the results of the General Linear Model regression analysis for the students’ intention to continue to study the French language. The adjusted $R^2$ is reported with Tables 4 and 5 for this purpose because it takes into account the lower sample size and number of predictors. The Sociocultural orientation was the only predictor of continuation to study French ($B = .790; p = .04$); none of the other variables were significant predictors. It must be noted that the Sociocultural orientation exhibited the highest reliability of internal consistency among the orientation variables (see Appendix).

Table 4. Summary of the Regression Analysis for the Language Orientation Variables Predicting the Continuation of French Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>$SE$</th>
<th>$\beta^a$</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
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<td>1.67</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociocultural</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>-.27</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>-.72</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>-.21</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.55</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel</td>
<td>-.18</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.43</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. $N = 46; R^2 = .282; \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .190; SE = \text{Standard Error } B.$

*Standardized coefficient $\beta$

Expectancy and values as predictors. Because some of the expectancy and value variables were highly correlated, we examined the tolerance values as measures of collinearity for the regression analyses, but found that none of the tolerance values were less than 0.25 for any of our analyses. The results of the regression analysis using the expectancy and value variables as predictors are presented in Table 5. Attainment value was the only statistically significant predictor of students’ intention to continue studying French ($B = .77; p = .03$); Expectancy, Utility, and Intrinsic were not significant predictors.

Table 5. Summary of the Regression Analysis for the Expectancy and Value Variables Predicting the Continuation of French Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>$SE$</th>
<th>$\beta^a$</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attainment</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>-.19</td>
<td>-1.16</td>
<td>.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectancy</td>
<td>-.30</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utility</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.42</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Students’ motivations for studying French**

*Note.* N = 46; R² = .226; Adjusted R² = .149; SE = Standard Error B

*Standardized coefficient β*

**Discussion**

The main purposes of this study were to investigate students’ motivations for studying French and for intending to continue to study French at a large, public university. Our findings are similar to those of other studies, yet they differ in some ways. We also recognize that a larger sample size would yield more accurate results. The main findings are presented in Figure 2 and are discussed in this section.

**Figure 2.** Variables that explain why students study French and intend to continue their study of French.

![Diagram](image-url)

**Research Questions 1 and 2: Differences in the LOI and EVIF Subscales**

Based on the variables measured by the LOI, students reported that they study French because it will help them when they are traveling. This was also the top-rated reason by Hungarian students studying English in a study by Clément et al. (1994; in their study, they combined the travel orientation items with friendship items in the resulting factor labeled “Xenophilic”). To a lesser extent, students in the present study agreed that they studied French to become more knowledgeable, to learn more about francophone culture, and to speak with family or friends who know the language. This last reason is different from integrative orientation as integrative implies that the student would be in constant contact with a French-speaker. Living in the part of the U.S. where our study was conducted does not make this orientation a feasible reason for studying French. Finally, students had some reservations about agreeing that they studied French because it was useful for future studies or careers.

The results from the EVIF indicated that students enjoy the French language and francophone cultures and find them interesting. They also feel that it is important to learn French. Students did not rate the usefulness of French as highly as intrinsic interest and the value of importance (attainment), although they did find it somewhat useful in their life and in today’s world. Similarly, their perceptions of how well they expected to do in learning French were average, and not rated as very high or very low.
Taken together, the results of the LOI and the EVIF portray intermediate French students as those who think that studying French is important and who study French for its value in traveling and the enjoyment they obtain from studying it. These students do not necessarily believe that the language has a lot of practical use in their life on a daily basis.

**Research Question 3: Extent of Correlations among Instrument Subscales**

The correlations among the subscales in the LOI were very high, indicating that there was significant overlap in the constructs that they measured. The correlations were especially high for the Sociocultural subscale, which makes sense given the type of items in the scale. For instance, one item on the Sociocultural subscale asks whether students are studying French because it will enable them to learn more about what is happening in the world, which appears to be similar to the item on the Knowledge subscale that asks whether they are studying French to become a more knowledgeable person. Another question on the Sociocultural subscale asks whether students are studying French because it will enable them to learn more about the francophone world, which is similar to the item on the Travel subscale that asks whether they are studying French to spend some time abroad. Learning about the francophone world would seem to help them if they spend some time abroad; thus, we would expect students who answer highly on one of these items to answer highly on another.

Clément et al. (1994) also found a strong relationship ($r = .51$) between the travel/friendship orientation (which they combined to form a Xenophilic orientation) and the sociocultural orientation.

The fact that the subscales on the LOI are so highly correlated raises some broader questions, such as whether these subscales are indeed measuring separate constructs. We did not have enough statistical power with our sample size in the present study to run a confirmatory factor analysis, but such an analysis would be very helpful to determine whether these subscale constructs overlap to a large extent or not. We were also concerned about the internal consistency reliability of the subscales because four of the five subscales had Cronbach’s alpha values of .63 or lower. The internal consistency reliability for these subscales is “questionable” at best (George & Mallery, 2003), making us believe that the scores obtained on the LOI have a low validity for the population that we studied. The alpha values for these scales in the study by Clément et al. (1994) were also low, with three of the five subscales having alpha values of .65 or lower and the other two with values of .72 (Sociocultural) and .80 (Friendship) (Clément & Baker, 2001). Future studies should examine the validity of the scores obtained with this instrument for different populations.

For the EVIF, we found positive and significant correlations among the three value constructs (ranging from .37 to .60), as well as between expectancy and intrinsic interest value ($r = .42$) and between expectancy and extrinsic utility value ($r = .44$). Eccles and Wigfield (1995) had also reported positive correlations among the three value constructs (ranging from .56 to .79) and, at two different time points (i.e., Year 1 and Year 2), that the task value factors were related positively to students’ expectancies/ability perceptions (correlations ranging from .37 to .53). This suggests that the findings from Eccles and Wigfield (1995) can be generalized to college students in the domain.
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of French. Because Eccles and Wigfield conducted factor analyses on the constructs comprising the expectancy and value subscales, we have assumed that the subscales are measuring the intended constructs. However, a study designed to test this assertion with a population of college-aged French students would provide more direct evidence.

The finding that expectancy and values are related is important because some of the original expectancy research hypothesized that there was an inverse relationship between these constructs (i.e., that they were correlated negatively) (Atkinson, 1957). Our study supports the idea that if students possess a high value for a domain, they also have a high expectancy for success.

As far as we know, no other L2 study has investigated the correlations between the subscales of the LOI and the EVIF. Our findings indicate that most of the subscales in these instruments are not correlated. For example, the sociocultural and travel constructs were not correlated with any of the constructs in the EVIF; and expectancy was not correlated with any of the constructs in the LOI. The knowledge construct was the only LOI construct correlated with all three value constructs. This indicates that students who want to learn French in order to have more general knowledge also find French interesting, believe that it is important for them to learn French, and find it useful. The fact that the instrumental and extrinsic utility value were significantly correlated makes sense because both subscales ask students about the usefulness of studying French as it relates to some aspect of their life (e.g., job, school, and daily life).

Most of the LOI and EVIF subscales are not correlated, indicating that these two instruments measure some different constructs. Based on the high correlations between the LOI subscales and the low reliability of the scores obtained from the LOI subscales, we question whether the scores obtained on the LOI with intermediate French students are valid. Further instrument development is needed to determine whether these scales can be used with this type of population. However, the EVIF might be a useful instrument for researchers interested in understanding the motivations of this population.

Research Question 4: Predictors of Intention to Continue Studying French

Our fourth research question was: Do any of the variables measured with the LOI or the EVIF predict whether students will continue studying French? We did not include the subscales from both the LOI and the EVIF in the same regression model because the models are based on different theoretical orientations and the constructs might overlap. Two constructs, one from each model, emerged as predictors of the likelihood that students would continue to study French. In the first regression model, sociocultural orientation predicted students’ intention to continue and in the second regression model, attainment value predicted it (see Figure 2).

Students who study French for sociocultural reasons, such as watching films, listening to popular music, and learning about other cultures in the world are more likely to continue taking intermediate French courses. It is interesting that students rated travel as the highest reason for studying French, yet the sociocultural reasons were the ones that predicted whether or not they would continue their studies. Our finding is somewhat different from that of Noels, Pelletier, Clément, and Vallerand (2000) in that they found that travel correlated most significantly with students’ intention to
continue to study French. However, they did not use a prediction calculation and did not include the sociocultural orientation in their analysis. In the present study, the travel and sociocultural orientations correlated highly \((r = .69)\); therefore, our finding is likely not very different from that of Noels et al. It is reasonable that students who want to learn about French culture and people also want to travel to French-speaking countries.

The fact that attainment value predicted students’ decisions to continue to enroll in French is not surprising given recent studies in other domains that have documented similar results. In a survey investigating prediction of further study in Spanish courses at a Midwestern university, Hernández (2006) documented that when considering instrumental, requirement, and integrative orientations, the integrative construct was the best predictor of continuation. The Hernández study differs from this study in that, unlike French, Spanish is a language that is common enough in the U.S. to attract students due to integrative motivation. It would be difficult to compare this portion of the Spanish course study and our study unless our study took place in a country with native French-speakers, such as Canada. Knowing what motivates students in an instructional setting is the aim of this study and is what makes it unique. Furthermore, the Hernández study combined other orientations such as friendship and sociocultural with the integrative orientation. We considered these as separate orientations from integrative; therefore, friendships or relationships and sociocultural are individual constructs in our study. The integrative or friendship/sociocultural items with the highest mean asked students about whether they found Spanish important, which is a similar construct measured by attainment value. Thus, the results of our study are consistent with those of Hernández.

A similar study, but conducted in the domain of music education, documented that undergraduate music education students who thought that music education was important and valuable to them (i.e., they had a high attainment value for music education) were the ones who were most likely to plan on having a career in music education (Jones & Parkes, 2010). Findings from studies such as these highlight the fact that students are more likely to intend to continue in a domain when they believe that the domain is important and valuable to them (i.e., when the students are identified with the domain, for a discussion see Osborne & Jones, 2011).

**Recommendations for Further Study**

Future studies could implement the LOI and EVIF with students studying other languages, such as Spanish. A study of students in intermediate Spanish from a similar university would be a relevant complement to this study. Spanish would be an interesting language to compare to French because it is the most popular language taught in the U.S. It would also be interesting to see if the reasons for taking Spanish are the same or different for choosing French.
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The present study documents undergraduate students’ reasons for studying French, but if students began French language study in high school, this study does not allow us to understand why students initially began studying French. It would be interesting to survey middle and high school French students to determine what motivates students at these levels to study the language. This type of knowledge could help French teachers at the middle and high school levels adjust their curricula to better match students’ motivations. If advocacy at the lower levels can influence students to study the language, then hopefully, more students will enroll in college-level French classes. Instructors might find the ideas in the following pedagogical implications section useful for attracting and retaining French students.

Students study French primarily because it is useful for their future travels, because they find it enjoyable, and because it is important to them. French language study also allows them to learn more about French culture. Given students’ interest in travel, it would seem reasonable to provide opportunities to travel to French cultures. One obvious way to do this in a university course is through study abroad. In a study that compares studying French on-campus in the U.S. to studying abroad in France, a higher number of students studying abroad wished to continue studying French at the next level when they returned to campus (Ingram, 2005). Because studying abroad is not an option for all students, another suggestion is for instructors to consider developing activities that mimic real travel situations. Levi Altstaedter and Jones (2009) describe a curriculum in which Spanish language college students completed a WebQuest in which they took an imaginary, yet realistic, trip to Argentina. After doing so, students reported that they thought that the Spanish language and Hispanic culture were more interesting, more important, and more useful than they had believed previously (i.e., they rated their intrinsic, attainment, and utility values for the language and culture higher).

Besides WebQuests, various forms of technology can be used to support students’ interest in communicating with French speakers around the globe. Synchronous electronic interaction through computers and the Internet is a way to have conversations that are similar to face-to-face conversations (Shrum & Glisan, 2005). Known as telecollaboration, key pals, e-mail exchanges, real-time chats, and videoconferencing are classroom-based activities that might interest students and increase the likelihood that they will enroll in FL courses in the future.

Global simulation also offers a contextualized basis for language learning. In global simulation, students create fictive characters and interact with each other while learning through contextualized themes, such as “living in a community, the Montmartre quarter, French cuisine, healthy lifestyles, reality television, love stories, and murder mysteries” (Mills & Péron, 2009, p. 8). These cultural aspects of francophone countries, along with authentic films, books, and newspapers, can meet students’ sociocultural curiosity and motivate them to continue studying French.

Because attainment value was also an indicator of whether students would continue studying French, instructors should consider how their course contributes to
students’ long-term (a.k.a., individual) interests (see Jones, 2009). Experiences such as service-learning projects could provide this type of firsthand experience. For example, teaching young children as part of a community-based teaching project could support students’ feelings that the language is important. A recent study showcased a service-learning course in which French language learners taught French in the community to preschool and K-5 children. Almost all of the university students indicated that the experience increased their motivation to learn French and improved their French (Grim, 2010). Involving students in service-learning projects could also be a means to connect students to local French speakers if there are any in the area. As an example, instructors could ask local refugee and immigration offices about student volunteering, especially with Haitian populations who speak French. Offering many conversational and exchange opportunities would seem imperative to encouraging students to study French and to maintain their interest.

Due to the fact that the instrumental orientation and utility value were among the least important factors for students to study French, it might be possible to show students how French can be useful in their lives in order to gain the types of students who are not considering French language study. Perhaps students are unaware of the usefulness of the language. Instructors could remind students of jobs and careers that use French, including ones that the students might not have considered (Shryock, 2009). Instructors could also have guest lecturers come into the classroom to speak to the students about how people in their jobs use French. These types of activities might change students’ perceptions about the usefulness of French.

Conclusion

Intermediate-level French students, who have a choice in whether or not they enroll in a college French course, study French in college primarily because they find it enjoyable, important to them, and useful for their future travels. Studying French also allows them to learn more about French culture. Students are more likely to continue taking intermediate French courses when they believe that studying French is important and when they want to learn more about French language and culture. Given these findings, it seems reasonable for French instructors who teach lower-level French language students to show students why learning about French language and culture can be interesting and important to them through various pedagogical techniques. We hope that French instructors will be able to use the results of this study to attract and maintain future French students in their courses.
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References


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**Appendix**

Questionnaire Items

*Language Orientation Instrument (LOI)*

The following Language Orientation items were adapted from Clément and Baker (2001, pp. 28-29). All items were rated on a Likert-type scale with the following response options: 1 = Totally disagree, 2 = Generally disagree, 3 = I have reservations, 4 = Agree to a certain extent, 5 = Generally agree, and 6 = Totally agree.
Travel (α = .63)
I am studying French
1. because I would like to spend some time abroad.
2. because it will help me when traveling.
3. because without French, I would not be able to travel a lot.
4. because I would like to travel to countries where French is used.

Knowledge (α = .56)
I am studying French
1. so that I can become a more knowledgeable person.
2. so that I can broaden my outlook.
3. because I would like to learn as many foreign languages as possible.
4. because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak French.
5. so that I can read French books, newspapers, or magazines.

Relationships (α = .63)
I am studying French
1. because I would like to meet foreigners with whom I can speak French.
2. because I would like to make friends with foreigners.
3. so that I can keep in touch with foreign friends and acquaintances.
4. because it will enable me to get to know people from different parts of the world.
5. because a relative of mine knows French.
6. because my friends study French.

Instrumental (α = .58)
I am studying French
1. because I may need it later on for a job/career.
2. because I may need it later on for my studies.
3. because without it, one cannot be successful in one’s field.
4. because I do not want to get bad grades in school.
5. because it is expected of me or required.

Sociocultural (α = .83)
I am studying French
1. so that I can understand French-speaking films, video, TV, or radio.
2. so that I can understand French popular music.
3. because it will enable me to learn more about what is happening in the world.
4. because it will enable me to learn more about the francophone world.
5. because it will enable me to learn about various cultures and peoples.
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Expectancy-Value Instrument for French (EVIF)

The following expectancy and value items were adapted from Eccles and Wigfield (1995, p. 224). All items were rated on a 6-point Likert-type scale with the endpoints as noted below.

**Expectancy in French (α = .88)**
1. Compared to other students, how well do you expect to do in French? (Much worse than other students, Much better than other students)
2. How well do you think you will do in Intermediate French this semester? (Very poorly, Very well)
3. How good are you at French? (Not good at all, Very good)

**Intrinsic Interest Value for French (α = .79)**
1. In general, I find French (Very boring, Very interesting)
2. How much do you like French? (Not very much, Very much)
3. In general, I find francophone cultures (Very boring, Very interesting)
4. How much do you like francophone cultures? (Not very much, Very much)

**Attainment Value for French (α = .84)**
1. Is the amount of effort it will take to learn French worthwhile to you? (Not very worthwhile, Very worthwhile)
2. I feel that being good at French is (Not at all important, Very important)
3. How important is it to you to learn French? (Not at all important, Very important)

**Extrinsic Utility Value for French (α = .73)**
1. How useful is knowing French for your daily life? (Not at all useful, Very useful)
2. How useful is knowing French to you in today’s world? (Not at all useful, Very useful)
Developing intercultural competence via semi-directed cross-cultural interviews

Kristin Hoyt, Kennesaw State University

Abstract
An intermediate-level French conversation class module, Francophone Interviews, is designed to advance university students’ oral language use and foster their development of intercultural competence. The module involves four phases: (a) class discussion on conducting cross-cultural interviews, (b) collaborative development of interview questions, (c) student-initiated one-on-one interviews with native francophones, and (d) oral reporting of interview findings in student presentations. The module addresses student learning outcomes for the course, while solidly placed within the Five Cs framework. Additionally, the module inspires communicative language use in a real-world context that meaningfully engages foreign language students in a personalized and learning experience.

Background and Context
In spite of widespread acceptance of the national Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century (2008) as a curricular framework for many foreign language (FL) programs across the country, relative vagueness lingers on how best to address the Cultures standards.1 As early as 1978, Robinson introduced the notion of the “magic-carpet-ride-to-another-culture syndrome” as a false conjecture that study of a foreign language consequentially results in understanding of the

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target culture(s). Yet today, there is growing discussion in the field of FL education advocating for the development of models for the teaching and assessment of students’ attainment of cultural competence (Schulz, 2007). Recurrent across the spectrum of programs are mismatches between current classroom practices and programs’ stated positions on the teaching of culture. Byrnes (2010) points out that the profession experiences continued dissatisfaction with the outcome of its efforts to address culture in the curriculum, yet there are nonetheless emergent proposals to move the agenda forward. Most particularly, FL educators are seeking ways to facilitate learning experiences that genuinely address the perspectives underlying the practices and products of the cultures being studied. That is, FL teachers are eager to pursue approaches that go beyond the level of compare/contrast and that advance learners’ awareness and understanding of the interaction between and among cultural practices, products, and perspectives. The Francophone Interviews Module (FIM) is a course assignment that represents one program’s efforts to penetrate the veneer of cultural elements and customs by delving deeper to facilitate a learning experience that fosters intercultural competence.

To plan for instructional delivery and classroom implementation of a course assignment such as FIM, there is need to bridge the gap between the broad, yet elusive nature of the Cultures goal: “Gain knowledge and understanding of other cultures” and the needed specificity of measurable student learning outcomes for an assignment. An abbreviated and adapted version of Byram’s (1997) seminal model of intercultural competence was thereby used as a framework for articulating specific student outcomes for the FIM to bridge that gap. In addition, Byram’s model was used to frame the project in two other ways: (a) as an instructional point of departure and guidance for the course instructor in facilitating student development of meaningful and appropriate interview questions as well as in evaluating the content of student presentations; and (b) as substance for post-project questionnaire items to elicit student feedback reflecting their personal and academic learning experiences during implementation of the module.

As others have also observed, Fantini noted that intercultural communicative competence represents a “complex of abilities” (2005, p. 1). This complexity is clearly illustrated by the detail manifest through the twenty-nine objectives in Byram’s model of intercultural competence. Despite an inevitable complexity necessitated when articulating a construct that within itself hosts a constellation of notions, there is nonetheless a simplicity in the essence of intercultural competence, if one considers a straightforward look at social interaction. That is, human interchange fundamentally relies on languages, and “the experience of otherness” through languages and their associated cultures is a basic requisite to attainment of intercultural competence (Cohen-Emerique, 1993). The FIM brings together content and context to cultivate intercultural competence in language learners. Intercultural competence is defined here as a multifaceted
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ability—including knowledge, skills, and dispositions—which is critical for effective interaction with members of other cultures and which reflects a deliberate awareness of differences and similarities and a conscious de-centering that considers others’ perspectives without accentuating foreignness or stereotyping (Byram, 2003; Byram, 2010; Colles, 1994; Elola & Oskoz, 2008; Fantini, 2005; Scarino, 2010). The content is interview questions mediated with language, and the context is interpersonal exchange via cross-cultural interview.

Classroom Delivery and Implementation of the FIM

With respect to classroom delivery, the FIM has four phases. The first phase of the module involves in-class and online discussion on the nature of a cross-cultural interview. The second phase includes individual and group in-class activities and homework tasks related to the development of interview questions. The third phase involves students independently scheduling and conducting their one-on-one interviews. And finally, the module culminates with in-class presentations that report on the interviews. Concurrent with students’ completed revisions of their interview questions at the end of phase two, the instructor models a final oral presentation, based on an interview with a native francophone conducted in the same manner and aligned with the same criteria for evaluation by which students will be assessed. Although a sequential approach is necessary for dealing with the time management demands inherent in any course delivery, implementation of the module is fluid; and within reasonable parameters, the timing of the phases is gauged by student readiness and responsiveness to teachable moments. Moreover, the locus of control with the FIM shifts over time, beginning with teacher-facilitated discussions that merge into increasingly student-directed work in the form of various student collaborative tasks, and culminating with an independent learner reflective activity.

The goal and objectives of the module are shared with students from the outset. The broad goal of the FIM is to advance oral proficiency in French and to promote intercultural competence. The objectives addressing this goal are as follows:

a. Students will create and utilize interview questions that employ a breadth of vocabulary and expressions to meaningfully navigate a cultural exchange;
b. students will plan and carry out one-on-one interviews with a francophone individual; and
c. students will prepare and deliver oral presentations based on the content of their interviews, in which they narrate and describe in major time frames, using connected discourse of paragraph length.

Step one. Over the course of approximately four class sessions, a portion of class time is dedicated to articulating the nature of the upcoming interview assignment, including an overview of the four-phase module, suggestions for making contact with native speakers of French, and general expectations for participation in individual and group tasks both inside and outside of class. The instructor shares information on campus resources for identifying native
speakers of French, such as international student organizations, a conversation partners program for international students, and the native speaker tutors working in the foreign language resource center. Students offer additional suggestions from their own experience on how to make contact with native speakers on campus or in the community. Typically, numerous students indicate that they already have someone in mind to interview, even at this early juncture.

In addition, a simple step-by-step process is proposed for getting started, especially for students expressing insecurity about confidence in spoken French language skills, and those experiencing inhibitions about approaching someone with whom they have not been previously acquainted. Also, to facilitate students’ planning, the instructor provides them with specificity regarding a time span of dates when interviews should be conducted and dates when oral presentations will be delivered. To explicitly reinforce the message of courtesy norms and cultural sensitivity, the following two points are repeated and discussed during each class session leading up to the student oral presentations. Advice: (a) be open to unanticipated answers; and (b) be adaptable to other possibilities in terms of questions or topics. Over time, students develop growing insight and generate more reflective feedback in response to these prompts.

Step two. As a brainstorming activity, class members share initial ideas of topics for the interviews, reflecting personal interests. The topics are recorded as a point of departure for possible interview questions, and students are given the out-of-class assignment for each to post a submission to the online working document of possible interview questions. The instructor collates the posted submissions, and the next step involves ongoing and collaborative development of the list of possible interview questions as an in-class activity. Students are encouraged to consider the nature and content of questions not only in response to their own interests, but also taking into account appropriate topics for speaking with a new acquaintance and considering the viewpoints of an acquaintance that may be unknown or largely unfamiliar to the interviewer. Complementary to question development, an additional component of step two involves a preliminary discussion centered on cultural sensitivity and courtesy that is framed around the following points, all of which hinge on an intentional open-endedness: (a) When asking questions about daily life or traditions, extend the questions by inviting the interviewee to share perspectives or attitudes behind the customs and traditions; (b) we are generally inclined to focus on surface similarities and differences between cultures; in the interview go further by exploring more deeply any historical, geographical, or societal explanations that might provide some basis for the similarities and differences; (c) keep in mind that there are many viewpoints that may explain patterns of daily life, customs, or cultural products; and (d) our responsibility as global citizens is to remain open-minded to unknown or unexpected possibilities and discover something about our diverse world.

Step three. Along with continued input and clarification on the list of evolving interview questions being developed during step three, collaborative discussion techniques are employed to expand upon the evolving topic of how to effectively conduct intercultural interviews. (The two points of advice
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mentioned above as well as the subsequent pointers on cultural sensitivity and courtesy are recycled.) Students are given opportunities in class to rehearse asking the proposed interview questions to classmates. Similar to the ethnographic interview approach reported by Bateman (2002) and Robinson-Stuart & Nocon (1996), students receive explicit guidance on “probing a point” by extending initial questions with follow-up related questions and reactions to the interviewee’s comments. To the extent possible, the instructor assigns students to pairs where personal interests are likely to be less similar in order to inspire more natural curiosity and to facilitate development of question-asking skills. Class discussion on using linguistic structures that convey courtesy is supported with explicit examples, such as the use of the conditional tense for politeness and attenuation and structuring open-ended questions that invite extended responses beyond yes/no. Students practice using the list of interview questions as a guide to expand discussion of topics that prove fruitful and as a prompt to support the flow of conversation when language competency or confidence eludes them.

**Step four.** For the final phase of question development, the instructor shares the near-final version of possible interview questions, which are grouped thematically. Class discussion ensues on the flexible usability of the groupings according to the interviewer’s and interviewee’s interests, the degree of familiarity between the two individuals (from brand new acquaintance to previously established relationship), and in response to the conversational flow of the interview. Even given the many dynamics of the interview, including all the potential nuances of intercultural exchange, the influence of subtleties between the interviewer’s and interviewee’s personalities, and the variability of competence and confidence in the interviewers’ French oral proficiencies, students demonstrate an increasingly sophisticated understanding of the interview dynamic over time as the FIM evolves. Such development is exhibited during this fourth step as students offer final suggestions to clarify question wording or potential extension and alternate questions in the various thematically-organized categories. Finally, the collaboratively developed interview questions are posted on the course website for student use. (See Appendix A.) During step four, the instructor discloses the evaluative scoring rubric to be used in assessing student presentations. (See Appendix B.) It is at this point that the instructor models the oral presentation, expecting the exemplar to function as an invitation for students to proceed. Here again, students and instructor cooperatively review the advice and pointers on cultural sensitivity and courtesy norms. Students are invited to share specifics on how they anticipate acknowledging and adhering to the suggested tenets of cultural sensitivity and courtesy.

**Step five.** The FIM culminates with prepared individual student presentations. Students use a visually-supported presentation program, such as PowerPoint, to enhance delivery of their oral presentations, adhering to general guiding principles for effective visually-supported presentations. Presentations are guided by a specified time allotment of seven to ten minutes. Students listening to their
classmates’ presentations receive participation points for contribution of meaningful and responsive questions posed afterward.

Assessment of the FIM

**Student Learning.** One of the more challenging aspects of the FIM is the assessment of student learning. Herein the module positively contributes to current dialogue among language educators, heeding the call for instructional approaches that focus on the nexus of language and culture to advance learners’ intercultural understanding and competencies (Johnson, 2009). In fact, Magnan (2008) goes so far as to suggest that the profession prioritize either or both the Cultures and Communities standards as critical to advancing communicative competence, as understood by the Communication standard. That is, as we accept that the notion of communicative competence be broadened as intercultural communicative competence, which implies a commitment to teaching and learning about authentic cultural notions, there is a requisite of both linguistic and social (practices, products, perspectives) knowledge—an interdependent Communication and Cultures, if you will. Moreover, genuine intercultural communicative competence is advanced in the meaning-making that “... resides in the dialectic formed between communities and individuals”—hence, an interdependent Communication and Communities (Magnan, 2008, p. 358). The FIM responds to these calls within the profession as a multifaceted learning experience that merges Communication, Cultures, and Communities and that culminates in an authentic, holistic, and meaningful applied task.

However, the FIM faces a familiar dilemma inherent to assessment of learning—the conundrum of quantifiably measuring a multidimensional and variable construct such as intercultural competence. A notable strength of the FIM is the way in which the module’s repertoire of activities obliges students to be actively involved participants as they build on their existing knowledge and understandings, while interpreting and constructing meaning. However, there is risk of diminishing the processes of interpretation and construction of meaning by tying these processes to curricular objectives (or outcome statements, such as we have come to know these planning organizers during recent decades of criterion-referenced measurement for accountability) and potentially undercutting the essence of the concepts we are asking students to explore (Morgan, 2007).

To the extent that the driving purpose of the FIM is to facilitate learning experiences that hold potential for cultivating intercultural competence in students, the assessment component of the FIM is designed to mirror the developmental nature of intercultural competence as a multifaceted ability. Clearly, intercultural competence cannot be evaluated in terms of “either you have it or you don’t,” and its progression cannot be effectively measured in discrete-point terms. Nonetheless, the use of a descriptive evaluative rubric provides useful guidance to both students and instructor. For students, the FIM incorporates an evaluative rubric
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for the final presentation, which students use for guidance as they design and prepare their final presentations (See Appendix B). For the instructor, the evaluative rubric brings focus to the task of interpretive evaluation. The criteria and performance descriptors provide guidance in attributing point values to a diverse range of student performance of qualitative variability.

Unquestionably, it is difficult to quantify variable student performance that is personalized and diverse. Moreover, efforts to gauge the development of intercultural competence are necessarily challenging since its nature is complex and multifaceted. However, the assessment component of the FIM stands up to the challenge. Although the process of student evaluation may be thorny and consistent clear-cut paths for navigating roadblocks are elusive, the FIM presents authentic and meaningful opportunity for students to advance their intercultural competencies. Furthermore, instructor engagement in the complicated process of assessing such student growth leads to increased insight into qualitative assessment.

The single print assessment instrument employed for the FIM is the oral presentation evaluative scoring rubric, but this is not to say that this final presentation grade stands alone as the sole evaluation of student work during the FIM. Rather, according to quantity and quality of products generated, students earn points throughout the span of the module—points that are granted for participation in class discussions and mock-interview class activities, contribution to online discussions, significant input to each stage of interview question development, and participation as engaged listeners during classmates’ presentations. With respect to evaluation of the final presentation as well as each of the other module components, each of these several measures of assessment results in assigning points to student performance.

The instructional module. The discussion turns now from a focus on assessment of student learning in the FIM to assessment of the FIM itself, as a course module. Findings from a preliminary evaluation of the FIM as a course module addressing intercultural competence suggest that the module holds potential for cultivating intercultural competence in intermediate-level language learners in the my own university setting. Although not in the context of an empirical study, anonymous student feedback was collected via questionnaire to gain insight into the use of Byram’s objectives as an organizing principle and to buttress anecdotal findings on the effectiveness of the module. (See Appendix C.) Because the questionnaire items have not been validated, the findings generated from student feedback are strictly limited to the institutional context, perhaps even the narrow circumstance of this particular course and course instructor. These preliminary findings, nonetheless, generally indicate that students indeed have experiences during the FIM that mirror features of intercultural competence. It should be noted that the FIM has not, to date, been implemented as a pre-/post-experimental study, and no baseline measure of students’ pre-existing levels of intercultural
competence has been ascertained, so developmental growth or change strictly cannot be speculated upon, given these questionnaire data.

Results from the questionnaire items reflect that both (a) Bryam’s (1997) five goals and twelve objectives addressed in the FIM show an overall average of 72% of responses indicating agreement and (b) other items representing accepted tenets of intercultural competence show an overall average of 72% of responses indicating agreement. That is, students respond that they personally agree with the particular experiences or features of intercultural competence highlighted in those thirty-six questionnaire items. (See Table 1.) Again, in the absence of any statistical analysis, these results, at face value, indicate that the majority of students report having experiences during the FIM that reflect characteristics of intercultural competence. These limited preliminary findings invite further investigation of a more structured nature, which could provide additional insight into the assessment of student learning related to intercultural competence, to be addressed in the Discussion section.

Table 1. Student Agreement on Intercultural Competence Questionnaire Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Byram’s Goal Areas (I-V) and other Intercultural Competence Notions Addressed</th>
<th>Which Items?</th>
<th>Average of Agree* Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Attitudes</td>
<td>7, 8, 9, 10, 38</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Knowledge</td>
<td>11, 12, 13, 14</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Skills of Interpreting &amp; Relating</td>
<td>15, 16, 17, 18</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. Skills of Discovery &amp; Interaction</td>
<td>19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26</td>
<td>78% 72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. Critical Cultural Awareness</td>
<td>27, 28, 40</td>
<td>81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not specifically linked to Byram’s Goals/Objectives, but generally representative of literature on intercultural competence</td>
<td>3, 4, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 39</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Both 4-agree and 5-strongly agree responses are tallied together.
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Student feedback on the two open-ended questionnaire items further buttress this preliminary general finding. They generated correlated responses testifying to positive personal experiences regarding intercultural competence when asked, “What did you personally gain from the Francophone Interview assignment?” and their comments point to awareness of their own culture and its impact on their views of others (Bateman, 2002).

“This was my favorite assignment! It was the most work but worth it. I personally gained insight on not only another culture but my culture and why I don’t have to be the typical American.”

“I know a little more what other countries think of the U.S. I learned about how people had to adapt to a new culture. I want to learn about more cultures.”

“I gained confidence when having a conversation in French. I learned that different values correspond with different cultures.”

“I was able to understand the French culture better and was able to relate to it and make connections to my Mexican culture. I also saw very interesting differences between the American and French cultures, which allowed me to appreciate diversity and differences.”

“I was able to personally talk about an outsider’s view of the United States and also give my thoughts about their country of origin.”

“I learned how to better communicate with a person who I am not accustomed to talking to in French. I learned many cultural differences and how Americans are perceived.”

“Simply seeing my culture through the eyes of a foreigner; it is quite enlightening and very interesting.”

“I enjoyed the assignment and it helped me with my other interviews and presentations. Once I did a presentation in French, all other presentations and interviews in English did not scare me.”

“The ability to conduct better interviews: I have a better idea of what kind of questions to ask and how to improvise during an interview to make it more conversational.”

“I like learning about other cultures and what their opinions are. I think it is important to know the facts before judging others. Stereotypes are not always true. I learned to be open towards others even more.”

“I personally gained a wonderful opportunity getting to know my interviewee. She was very interesting and she made me want to visit her native country.”
Discussion & Pedagogical Implications

Given the positive anecdotal student reactions and the promising findings from the preliminary questionnaire that document their experiences with the FIM as featuring characteristics of intercultural competence, the FIM shows promise for more deliberate investigation. Although this report states that the two main goals of the FIM are development of oral proficiency and intercultural competency, this discussion focuses primarily on the latter. Certainly, the nature of a conversation class and the requisite oral exchange of the interview task and reporting-out assignment imply significant opportunity to advance oral skills, and there are explicit oral assessment features included in the FIM evaluative rubric as well. However, with respect to the stated emphasis on intercultural competence, I am most interested in the comprehensive and representative assessment of student learning in that domain. Thus, there is reason to question the true alignment of the module’s assessment plan to the nature and purpose of the FIM. In sync with the spirit of the FIM, triangulation of multiple methods of assessment could strengthen the module. If the notion of intercultural competence is a multifaceted and variable construct and its attainment requires active engagement of the intercultural learner, there should be aspects of the module’s assessment that come from appraisals, apart from those of the teacher. What do students have to say about their intercultural learning vis-à-vis the FIM? In what ways do students believe that they have discovered new perspectives on (or interpretations of) their own and another’s culture? How might students communicate an increased awareness or a changed perspective of self and others? What types of opportunities might allow students to elaborate on their development of ability to identify ethnocentric perspectives in their own or another culture? How might students describe abilities they have developed to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices? How can students be given the opportunity to explain the ways they deal with knowledge, attitudes, and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction? What types of opportunities can be provided for students to clarify how they were able to develop an explanatory system for the concepts or values of events they learned about from their interviewees? In sum, what measures can be implemented for students to analyze their learning experiences? Scarino (2007) offers some inspiring ideas for assessment types (e.g., journals, observations, story-telling, in-focus discussions, student-to-student dialogues) that give students voice, highlight their perspectives, and more aptly appraise “learning as an active process of knowledge construction and sense-making” (p. 4).

Dovetailing with this identified need for greater student voice is a relative obstacle with respect to management of the FIM, which the instructor has encountered over time. The nature of this management challenge further supports the incontrovertible need to grant students increased agency in their learning process. From the outset and throughout the various phases of the module, students periodically ask numerous questions seeking specific directives and incremental guidelines on conducting the interview and delivering the final presentation. Of course these student concerns are addressed and their questions are answered, but there lingers the matter of why these type of queries persist. It might be suggested
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that student anticipation, and at times anxiety, about the lack of concrete steps spelled out in discrete terms mirrors limited experience with this nature of assignment, perhaps even limited experience with the amorphous nature of intercultural interaction. Herein lies the compelling pedagogical challenge. With deliberate intention about preserving a supportive learning environment that fosters positive affective connections and inspires motivation, there is a prime opportunity to further engage students in consideration of self-awareness, flexibility, and tolerance of ambiguity as dispositions supporting intercultural competence—even as they encounter the personal discomfort of an indeterminate task in their personal roles as students who desire academic success and affirmation. Moreover, there promises to be a fruitful yield in dispositional development related to intercultural competence when students can consciously reflect upon and process their learning experiences, with the added benefit of diffusing some anxiety and strengthening self-efficacy.

Bateman’s (2002) study incorporating ethnographic interviews offers an approach that could aptly address FIM management concerns while augmenting the my intention to cultivate learner agency through student-directed learning experiences. The active listening aspect of the ethnographic approach calls for interviewers to engage in reflection of their own cultural beliefs. Incorporating this self-assessment and the structured classroom activities and student tasks associated with it, as outlined by Bateman (2002), may serve to reduce student anxiety over the indeterminate by providing increased structured tasks that foster agency and inspire confidence.

The promising prospects for further investigation into the FIM and its increased potential in contributing to the growing dialogue in the profession surrounding intercultural competence is hopeful. Notwithstanding the ambitious yet sincere professional commitment to contribute in preparing today’s students as global citizens equipped with intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, this discussion would be incomplete if I failed to address my own professional growth experience as a result of engaging with this FIM. Designing, developing, implementing, and advancing the FIM to facilitate student learning generated rich substance for invaluable reflection on the voyage as teacher, learner, and intercultural citizen.

Notes

1. Cultures: Gain Knowledge and Understanding of Other Cultures. Standard 2.1: Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the practices and perspectives of the culture studied. Standard 2.2: Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the products and perspectives of the culture studied. (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 2008)

2. Byram’s (1997) model for teaching, learning and assessment of intercultural competence comprises five goal areas and twenty-nine objectives. The twelve
objectives addressed in the FIM project, as excerpted from Byram’s model, are denoted with an asterisk (*).

I. **Attitudes** (*savoir-être*): curiosity & openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one’s own.

Objectives:

a. willingness to seek out or take up opportunities to engage with otherness in a relationship of equality, distinct from seeking out the exotic or to profit from others.*

b. interest in discovering other perspectives on interpretation of familiar and unfamiliar phenomena both in one’s own and in other cultures and cultural practices.*

c. willingness to question the values and presuppositions in cultural practices and products in one’s own environment.

d. readiness to experience the different stages of adaptation to and interaction with another culture during a period of residence.

e. Readiness to engage with the conventions and rites of verbal and non-verbal communication and interaction.

II. **Knowledge** (*savoirs*): of social groups and their products and practices in one’s own and in one’s interlocutor’s country, and of the general processes of societal and individual interaction.

Objectives (knowledge of/about):

a. historical and contemporary relationships between one’s own and one’s interlocutor’s countries.

b. the means of achieving contact with interlocutors from another country (at a distance or in proximity), of travel to and from, and the institutions which facilitate contact or help resolve problems.

c. the types of cause and process of misunderstanding between interlocutors of different cultural origins.

d. the national memory of one’s own country and how its events are related to and seen from the perspective of other countries.

e. the national memory of one’s interlocutor’s country and the perspective on them from one’s own country.

f. the national definitions of geographical space in one’s own country, and how these are perceived from the perspective of other countries.

g. the national definitions of geographical space in one’s interlocutor’s country and the perspective on them from one’s own.

h. the processes and institutions of socialisation in one’s own and in one’s interlocutor’s country.*

i. social distinctions and their principal markers, in one’s own country and one’s interlocutor’s.

j. institutions, and perceptions of them, which impinge on daily life within one’s own and in one’s interlocutor’s country and which conduct and influence relationships between them.*

k. the process of social interaction in one’s interlocutor’s country.*
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III. Skills of interpreting & relating (savoir comprendre): ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents or events from one's own.

Objectives (ability to):
- a. identify ethnocentric perspectives in a document or event and explain their origins.*
- b. identify areas of misunderstanding and dysfunction in an interaction and explain them in terms of each of the cultural systems present.*
- c. mediate between conflicting interpretations of phenomena.

IV. Skills of discovery & interaction (savoir apprendre/faire): ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes, and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction.

Objectives (ability to):
- a. elicit from an interlocutor the concepts or values of documents or events and develop an explanatory system susceptible of application to other phenomena.*
- b. identify significant references within and across cultures and elicit their significance and connotations.*
- c. identify similar and dissimilar processes of interaction, verbal and non-verbal, and negotiate an appropriate use of them in specific circumstances.
- d. use in real-time an appropriate combination of knowledge, skills, and attitudes to interact with interlocutors from a different country and culture taking into consideration the degree of one's existing familiarity with the country, culture, and language and the extent of difference between one's own and the other.*
- e. identify contemporary and past relationships between one's own and the other culture and society.
- f. identify and make use of public and private institutions which facilitate contact with other countries and cultures.
- g. use in real-time knowledge, skills and attitudes for mediation between interlocutors of one's own and a foreign culture.

V. Critical cultural awareness/political education (savoir s’engager): an ability to evaluate, critically and on the basis of explicit criteria, perspectives, practices, and products in one's own and other cultures and countries.

Objectives (ability to):
- a. identify and interpret explicit or implicit values in documents and events in one's own and other cultures.
- b. make an evaluative analysis of the documents and events which refers to an explicit perspective and criteria.*
- c. interact and mediate in intercultural exchanges in accordance with explicit criteria, negotiating where necessary a degree of acceptances of
those exchanges by drawing upon one’s knowledge, skills, and attitudes.*

3. Findings from the student researcher in a faculty and undergraduate student collaborative study suggest that instructor modeling of expected student performance generates enthusiasm in students to prepare their own performances (Hoyt & Greenway, 2010).

4. The use of “intermediate-level” to characterize the context of the FIM is program-specific. The French conversation class is one of three skills level courses in my institution. Enrollees in the course are typically French majors and minors who have presumably reached ACTFL oral proficiency levels in the range of Intermediate-Low – Intermediate-High (in the program's lower division courses or elsewhere) and are expected to attain a proficiency rating of Intermediate-High by the culmination of the skills-level courses (ACTFL, 1999).

References


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**Appendix A. Cultural Interview Questions**

*Questions de base: [General questions]:*

1. *Quelle est votre nationalité? / Quelle est votre origine? / De quel pays venez-vous? / Doù venez-vous?* [What is your nationality? / What is your heritage? / What country are you from? / Where are you from?]

2. *Depuis quand vivez-vous aux États-Unis? en état X?* [How long have you been in the United States? in State X?]

3. *Pourquoi vous êtes venu(e) aux États-Unis? / Pourriez-vous parler des circonstances de votre déménagement aux États-Unis?* [Why did you come to the United States? / Could you speak about the circumstances surrounding your move to the United States?]

4. *Comment vous vous identifiez? Comme Français(e), Québécois(e), Sénégalais(e), etc… ou Américain(e) … ou autre?* [How do you see yourself? As French, Quebecois, Senegalese, etc… or American …or other?]

5. *Avez-vous des préférences soit de chez vous, soit des États-Unis? / Quels sont les aspects que vous préférez de chaque pays (culture)? / Qu’est-ce que vous aimez aux États-Unis?* [Do you prefer your home country or the United States? / What are the aspects of each country (culture) that you prefer? / What do you like about the United States?]

6. *À votre avis, pourquoi pensez-vous qu’il soit important qu’on apprenne une langue étrangère?* [In your opinion, why do you think it is important to learn a foreign language?]
7. Comment (Dans quelle manière) trouvez-vous que la langue anglaise reflète la culture américaine? [How (in what ways) do you find that the English language reflects the American culture?]

8. Qu'est-ce qu'on fait pour passer le temps dans votre culture? Quels sont les passe-temps populaires? [How do people spend their time in your culture? What are the popular pastimes?]

Questions de comparaisons culturelles: [Cultural comparisons questions:]

1. Quelle est la plus grande différence que vous avez trouvée entre la culture américaine et votre culture? / Quelles sont vos expériences avec ces différences? / Avez-vous rencontré des difficultés à cause des différences culturelles? [What is the biggest difference you have found between the American culture and your culture? / What experiences have you had regarding these differences? / Have you encountered difficulties as a result of these differences?]

2. Que pensez-vous des coutumes américaines? / Quelles sont les différences entre les mœurs des Américains et les vôtres? / Croyez-vous que la façon de vivre aux États-Unis est différente de la vôtre? [What do you think of American customs? / What are the differences between American values and yours? / Do you believe that lifestyle in the United States is different than yours?]

3. Si vous avez vécu dans plusieurs pays, quel pays est-ce que vous trouvez plus ouvert aux cultures différentes? [If you have lived in several countries, which country have you found to be the most open to different cultures?]

4. Comment la nourriture de chez vous est-elle différente de celle des États-Unis? / Quel plat de votre pays vous manque le plus? / Quel plat est-ce que vous aimez aux États-Unis? [How is the food from your country different from American cuisine? / What dish from your country do you miss the most? / What American dish do you like?]

5. Quelles sortes de traditions favoris avez-vous? / Quelle est la tradition de chez vous de laquelle vous êtes le plus fier (la plus fière)? [What kinds of favorite traditions do you have? / What tradition from your country makes you feel the most proud?]

6. Quelles sont des opinions des Américains que vous aviez avant de venir aux États-Unis? Est-ce que vos opinions ont changé? / Que pensez-vous maintenant des Américains? [What opinions did you have about Americans before coming to the United States? Have your opinions changed? / What do you think of Americans now?]

7. Y a-t-il des croyances spécifiques à votre culture? / Avez-vous des croyances personnelles spécifiques à votre culture? …quelles sortes de croyances? Aux États-Unis, nous avons une «telle et telle» croyance de … avez-vous quelque chose comme cela? [Are there beliefs that are particular to your culture? / Do you have personal beliefs that are specific to your culture? …what types of beliefs? In the United States, we have “such and such” belief about … Do you have something like that?]
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Questions au sujet de l’adaptation à une nouvelle culture: [Questions on adapting to a new culture:]

1. J’adore la culture française (ou sénégalaise, ou québecoise, etc…). Pourriez-vous parler de vos impressions de la culture américaine? Quelle est votre impression de la culture américaine? / Pourriez-vous partager deux traditions spécifiques que vous aimez de la culture américaine et deux traditions que vous n’aimez pas? / Est-ce qu’il y a des traditions que vous aimez particulièrement ou que vous n’aimez pas tellement chez les Américains? [I love the French culture (or Senegalese, or Quebecoise, etc…). Could you talk about your impressions of American culture? What is your impression of American culture? / Could you share two particular American traditions that you like and two that you don’t like? / Are there American traditions that you particularly like or that you don’t especially like?]

2. De quelle(s) manière(s) vous êtes-vous adapté(e) aux États-Unis? / Quand vous êtes arrivé(e) aux États-Unis, est-ce que vous vous êtes adapté(e) facilement, ou pas facilement? / Quelles stratégies avez-vous utilisées pour vous adapter? / Quels sont les obstacles que vous avez rencontrés? Avez-vous rencontré de la difficulté en apprenant l’anglais? [In what ways have you adjusted to the United States? / When you arrived in the United States, did you adapt easily or not so easily? / What strategies have you used to acclimate? / What kinds of obstacles have you encountered? / Have you encountered difficulty in learning English?]

3. Qu’est-ce qui vous manque le plus de votre pays d’origine? [What do you miss most about your homeland?]

4. Avec quelle fréquence rentrez-vous dans votre pays d’origine? / Qu’est-ce que vous attendez pendant vos visites? [How often do you return to your homeland? / What do you look forward to during your visits?]

5. Comment est-ce que vous êtes traité(e) différemment aux États-Unis comparativement à votre pays d’origine? / Avez-vous souffert des préjugés parce que vous êtes d’un pays francophone? / Racontez-moi s’il vous plaît votre histoire. Comment vous vous êtes senti(e)? [How are you treated differently in the United States compared to your home country? / Have you experienced discrimination because you are from a French-speaking country? / Tell me a little bit about your story. How do you feel?]

L’essentiel est de ne pas mettre quelqu’un dans l’embarras; plutôt, on désire mettre «notre personne» à l’aise. [What is essential is that you do not make someone feel uncomfortable. Instead, we desire to put “our person” at ease.]

- Une question ouverte est préférable à une question «oui / non», parce que les questions «oui / non» impliquent une idée préconçue, comme s’il y a les réponses figées. Une question ouverte invite une discussion libre de la complexité de vie. [An open question is better than a “yes/no” question, because “yes/no” questions imply an assumption, as if there were set answers. An open question invites free dialogue about the complexities of life.]
Une question ouverte est préférable à une question qui cite ou nomme les sujets. Par exemple, la question: «Quelles sont les difficultés politiques et économiques chez vous?» présente la position de l’interviewer qu’il y a ces problèmes. Cette question «Quelles sont les difficultés politiques et économiques chez vous?» aussi identifie les sujets précis pour la personne interviewée. Il est mieux de permettre à la personne interviewée d’identifier le sujet, de choisir la direction de la conversation. [An open question is preferable to a question that states or names the topic. For example, the question: “What are the political and economic problems in your country?” portrays an assumption to the interviewee that these problems exist. This question “What are the political and economic problems in your country?” also specifically identifies the topic for the interviewee. It is better to allow your interviewee to identify the topic, to choose the direction the conversation will take.]

Appendix B. Scoring Rubric for Cultural Interview Presentations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>4-5 Critères clairement adressés ou au delà des attentes</th>
<th>2-3 Critères adressés</th>
<th>1 Approchant les critères</th>
<th>0 Pas acceptable/ critères non-traités</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Contenu</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>♦ présentation contextualisée</td>
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<tr>
<td>♦ résumé général des réponses</td>
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<td>♦ durée appropriée (7 à 10 minutes)</td>
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<td>♦ exemples / spécificité pour illustrer les thèmes</td>
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<td><strong>Analyse</strong></td>
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<td>♦ impression personnelle</td>
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<tr>
<td>♦ ce que vous avez appris / ce que vous avez trouvé intéressant</td>
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<td>- évidence d’une bonne préparation</td>
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<td>- usage des mots et expressions visés pour le thème particulier</td>
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<td>- pas d’anglais</td>
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<td>- rythme, accent, intonation convenable au français académique /français standard</td>
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<th>Aspect linguistique: Structure</th>
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<td>- l’usage correct du discours indirect</td>
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<td>- précision grammaticale</td>
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<td>- accord des sujets/verbes, genres, nombres…</td>
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<td>- temps verbaux employés correctement</td>
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<th>Aspect linguistique: Fonction</th>
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<tr>
<td>- l’usage des divers temps verbaux convenables</td>
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<td>- la narration (longueur des paragraphes)</td>
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<td>- la description (discours lié)</td>
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<th>Divers</th>
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<td>- créativité</td>
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<td>- impression globale</td>
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<th>Barème:</th>
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<tr>
<td>35-32 pts = A+</td>
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<tr>
<td>31-28 pts = A</td>
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<tr>
<td>27-20 pts = B</td>
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<td>19-14 pts = C</td>
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<tr>
<td>13-7 pts = D</td>
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January 2012
FREN3302 Student: ________________________________________________

Person interviewed: _________________ His/her heritage: _________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content</th>
<th>4-5 Criteria clearly addressed or beyond expectations</th>
<th>2-3 Criteria addressed</th>
<th>1 Approaching the criteria</th>
<th>0 Not acceptable/criteria not addressed</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• contextualised presentation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• general summary of responses</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• appropriate length (7-10 minutes)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• examples provided to support the themes</td>
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<tr>
<th>Analysis</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• personal impression</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• what you learned / what you found interesting</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Presentation</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• ease of delivery</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• evidence of solid preparation</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• voice, gestures, and suitable resources for support</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• use of appropriate words and expressions targeted for the particular theme</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• no English</td>
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<tr>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• comprehensible to your listeners</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• rhythm, accent, intonation suitable to academic French (Standard French)</td>
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</table>
Developing intercultural competence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic aspect: Grammar</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♦ correct use of indirect discourse</td>
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<tr>
<td>♦ grammatical accuracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♦ agreement of subjects/verbs, genders, numbers…</td>
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<tr>
<td>♦ verb tenses correctly applied</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic aspect: Function</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♦ use of various and appropriate verb tenses</td>
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<tr>
<td>♦ narration (paragraph-length discourse)</td>
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<tr>
<td>♦ description (connected discourse)</td>
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<tr>
<th>Miscellaneous</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♦ creativity</td>
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<tr>
<td>♦ overall impression</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Scale:
- 35-32 pts = A+
- 31-28 pts = A
- 27-20 pts = B
- 19-14 pts = C
- 13-7 pts = D

Appendix C. Anonymous Student Feedback Questionnaire

Questionnaire for FREN 3302 Students: Francophone Interviews Assignment

Please mark your responses according to the following scale:

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<th></th>
<th>1</th>
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<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FI = Francophone Interviews</td>
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FI assignment = the whole sequence of (1) question development, (2) preparing & conducting interviews, (3) and reporting-out on interviews in class presentations.
1. The FI assignment exposed me to authentic practices of a francophone culture.

2. The FI assignment exposed me to authentic perspectives of a francophone culture.

3. The FI assignment gave me the opportunity to explore intercultural themes.

4. The FI assignment gave me the opportunity to analyze intercultural themes.

5. The FI assignment challenged me in my use of French in oral exchange.

6. The FI assignment built my confidence in use of spoken French.

7. The FI assignment generated more openness in me related to my beliefs about my own culture.

8. The FI assignment generated more openness in me related to my beliefs about another's culture.

9. The FI assignment instilled interest in me for discovering other perspectives / interpretations of my own culture.

10. The FI assignment instilled interest in me for discovering other perspectives / interpretations of another's culture.

11. As a result of the FI assignment, I increased my knowledge about the general processes of societal interaction in another culture.

12. As a result of the FI assignment, I increased my knowledge about the general processes of individual interaction in another culture.

13. As a result of the FI assignment, I increased my knowledge about the general processes of socialization in another culture.

14. As a result of the FI assignment, I increased my knowledge about institutions which influence daily life in another culture.
Developing intercultural competence

15. The FI assignment provided an opportunity for me to develop some ability to interpret an event from another culture and relating it to my own culture.

16. The FI assignment provided an opportunity for me to develop some ability to identify ethnocentric perspectives in an event from my own or another culture and explain their origins.

17. The FI assignment provided an opportunity for me to develop some ability to identify areas of misunderstanding in an intercultural interaction.

18. The FI assignment provided an opportunity for me to explain such areas of misunderstanding in terms of each of the cultural systems present.

19. As a result of the FI assignment, I increased my ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices.

20. As a result of the FI assignment, I increased my ability to operate knowledge, attitudes, and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction.

21. As a part of the FI assignment, I was able to elicit from my interviewee the concepts or values of events.

22. As a part of the FI assignment, I was able to develop an explanatory system for the concepts or values of events that I learned about from my interviewee.

23. As a part of the FI assignment, I was able to identify significant references within and across cultures.

24. As a part of the FI assignment, I was able to extract the significance and connotation of these references within and across cultures.

25. As a part of the FI assignment, I was able to use an appropriate combination of knowledge, skills, and attitudes in real-time to interact with my interviewee.

26. As a part of the FI assignment, I was able to appropriately take into consideration my own level of familiarity with the country, culture, and language of my interviewee as compared to my own country, culture, and language in real-time to interact with my interviewee.
27. As a result of the FI assignment, I have grown in cultural awareness and am better able to evaluate perspectives, practices, and products of my own and another culture.

28. As a part of the FI assignment, I was able to interact and mediate in intercultural exchange, negotiating where necessary a degree of acceptance.

29. The FI assignment contributed in some way(s) toward my ability to consider the amorphous nature of culture.

30. The FI assignment contributed in some way(s) toward my ability to separate facts from cultural assumptions and beliefs.

31. The FI assignment contributed in some way(s) toward my ability to shift perspectives in some of my views.

32. The FI assignment contributed in some way(s) toward my ability to differentiate between personal discomfort and intellectual disagreement.

33. The FI assignment contributed in some way(s) toward my ability to interpret the complexities of messages.

34. The FI assignment contributed in some way(s) toward my development of a tolerance for ambiguity.

35. The FI assignment contributed in some way(s) toward minimizing judgmental attitudes in me.

36. The FI assignment contributed in some way(s) toward my ability to be flexible.

37. As a result of the FI assignment, I have gained confidence in participating in cultural/linguistic communities (apart from my own) outside the classroom.

38. As a result of the FI assignment, I am more interested in participating in cultural/linguistic communities (apart from my own) outside the classroom.

39. As a result of the FI assignment, I am more able to participate in cultural/linguistic communities (apart from my own) outside the classroom.
Developing intercultural competence

40. As a result of the FI assignment, I acquired some techniques of enquiry related to learning about cultures other than my own.

41. In listening to my classmates’ presentations of their interviews, I noted correlations among interviewee responses.

42. In listening to my classmates’ presentations of their interviews, I noted correlations in how we interpreted our interviewees’ responses.

What did you personally gain from the FI assignment?

Any other comments? Please feel free to share!
Reviews

Edited by Thomas S. Conner, St. Norbert College

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

Chinese


Chinese Dictionary & Guide to 20,000 Essential Words is a concise dictionary specially designed for learners of Chinese as a foreign or a second language. This dictionary distinguishes itself from other Chinese language dictionaries by its unconventional character look-up system, a system that searches for a character by counting the total number of “broken marks” (not linked or unlinked strokes) of each character.

In the preface, the authors clearly state their rationale for inventing this unique look-up system and begin by defining the so-called broken marks of the system. According to the authors, the traditional look-up system of other Chinese language dictionaries involves six steps to be used every time when searching for an unknown character: “know about 214 different radicals, identify a character’s radical, count the radical strokes, find the appropriate index number in the radical index list, count the remaining strokes, and find the character from a group of characters according to the remaining strokes” (ix). This complicated look-up system sometimes intimidates even native speakers of Chinese when they turn to a dictionary. Obviously, the complexity of the traditional look-up system becomes a major reason why few Chinese language learners use dictionaries, even though the benefits are well-recognized.

In an attempt to improve the traditional look-up system, CD&GEW applied the Broken Marks Method (BMM), an innovative look-up system which the authors created as a remedial solution to help non-native Chinese language learners quickly learn how to use a Chinese reference work. In this method, only two steps are needed when looking up a character. First, count the total marks of each character. Marks in
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this system are defined as “a part of a character that is separated from other parts by either physical space or a significant change in direction” (xiii). This method splits traditional linked strokes into broken marks. For example, the character 九 (nine) has two strokes in the traditional counts because 乙 is a linked stroke. This stroke is split up into four marks: ノ, ノ, ノ, and ノ, and these marks lead to a total of five counts for character 九 (i.e., five total marks). The second step involves selecting the character’s first Mark. Four marks are included in this method: ノ, ノ, ノ, and ノ. The same is true of the character 九. The BMM identifies ノ as the first mark, while traditionally 乙 is written as the first stroke. Therefore, when looking for the character 九, learners need to first look at the five marks section, and then look up the mark ノ section. The BMM seems to be very easy to learn and it can help make the characters accessible to learners at different proficiency levels.

In addition to the BMM, many other features of CD&GEW also contribute to this dictionary’s practical and friendly character. Although CD&GEW mainly applies its BMM as a primary look-up system, CD&GEW also includes other common search systems, such as a Pinyin Index, a Radicals and Strokes Index, and an English-to-Chinese Index. This thoughtful inclusion makes CD&GEW beneficial to those learners who are already familiar with other types of look-up systems.

The hardcover volume consisting of 548 sturdy pages, makes for a very durable desk reference for beginners to intermediate-level learners of Chinese. On each page, the highlighted headwords, which are the target characters, stand out clearly; the reasonably sized font helps users easily locate words and read the text. Under each headword, both the traditional and simplified versions of characters are illustrated with English definitions. For each character, many compound words and phrases are provided and can be easily found in the dictionary by using the total number of total marks stated on the side of each word/phrase. Some country names and place names also appear often on the list.

Two helpful features become readily apparent when reading the explanation and words listed on each page. The first feature is that, in conjunction with standard Chinese parts of speech, the dictionary provides the measure words for all nouns that need measure words. Because correctly using a noun with its measure word is one of the most difficult learning tasks for students learning Chinese, providing measure words with nouns is very helpful. The second helpful feature is that each entry includes a list of related terms in which the target character may appear in the middle or at the end of a word. This feature enables learners to easily look up words either forward or backward, and to search for a character in different locations within words.

However, some aspects of CD&GEW may be less helpful. A primary concern relates to the specially designed BMM. Although this innovative look-up system simplifies the steps to search for characters in this dictionary, the broken marks may lead to confusion in writing Chinese, whether students are new to Chinese or whether they have already learned to write Chinese by following the stroke orders. For new learners, when their Chinese vocabulary grows out of this dictionary, they will have to consult other dictionaries that do not use the BMM look-up system. In this case, those learners face a double challenge: relearn Chinese strokes and get rid of the old counting habit, which sometimes is even more difficult.
In addition, the BMM may slow down the speed of writing because of the extra strokes presented in the BMM. Although the BMM is not intended to be a Chinese writing rule, learners of Chinese may develop a writing habit that follows the number of marks (if not, they may not count the marks correctly). In the above example, the character 九 needs to have five different strokes, but 九 only needs two strokes in the traditional way.

Another concern is that not every word is followed by an example to show how the word is used in different contexts and how the same word means different things if it is a polysemanet. For example, the word 人生 is defined as “life” in English. Since “life” can refer to the animate existence or period of animate existence of an individual, inexperienced learners of Chinese may create sentences with 人生 being used incorrectly because CD & GEW does not explain that 人生 only means human life in Chinese, not animal life. Therefore, it is not a surprise to see students create sentences such as “我的狗的人生很有意思”(“My dog's human life is very interesting”) or “我不喜欢鲜花，因为鲜花的人生太短了”(“I do not like fresh flowers because their human life is too short”). More examples or contexts could reduce these errors.

Over-simplified annotation for some words is another issue in this dictionary; take, for example, the words 老大爷 and 老大娘。CD & GEW simply defines 老大爷 as “n. uncle; grandpa,” and 老大娘 as “n. aunt; grandma.” These oversimplified explanations without sample sentences to show how the words are used, may cause two problems. First, students may be confused by the meaning because uncle and grandpa are totally different generations in English. Moreover, without being informed that 老大爷 and 老大娘 are often used to address a stranger who is senior in age, students may understand that 老大爷 or 老大娘 as kinship terms (grandpa only means a father of a parent in English) and they may create sentences such as 我的老大爷在我家(“My stranger grandfather is at my home”), which sounds a little strange in Chinese.

Finally, although the dictionary covers 2,000 essential characters that generate up to 20,000 words, some common words that Net Generation students cannot live without nowadays are absent from the dictionary. For example, 上网 (surf the Internet), 网上 (online), 短信 (text message), 网吧 (Internet café), 下载 (download), 网友 (net friend), and 手机 (cell phone) cannot be found through either a forward or backward search.

Despite these concerns, CD & GEW may serve as an invaluable tool for learners of Chinese because it has the potential to help learners easily find complicated characters and learn the meaning and pronunciation of unknown words. Learners may quickly find the meanings of unknown words in a reading and consult the usage of words or structures (especially the use of measure words) when writing, as well as better understand the idiomatic equivalents of expressions when translating. In addition, the innovative BMM look-up system may encourage Chinese language teachers to reconsider how Chinese characters can be more effectively taught to non-native Chinese speakers. However, there is no single dictionary that can satisfy all language learners or all objectives or all proficiency levels. This reviewer suggests that CD & GEW be used with caution and that teachers be prepared to help students bridge the two ways of stroke counts—the broken marks and the traditional linked-strokes.
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Hong Zhan
Assistant Professor of Chinese
Department of Humanities and Communications
College of Arts and Sciences
Prescott, AZ

Publisher’s Response

The Publisher thanks Professor Hong Zhan for her thorough review of McGraw-Hill’s Chinese Dictionary and Guide to 20,000 Essential Words. She identifies the key motivation for the development of the Broken Marks Method: the author saw that the complexity of traditional look-up systems resulted in minimal use of dictionaries by Chinese language learners in first and even second year of study. And I am delighted that she finds this approach easy to learn, and also appreciates the legibility of the text and the inclusion of indexes for other search systems, as well as tags indicating measure words.

I would like to clarify one specific point raised, concerning the term 人生 “life.” While the definition is not as expansive as she would like, it is worth noting that the student who uses the English index to look up the word “life” will be pointed to a handful of Chinese entries, including this one. And with regard to the two more general concerns raised by the reviewer, I would like to defer to the author, Quanyu Huang:

“1. The belief that Chinese language learners will come to rely on the Broken Marks method, and that this reliance will hinder written language skill development is, in my opinion, an overstated worry. It emphasizes the “form” of Chinese language writing over the “function” of learning Chinese as a foreign language. This is very understandable given the traditional way in which Chinese is taught in China, but from the perspective of the foreign (e.g., American) student learning Chinese, the worry that the BMM will hinder written absorption of “strokes and radicals” is much less relevant.

For beginners, as the Foreword of the book states, “The more [beginning] learners practice with characters, the sooner they are able to distinguish those components that they will later identify as radicals and phonetics. This will [later] permit them to look up characters in standard dictionaries and predict their pronunciation.” The BMM should be seen as a bridge or stepping stone to fluency with the Chinese language in general (including strokes and radicals). Moreover, it is a bridge that heretofore has not been available to beginning students.

Chinese is a language with an incredibly steep learning curve for a non-native beginner. This difficulty is amplified by the lack of a reliable, accessible dictionary. Currently, all will agree that the vast majority of beginning students forego the use of dictionaries altogether. I would ask whether this state of affairs (i.e., beginning students afraid of and resistant to using any dictionary at all) is preferable to students using the BMM, and developing more comfort, familiarity and experience with the language sooner in their learning careers.

I strongly believe that a student who sees more Chinese characters earlier and gains more facility with the language sooner, will be better off than one who “holds off” on using a dictionary until he or she becomes familiar with strokes and radicals.
(which often never happens at all). The BMM is not a denunciation of strokes and radicals. Instead, it is a recognition of the more immediate concerns for most students: functional mastery of the fundamentals of the language.

An easy analogy is English block/print letters. American children all begin by learning how to write in large, garish block print. They do not begin by learning how to write in cursive. This is by design. Block letters are easier to write, remember and understand for children. Children can distinguish between them easier, sooner. Block letters thus allow children to develop basic familiarity with the concepts of letters, words and spelling. Once words are mastered, children can begin on more difficult concepts such as sentences and paragraphs. Thereafter, children learn cursive. In time, this leads to writing whole essays—which in turn lead to advanced concepts of language like style, structure and syntax. Language, like anything else, is learned step-by-step. Few would say the best or correct approach to teaching English is to teach—from the outset—only what is expected at the endpoint in order to avoid “bad habits.” No one would tell a five-year-old, “Write full sentences in cursive, Joey, or write nothing at all.” Even though block letters are different from cursive letters (and a child may come to prefer writing in block print rather than in cursive), block letters are not obstacles or hindrances to learning the language in general. On the contrary, they are a necessary stepping stone or bridge to the next steps of learning. The BMM is no different.

It must be noted that I’ve only heard the critique that BMM will lead to “bad habits” from Chinese people, and never from foreigners learning Chinese. This is understandable. In China, the way a child learns the Chinese language is traditionally bound up with Chinese calligraphy. From a very young age, a child is not only taught what a character means (vocabulary) and how it is used (grammar), but also how it must be written (calligraphy). Indeed, in China, each Chinese character must be written in one, standard way: with one’s right hand (left-handed students must adapt); in a particular grip; in a particular order of strokes (many times illogical or unintuitive); and with precise and proper proportions. The worry that the BMM will lead to “bad habits” largely grows out of a concern that students will not learn the third component (calligraphy) correctly.

But from the perspective of non-native Chinese students, mastery of strokes and radicals (and other calligraphic elements of Chinese) are less important than functional mastery of the language for actual use. The calligraphic elements mentioned above are largely not what the modern, foreign Chinese student wants or needs to learn. The vast majority of students of Chinese, if asked, would likely state their main goals are to speak, read and write Chinese competently.

These are functional goals. In order to speak, read and write competently, a student must learn vocabulary and basic grammar—two aspects of language that all but require an accessible dictionary for improvement. In other words, students must first know what characters mean and know how to use them properly. These are the practical linguistic dividends of an accessible dictionary.

In deference to the “calligraphic” elements of Chinese, however, Chinese dictionaries have traditionally required extensive knowledge of “strokes and radicals” (a calligraphic element) for little more than tradition’s sake. Dictionaries have thus been rendered inaccessible to the people who need them the most. The BMM is an
attempt to reverse this trend. By making a Chinese dictionary accessible to anyone, the BMM seeks to promote exactly these “functional” elements of language learning. While we do not shun the traditional formal calligraphic elements of Chinese (indeed, the dictionary includes an index to locate characters by traditional strokes and radicals), we do not consider familiarity with these elements to be a prerequisite to using a dictionary.

Students who stick with Chinese will learn to recognize strokes and radicals naturally, regardless of whether or not they used the BMM, as they (radicals, in particular) are obvious components of almost every Chinese character. The key, however, is that the student must first stick with Chinese long enough to get to that point. To that end, the BMM is there to help things along.

2. The specter of “limited” definitions and example sentences is a valid and reasonable critique of our dictionary, though it can be said of most printed reference works. The scope of our text was limited by design (focusing on only 2,000 of the most commonly used characters), time and cost considerations. While we tried to be as comprehensive as possible, we never intended (or imagined) that we could comprehensively address the entirety of the Chinese language, or even a majority of it. Given more time and resources, we would love to create a more comprehensive version of the text.

That said, we did our best to include what we thought would be important. With regard to certain useful words that were not included, value judgments were made as to what should (and should not) have been included. A part of this analysis was a survey of existing dictionaries to see what others had (and had not) covered. I am sure if we could do it over again, we would make changes and swap some words for others, but the words included in the final edition were, in our view, the ones most likely to come up in a typical Chinese language learner’s career. If possible, we will certainly update the text in future editions with characters or words we believe should be added, and to that end, the reviewer’s suggestions are most helpful.”

Christopher Brown
Publisher
McGraw-Hill Professional


Developing Chinese Fluency (henceforth DCF) is an outstanding contribution to the field of Chinese language education. It is specifically designed to promote students’ speaking and writing skills. The training program contained in the textbook is built on the proficiency guidelines set forth by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and the 5Cs national standards for foreign language education. DCF also incorporates a well-integrated variety of methodologies, such as the lexical approach, the audio-lingual method and communicative language teaching and task-based language teaching. DCF is engaging, motivating and supports a student-centered classroom. Furthermore, it offers ample opportunities for students
to express themselves and provides them with rich materials (be it vocabulary, sentence patterns, common expressions, organization principles for presentation), and sufficient guided practice to help them succeed. DCF is organized around the principle of communication and includes Performance-Based/Multiple Assessments. Moreover, it includes interdisciplinary connections to other school subjects, such as the fine arts, economics, history, geography and business.

The most unique feature of DCF is its emphasis on vocabulary acquisition, which distinguishes it from other Chinese language textbooks. Vocabulary is the basic building block of language (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996) and effective communication is based on the possession of a large lexicon (Hyltenstam, 1988). DCF echoes this basic principle. There are seven thematic units in total in this textbook: Describing Objects, Talking About Products, Describing People, Introducing People, Talking About Nature, Talking About Geography, and Talking About Cities. Within each unit, the lessons spiral upward, progressing from building core vocabulary, which consists of a selection of core vocabulary essential for the theme and everyday conversational skills, to building expressive power, through which students learn theme-related advanced expressions, such as four-character idioms and set phrases. Each unit begins with a lesson with a rich load of vocabulary essential to that particular theme. The vocabulary items introduced throughout are also conducive to functional communication, i.e., they are up to date and are readily applicable in practical scenarios, such as complaining to the customer service department about an ordered commercial item, or describing and comparing features of a neighborhood. The following stage builds paragraph fluency, which helps students to use sentence connectives, transitional phrases, or other structural means to organize ideas and sentences into cohesive and coherent discourse. Unlike most textbooks, the DCF texts (dialogue or narrative in each lesson) are supportive, rather than primary. Sample paragraphs of description and comparison are also provided in the appendix. Still, it might be desirable to include more text as production models and guides.

In addition to the seven thematic units, there are five enrichment units (EU), each of which is tied to a theme and follows its respective thematic unit(s). For example, the enrichment unit Objects and Culture follows the two thematic units on objects. The main purpose of the EUs is to provide opportunities to explore issues and views on related topics, practice doing presentations, and learn how to present an argument. These units feature learner-centered activities, such as reading-report, debate, and research projects. Thus, the EUs serve to integrate covered skills (e.g., description, comparison, statement of opinion), which also give the teacher the opportunity to conduct periodical progress check-up, or student performance assessment.

SLA researchers have argued that vocabulary items should be taught to build automaticity (Coady, 1993). This textbook provides instructors and learners with different types of practice that promote automaticity, including online chunking exercises (listening-writing/typing), fluency drills (listening-speaking), and speed-extensive reading (reading). The rich collection of practice exercises reinforces vocabulary learning in such a meaningful way that not only promotes the retention of each vocabulary item, but also enhances fluency in a different modality. These activities are also designed in such a way as to make computer-savvy students feel
comfortable. The workbook also offers intensive exercises of two types: aural-oral drills and fluency enhancement. Aural-oral drills are form-focused and designed to facilitate learning new vocabulary and sentence forms before engaging students in communicative tasks and longer texts. Fluency Enhancement activities in the forms of chunking, typing, listening/reading, and writing or simulation tasks serve to reinforce vocabulary and improve accuracy and fluency in the skill areas covered. Unlike others, the DCF workbook does not have many traditional exercises, and instead puts greater emphasis on building thematic vocabulary for expository speaking and writing tasks. For example, the chunking exercise (phrases for words usage and fluency through listen-read aloud-type exercise) is a novel approach to vocabulary learning. Also, while each unit-end lesson would include simulation tasks for paragraph production, the enrichment unit that concludes a major theme features longer production assignments with worksheets and guidelines. Designed to be used together with the Online Workbook, the workbook also serves as a handy reference to help students review and retain key points of each lesson, as well as to complete major assignments.

This textbook has adopted the latest topics that people are the most interested in and includes topics, such as climate and environment, renewable energy, global warming, urbanization, employment and unemployment. In this way, DCF promotes not only advanced level learning of the Chinese language, but also the acquisition of new knowledge—all in Chinese. These topics should be attractive to college level students and high school (including AP Chinese) students alike.

DCF pays attention to learner variables and makes it easy for teachers to differentiate instruction. Each theme-based unit has different levels of materials and tasks that easily can be spiraled down or up. It also includes a variety of activities that more specifically deal with the issue of learner variables in the contexts of ability, readiness, and learning styles, as well as addressing the needs of heritage students (who are often enrolled in our language classes). DCF provides learners with strategies to help them be successful language learners and users. There is a balance of individual, paired, small group, and large group learning activities in each unit. Extension activities are included (for more advanced and motivated students) and these activities promote higher-level thinking skills.

This book is well designed and nicely formatted. Each section is marked with labels identifying its function; moreover, instructions in English are always straightforward. Instructors and students alike will find DCF easy to use.

As the author has specifically stated, this textbook is not suitable for anyone interested in developing receptive skills, studying literature, or acquiring only the reading skills sufficient to read a newspaper. DCF is highly recommended to instructors of upper-intermediate and rising-advanced learners, especially those who would like to pursue a professional career related to Chinese.

References:


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**Publisher’s Response:**

We are very pleased to respond to Professors Lü and Tan’s favorable review of Heinle Cengage Learning’s new Chinese program, *Developing Chinese Fluency* by Phyllis Zhang. It is apparent that Professors Lü and Tan have carefully examined all aspects of the program and we are especially grateful for their comprehensive and insightful review. Heinle Cengage Learning is dedicated to publishing high quality programs across World languages, and we are proud to include *Developing Chinese Fluency* among our publications.

Nicole Morinon
Senior Acquisitions Editor – World Languages
Heinle Cengage Learning

**French**


To the best of my knowledge, *À table* is the only French culture textbook published in the U.S. that specifically links the study of language to the study of culinary art. Given the fact that France is first and foremost known for its traditional sophisticated cuisine and refined gourmet culture, the study of French through its art de manger seems to be a logical and relevant choice. *À table* is a thoughtful, interesting, and well-researched manual, which makes culture an integral and necessary part of language study.

The textbook consists of nine chapters which give a thorough lexical overview of different components of a traditional French dinner (including a pre- and a post-dinner drink) and which are aptly titled “*Apéritif*,” “*Amuse-bouche*,” “*Entrée*,” “*Plat principal*,” “*Salade*,” “*Assiette de fromage*,” “*Dessert*,” “*Café et friandises*,” and “*Digestif*.” In order to immerse students even more in thematic vocabulary, the author also uses culinary expressions in titles of chapter sections focusing on various linguistic skills (such as the tricky use of *de*). Among these titles are: “*une cuillerée de réflexion*,” “*une pincée de grammaire*,” “*un zeste d’activité*,” “*un brin de parole*,” and “*un grain de conversation*.”

Each chapter opens with a reading passage, which presents the French culinary tradition from a cultural or historical perspective. The themes vary from the history of
French gastronomy, to the tradition of proper usage of silverware and proper placement of glassware on the table according to correct etiquette and good table manners. Chapter 6, for example, introduces students to the rich world of French cheese, and includes ample information on the regions where they come from and the art of cutting them correctly. In Chapter 8, the tradition of two of France’s most common drinks, coffee and wine, is described in detail. In addition to these informative texts, each chapter also offers a wide variety of literary texts, a selection of prose passages from famous works by Montaigne, Proust, Dumas, Zola, Barthes, as well as poems by Apollinaire, Baudelaire, Cocteau, Queneau, Prévert, and others. The “Un brin de parole” section proposes a number of contemporary texts written by university professors, presenting numerous traditional dishes from the various regions of France and the four corners of the Francophone world. Each text is followed by comprehension questions, as well as spoken and written activities related to the chapter’s theme. Most importantly perhaps, the reading passages provide opportunities for students to make comparisons between and within the French and the American culture. At the conclusion of each chapter, the author has included an authentic recipe for a typical French dish or dessert, such as onion soup, croque-monsieur, fondue, or mousse au chocolat.

The grammar component of the book is accurately titled “une pincée.” Since the main instructional approach is communicative, the grammar is presented in supplementary form and focuses primarily on more difficult issues such as the difference between bon and bien, meilleur and mieux, the use of the relative pronouns “for which,” “of which,” “whose,” the correct use of the partitive article, or the placement of adverbs in various tenses.

Although the chapters are logically linked to the different courses of a typical French dinner, each chapter and each section is self-contained and can be used independently of other sections.

The appendix includes supplementary materials and helpful guides for both the instructor and the students. First, there is an extensive inventory of expressions of quantity, such as “un paquet de levure,” “une palette de porc,” “un clou de girofle,” etc. Next, students are provided with a sample lesson plan involving the preparation of a salade niçoise, which is accompanied by a series of guidelines, activities and assessment suggestions. Finally, there is a list of comprehension and discussion questions for Aventures dans la France gourmande: avec ma fourchette, mon couteau et mon tire-bouchon by Peter Mayle, a novel highly recommended by the author as an exceptional complement to a culture course on French gastronomy.

Additionally, many useful resources appear throughout the textbook for further investigation. The author quotes a number of useful books, such as Comment cuisiner son mari à l’africaine by Calixthe Beyala, Histoire de la cuisine et des cuisiniers by Jean-Pierre Poulain and Edmond Neirinck, Paris à table by Eugène Briffault, Le guide culinaire by Auguste Escoffier. Furthermore, the author suggests a number of websites and a variety of authentic French movies thematically linked to culinary culture, such as Vatel, Le festin de Babette, Garçon, A Year in Provence, and others. As I was writing this review, I could not help thinking of the 2007 computer-generated animated Hollywood movie Ratatouille, which tells the story of Rémy, a rat who dreams of becoming a chef and tries to achieve his goal by forming an alliance with a Parisian restaurant's garbage
boy. In my opinion, this particular movie, because it cleverly interweaves the art of cooking and the art of eating in the context of a gourmet Parisian restaurant, could also perfectly complement this excellent textbook.

À table is intended primarily for the intermediate or advanced level, and is most suitable for a one-semester course. Given the length and the structure of the textbook, students will have many opportunities to revisit, recycle, and recapitulate culinary vocabulary, expressions and ideas, which is often touted as one of the strong points of content-based instruction. The world of gastronomy has a unique and challenging jargon, and À table does a first-rate job not only introducing this jargon, but also putting it into practice in a wide variety of spoken and written activities.

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Publisher’s Response

We always appreciate a thoughtful review and thank Professor Dziedzic for his many insightful comments. As he correctly points out, this book is pegged as an intermediate text providing access to French culture and practice in French language through French cuisine. Students are, we believe, most motivated by what they understand and enjoy, and, like many an army, they travel on their stomachs. Most interesting, to us, is that the book not only provides use of all the communicative skills recommended in modern language study, but also actual physical activity. Students can eat what they make! That said, À Table is a serious work that can bring life to the intermediate classroom. It is “fun” text but sets out to create a compelling and useful course. It is also appropriate for advanced-level high school courses.

Ron Pullins
Focus Publishing


François-Monde: Connectez-vous à la francophonie is a brand-new beginning French program which promotes a learner-centered approach based on the 5Cs of foreign language education: communication, connections, cultures, comparisons, and communities. It is oriented toward high-frequency language functions, including a full integration of culture, a communicative approach to grammar, and a clear organization of chapter materials. The program is suitable for both true beginners and students with previous exposure to French. It can be easily adapted to a wide variety of teaching and
learning styles, as well as a broad range of class formats. Furthermore, it includes a number of authentic texts and activities focusing not only on the Francophone world, as is the case with most first-year programs, but also on cultural diversity within France.

The textbook is divided into twelve chapters, each of which contains several parallel sections. “Pour commencer” is an audio- and video-based presentation of vocabulary and grammar that is designed to help students develop their listening and speaking skills. “Pour aller plus loin” is print-based and provides a variety of materials for students to work on their reading and writing skills. “A la découverte” develops knowledge of Francophone cultures and societies by encouraging students to use their communicative skills in a cultural context. “A votre tour” presents activities that synthesize the material and serve as a springboard for culturally-informed oral presentations or written responses. For easier reference, the vocabulary lists at the end of each chapter are color-coded with green corresponding to “Pour commencer,” and purple corresponding to “Pour aller plus loin.”

The predominant focus of Français-Monde on contemporary culture allows learners to understand and talk about different cultural perspectives of people from around the French-speaking world. Thematic readings are drawn from an array of genres and resources, such as magazine articles, blog posts, surveys, songs, poems, essays, and charts. What I particularly like about this program is the careful and thoughtful selection of contemporary, up-to-date, and relevant chapter themes. Already in chapter three, students are exposed to the complex lexical world of computers, social networking, and the Internet. Words and expressions, such as télécharger, graver de la musique, sauvegarder un document, un clavier, stocker les fichiers, un disque dur, etc., have now become an integral and unavoidable part of daily conversations, especially among the younger, tech-savvy language learners. With this in mind, the authors have introduced computer- and Internet-related vocabulary early in the program, thereby allowing American students to be able to speak comfortably with their French counterparts and to be sur la même longueur d’onde. At the same time, the textbook makes students aware of numerous English words they are likely to hear when traveling to a French-speaking country: le challenge, le skateboard, le poster, le fitness, le must, etc. Chapters Five and Six focus primarily on education, but also give students first-hand practical information about programs fostering student exchanges, in particular the highly popular Erasmus program. Chapter Eleven presents vocabulary related to various parts of the human body, ailments, illnesses, sports, diet, and healthy living. However, it also enters into a debate about natural versus traditional medicine, l’homéopathie versus l’allopathie, and students are encouraged to form their own opinions on the subject by using their newly acquired vocabulary. The last chapter focuses on another cutting-edge subject, sustainability, and the ways we can protect the environment and the dwindling global resources. The readings include challenging and thought-provoking authentic texts about the risks of OGM (genetically modified organisms) or the advantages of le wwoofing (world-wide opportunities in organic farming), among others. Pre-reading activities offered throughout the program help students improve reading techniques by focusing on words in context, looking for discourse markers, skimming and scanning texts, as well as note-taking.
One of the most innovative components of *Français-Monde* is its My French Lab Website, [www.myfrenchlab.com](http://www.myfrenchlab.com). It brings together learning and assessment tools, an interactive version of the student text, an online Student Activities Manual, and all the materials from the audio and video programs. It is useful both for students and teachers, who can use the website to assign homework or set grading parameters. In addition to My French Lab site, a companion Website, [www.pearsonhighered.com/francais-monde](http://www.pearsonhighered.com/francais-monde), gives access to the text and SAM audio programs, as well as a wide range of Internet-based activities.

Students using this program will be exposed to a variety of audio and video materials. The DVD consists of twelve short, independent episodes, which accompany the “Visionnez la vidéo” section of each chapter of the textbook. The episodes look into the daily lives of four young native speakers of French who use the language in authentic contexts (having an informal conversation at a café, going shopping, going on vacation, etc.). The audio program mimics a real-life talk show show the participants of which discuss various aspects of their lives particular to the Francophone country they come from.

The instructors using *Français-Monde* will also benefit from a variety of valuable ancillary resources. The annotated edition of the textbook provides guidelines and suggestions for the presentation of new material, as well as answers to all the written exercises. The Instructor's Resource Manual gives examples of syllabi, lesson and unit plans, and numerous teaching tips. The Testing Program is divided into chapters corresponding to the textbook's chapters, and offers quiz and exam activities with a flexible and customizable format which, along with sample rubrics to evaluate student performance, can serve as a useful assessment tool. Instructors can either access the online testing program or download tests in electronic format and print them.

Last, but not least, in each chapter the authors have included a pronunciation section with guidelines that students can follow in order to work on particular vowels, consonants, the liaison, or intonation patterns. The three appendices at the end of the textbook offer additional grammatical expansion of more difficult grammar points, such as the placement and usage of double object pronouns, the formation of the passé simple, the conjugations of irregular verbs, and the International Phonetic Alphabet.

Overall, *Français-Monde* is a thoughtfully and carefully crafted language-learning program. It does a first-rate job demonstrating that the French language is a global act influenced by context, relationships, behavior, and culture. Mixing fun with learning, real-world contexts and authentic materials, this program will likely inspire students of diverse backgrounds, help them develop their language skills, build their cultural competence and, consequently, achieve success.

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In *Héritages francophones: Enquêtes interculturelles*, Jean-Claude Redonnet, Ronald St. Onge, Susan St. Onge, and Julianna Nielsen have developed an in-depth introduction to the vibrant cultures of the Francophone world for students in intermediate and upper-level college Francophone cultural studies courses. This rich cultural text advances the existing trend which is moving away from concentration on French as an expression of continental French language, literature, and cultural history to French as an international language spoken by Francophones around the world. The authors’ approach centers on the diversity of Francophone history in the United States and thus underscores the relevance of French to our daily life and world.

Each chapter of *Héritages Francophones* focuses on a specific Francophone community in the United States, and then explores the origins of those communities. This intriguing approach brings to life the rich diversity of Francophone culture in the U.S., and helps connect students to the real-life expression of Francophone culture around them. The chapters, or enquêtes, explore: (1) Cadiens et Acadiens: Cousins du sud et du nord; (2) Les Franco-Américains: Des champs aux usines; (3) Haitiens, nos voisins, nos frères en liberté; (4) Les Vietnamiens, une Francophonie asiatique éprouvée par les guerres; 5) Les Francophones du Machrek et du Maghreb: Le dialogue des cultures; 6) Les Francophones africains: La présence noire; and 7) Les Français: La permanence d'une présence. Thus, the chapters nicely capture the rich and varied immigrant communities and the main historical and cultural themes associating these communities to ours.

The preliminary chapter provides background historical information about Francophonie and explains the immigration patterns that have established Francophone communities in the U.S. over the centuries. Helpful maps and illustrations reinforce these movements and patterns.

Each of the seven main chapters begins with a summary of the themes to be treated in the chapter and an exploration of the importance of the Francophone area that is being highlighted. An advance organizer activity called *Mise en Route* begins the chapter by asking leading questions that coax students to draw on existing knowledge they have about the area in question. After the introduction, the section *Patrimoine: Les essentiels* gives a detailed overview of the area and themes in question, using a combination of authentic and author-generated texts. The authentic texts are fully referenced at the end of each chapter. There are two to eight shorter readings in these sections, depending on the chapter, which are followed by comprehension (*A la recherche des idées*), and reflection (*Réflexion*) questions that may be done individually or in groups. Each *Patrimoine* section further introduces two *Témoins*, French speakers from the specific region. Interviews with the *Témoins* are available for download as an audio file from the Yale University Press Web site: www.yalebooks.com/heritages. These interviews bring to life the linguistic and cultural diversity of Francophone heritage for students.

The next section of each chapter, titled *Liens francophones*, similarly made up of authentic and author-generated texts, traces back the origins of the particular Francophone region in question and explores the connections relevant to the themes
under consideration. These connections are either geographical, temporal, or other. Each reading is followed by comprehension and reflection questions to reinforce understanding to enrich analysis. The following section, *Activités d'expansion*, culminates in a series of activities that reinforce the themes of the chapter. The exercises vary from discrete point *Repères culturels* that evaluate students’ assimilation of content to discussion questions about important thematic concepts. The authors also suggest writing activities that reinforce the concepts of the chapter and encourage further exploration. The next section, *Enquêtes interculturelles*, asks questions that prompt students to make connections between the information of the chapter and their own culture. The concluding *Actualité et avenir: Pistes de recherche* offers additional resources, including Websites, for students wishing to take their exploration further. The section ends with further questions that could form the foundation for written assignments.

A concluding chapter, *La promotion et l'avenir de la Francophonie aux Etats-Unis: L'œuvre des héritiers*, explores the contemporary presence of Francophone communities and cultures in the U.S. It further takes a look at the complicated and sometimes tense relationship between Americans and the French language, culture, and historical accomplishments.

*Héritages Francophones: Enquêtes interculturelles* offers a compelling examination of the Francophone cultures of the United States and their origins. Students are increasingly interested in Francophone studies, and this innovative approach of starting from the Francophone communities of the United States and then tracing back their origins will engage students, capture their imagination, and demonstrate the usefulness and relevance of their language study.

Whereas the text has many strengths, there exist some opportunities for improvement. The interviews with the native French speakers are nicely introduced by contextual information and are typically followed by a half dozen comprehension questions that help direct the attention of students. However, the clips are quite short, and I would have liked to have more extensive listening opportunities for our students. Training the ear to hear and distinguish different accents takes dedicated and sustained exposure, and these interviews could have been even more beneficial with more content. The interviews are Web based, and the audio quality perhaps could have been advanced by putting them on a CD.

Furthermore, although the visual layout of the text has useful maps, charts, and some well-chosen photos, including more visuals might help bring cultural information to life. Including a video component in each chapter would also reinforce the information and themes contained therein.

In conclusion, the authentic and author-based readings are well-chosen, varied, and interesting. Together, the readings, activities, and opportunities for further research provide a thorough overview of Francophone cultures and their unique cultural, historical, spiritual, and literary traditions. This text could stand alone as the foundation of a bridge course to advanced literature, civilization, and culture courses. It could also be effectively used as a reader in an advanced grammar or conversation course. In any setting, it will engage and delight students of French.
Publisher’s Response

Yale University Press thanks The NECTFL Review and reviewer Dr. Linda Beane Katner for the careful and positive review of Héritages francophones. The clear organization, intriguing activities, and comprehension and reflection questions, as well as many colorful photos, maps, and charts provide intermediate and upper-level French classes with a panoramic view of Francophone cultures existing in the United States and their relationships to Francophone communities around the world. As Dr. Beane Katner concludes, the text is appropriate as a foundation for advanced courses, or as a reader in grammar or conversation classes. Héritages francophones is also a timely publication for upper-level and AP high school French classes; the AP exam increasingly tests students on their familiarity with French-speaking areas of the world aside from France, and aspects particular to those cultures. Dr. Beane Katner’s thoughtful suggestions for improvement include longer audio clips and video clips for each chapter. The “Liens utiles” section of the book’s Website, yalebooks.com/heritages includes a fairly comprehensive section of links to audio and video, and the authors have uploaded some video interviews with French-speakers in the U.S to the blog section of the same site. We may add more audio and video links to the site. We thank Dr. Beane Katner again for her summary and favorable review of Héritages francophones and hope students and teachers will find the book provides an engaging as well as appealing resource for their courses.

Yale University Press’s next French text is Tu sais quoi?!: Cours de conversation en français by Annabelle Dolidon and Norma López-Burton, and in Summer 2012 we will publish the 3rd edition of French in Action, by Pierre J. Capretz, with Béatrice Abetti, Marie Odile-Germain, and Barry Lydgate, which will also include new material about the Francophone world. If instructors would like to request an examination copy of this or any of our language textbooks, you may do so at yalebooks.com/languageexam.

Karen Stickler
Academic Discipline Marketer
Yale University Press


Subjonctif ou indicatif?: Précis utile de grammaire française is an unusual offering in the world of academic textbooks and supplementary resource materials in the sense that its author, Dr. Joseph Litkoff, was originally trained as a physician. Litkoff, who learned both French and English as an adult, thus writes from the mature perspective of a student faced with learning a “mood” that is seldom used in his native tongue: “The English language expresses these nuances via context. In French, the opposition
between indicative and subjunctive moods appears principally in subordinate clauses and is often a veritable brain-buster. Furthermore, while the subjunctive is still used in the French language, its importance in France is waning. In spite of this decline, there is no social group that can afford not to master the subjunctive mood, even though some group members may choose to ignore its niceties. My task was limited to classifying the expressions which are to a certain extent stereotyped, or standard” (XIII).

With the exception of the introduction, Subjonctif ou indicatif?: Précis utile de grammaire française is written entirely in French. It comprises four chapters, two appendices, and a bibliography. The first chapter, “Propositions complétives,” consists of three sections: Complétives conjonctives par “que” (“ce que”) and Verbes impersonnels, Verbes d’opinion, Verbes de volonté, Verbes de sentiment, Autres cas; Complétives interrogatives indirectes; and Complétives infinitives. The second chapter, “Propositions circonstancielles,” is comprised of eight sections: Subordonnée temporelle; Subordonnée causale; Subordonnée finale; Subordonnée consécutive; Subordonnée concessive; Subordonnée conditionnelle; Subordonnée comparative; and Subordonnée d’addition. Chapter Three focuses on “Propositions relatives” and Chapter Four on “Propositions participiales.” The first appendix details “Pseudo-propositions” and the second “Le subjonctif en phrase indépendante (principale).” The detail of each chapter outline makes for a user-friendly reference tool for the intermediate to advanced student of French.

While there exist a multitude of reference manuals on the correct use of French grammar, for this reviewer, what distinguishes Subjonctif ou indicatif?: Précis utile de grammaire française from other supplementary resource materials on the subjunctive is the color-coding used in sample sentences. Red is for when the subjunctive must be employed, blue for the indicative, green for the conditional, light brown for the infinitive, and light purple for the participle. This simple and consistent color technique helps students to visualize more quickly and hopefully acquire a more solid command of the subjunctive while not getting bogged down in grammatical complexities.

Subjonctif ou indicatif?: Précis utile de grammaire française would be ideal for a stylistics course designed for students majoring in French and for students preparing to write a paper of significant length, such as an honors thesis. Although its hefty price tag of $54.95 might be intimidating at first, a quick search of the Internet, such as www.amazon.com, reveals opportunities to buy new copies of the book at significantly lower prices. Moreover, potential adopters would be wise to consult the book’s Website, www.subjonctif-ou-indicatif.com, for opportunities to buy the book as well as to have a sneak preview of some of its contents.

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*Personnages: An Intermediate Course in French Language and Francophone Culture* is a comprehensive year-long intermediate French program that combines grammar instruction and vocabulary expansion through integrating activities that cover the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. A short preliminary chapter, *Point de départ*, is designed to immerse students in French from the first day of class and access their previous linguistic foundation through exploring the theme of identity. This preliminary chapter explicitly teaches paraphrasing and circumlocution in order to encourage the exclusive use of French in class.

The ten chapters of the text each concentrate on *personnages* (“characters”) from different parts of the Francophone world who interact with other Francophones in real-life contexts and situations. These interactions model authentic communication in both written and oral formats, as well as provide bases for student practice and personalization. A short concluding chapter presents the passive voice and literary past tenses as a reference for students.

The authors detail the main features of the program as:

- Francophone culture. Each chapter focuses on a specific French-speaking area, including Paris, Québec, Tahiti, Lyon, the Maghreb, Sénégal, Martinique, Genève, Strasbourg, and Haïti. The text introduces a *personnage* from each region, giving brief details on the name, profession, and nationality of the native speaker.
- Student-centered approach. According to the authors, students learn about the people of each region and then share information about their own lives. Students describe personal tastes, family, experience, opinion, etc.
- Interactive activities that work. Personalization is a main goal of the interactive activities in *Personnages*, and is designed to promote active discussion among students.
- Development of language accuracy and fluency. The text provides many opportunities to students to apply the cultural, lexical, and grammatical information they are learning both orally and in written form. The application exercises and activities are designed to build strategic competence.
- Clear and concise presentation of French grammar. According to the authors, the text has been praised from the beginning for helping students build an accurate and usable grammatical foundation. The approach to reinforcing grammar has been continuously refined, according to user feedback.
- Reading as a process. Authentic readings are presented with pre- and post-reading activities. Students are encouraged to use a variety of tools to comprehend the authentic texts. Each chapter includes a poem that is also available on the In-Text Audio.
- Contextualized writing. Each chapter contains a three-stage writing activity, *Début de rédaction*, *Brouillon*, and *Rédaction*, which guides students through the writing process.
• The Personnages Website has a section for students and another section for instructors.

The authors also describe the following revisions for the fourth edition: (1) Content updates to reflect changes in socio-cultural, political, and other conditions in the Francophone world; (2) Three new Lectures meaning that each chapter now has a poem and a further reading on the Website; (3) Cultural information has been updated in the two-page reading that opens each chapter and throughout the text, and new photos have been added with captions that engage students’ interest from the beginning of each chapter; (4) Grammar sequencing has been modified to reflect user feedback; and (5) Workbook activities have been updated and revised.

Each chapter focuses on one area of the world where French is a native language. An introductory cultural section, Connaissez-vous…?, begins with a cultural literacy quiz that helps students anticipate the information contained in the opening reading. Students are referred to the Personnages home page where they will find activities that require them to look up specific information about the Francophone region they are studying.

The first major chapter section, Notre Personnage, invites students to meet the personnage associated with the Francophone region. Students learn about the character, listen to conversations that involve him or her, and read letters or narratives related to their experiences. Various activities reinforce the expressions, vocabulary, and other new material, and provide students with the opportunity to personalize the material by applying it to their own lives.

Following this introduction to the main character of the chapter, a list of active vocabulary is provided, along with application activities. This vocabulary is repeated in the À l’écoute and Échange sections and further reinforced in the Structure section. Each chapter contains two conversations which are recorded on the In-Text Audio CDs that supplement the textbook. Comprehension exercises for the conversations are included in the Workbook. A Tête-à-tête section trains students to carry out two communicative functions. The In-Text Audio models these functions in a Conversation script. Expressions that are useful for the functions are listed in Expressions utiles, while students apply their newly-gained knowledge by discussing the Entre amis questions.

In the Échanges section, students read letters, short readings, or other realia that further explore the chapter theme. These readings are followed by comprehension questions to aid student understanding. The first phase of the writing process is introduced in the Début de rédaction, in which students are invited to integrate the vocabulary and the expressions of the chapter.

The second major chapter section, Structure, centers on grammatical structures introduced previously in the chapter. The concise grammar explanations are illustrated by examples, and serve as a springboard for the review and mastery of these concepts. Students apply the grammar in interactive exercises. The second stage of the writing process, Brouillon, is introduced at the end of the session, and students are encouraged to integrate some of the newly learned grammar in their writing.

The third major chapter section, À la découverte, contains authentic cultural and literary readings. These readings introduce students to major French and Francophone authors from around the world. One of the readings in each chapter is a poem, which
is also recorded on the In-Text Audio. Each reading has pre- and post-reading activities to ensure better comprehension by students.

The final major section of each chapter, **Intégration**, presents a series of creative activities that integrate the cultural and linguistic material of the chapter. The three-part writing activity concludes with the final **Réaction**.

In addition to the text, this comprehensive program contains an Instructor's Edition, Student Activities Manuel which includes a Workbook and a Lab Manual, In-Text Audio CD, and Personnages Website. The Website is completely integrated with the textbook and includes: Internet Discovery Activities; Culture Links; Self Tests; Video Segments; Audio Flashcards for Vocabulary; Downloadable .mp3 files of the In-Text Audio CDs; Lab Audio CDs; and the Personnages video. The Personnages Multimedia e-Book offers an on-line version of the comprehensive program.

The instructor's website contains the testing program with rubrics, an introduction to testing concepts, answer key for textbook and activities, General Resources, guide to the syllabus and detailed suggestions for lesson planning, Classroom handouts, Audio Script for A l'écoute, Lab Audio and Testing Script, Video Script, image gallery of oral presentations, additional readings, and .mp3 Files of the Testing Audio.

When comparing this comprehensive intermediate French program with others, one might conclude that the fourth edition of Personnages does not keep up with the current evolution of pedagogy and approaches in university language training. The text is less visually vibrant than many of its peers, and could be much more visually appealing to this generation of students. The heavy use of sketches as opposed to photos and other realia strikes me as being a bit outdated. The cultural links, while extensive, seem to overly rely on Wikipedia.fr. Many of the features of the text have been standard practice for decades now, and do not represent an advance in foreign language pedagogy. Although this is a solid intermediate French program, in my opinion, there are more compelling textbook options that will better engage students and advance their learning.

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**Publisher’s Response**

In her review in the NECTFL Review, Dr. Linda Beane-Katner suggests that Personnages: An Intermediate Course in French Language and Francophone Culture is “less visually vibrant than many of its peers, and could be much more visually appealing to this generation of students.” While the authors might agree that the use of sketches might be less eye-catching than photos or other realia, we feel that they offer a way to focus more closely on what is being emphasized in the chapter. In writing the 4th edition, we solicited feedback from past users about what they liked about Personnages and what changes they would like to see. Reviewers were asked to evaluate our material and we took in account their recommendations. We believe that Personnages does what it is intended to do and that is to give a solid grammar review of French grammar while developing the four skills.
Petit Joss: École urbaine mixte, Tome 1 is a bande dessinée (a color graphic novel), written and designed by Joëlle Esso and presents an extremely insightful and touching introduction to life in Douala, Cameroun in the 1970s, approximately ten years after Cameroun’s official independence from France. Partially autobiographical, the action occurs principally in Mme Djecky’s CM1B class and is told through the eyes of the children. The main characters are: Malapa, Enanguè, Mpondo, Bidjeck, Kamto, Awono, Epéti, Abama, Ekwè, Missipo, Elombo, Disso, Ekedi, Epondè, Tanko, Maloko, Garga, Silo, and Mme Etambi, the school’s director. Supporting characters are: Ekobo, Dikabo, Dipita, Wombé, Jabea, Elimbi, Soué, Nyama, Wanko, Ndomjeu, Amenak, Akeva, Biboum, Gwet, Mangudi, Pangudi, Magne, Tagné, Evina, Dikoum, and Dongo. Chantal Épée, author and former student in the primary school at Petit Joss, explains the importance of Esso’s work in the book’s preface: “C’est le temps durant lequel le corps enseignant devient monochrome, composé essentiellement d’autochtones. Les esprits en formation que nous sommes reçoivent le savoir d’adultes qu’ils peuvent admirer et qui, en outre, leur ressemblent. … En ce temps-là, je ne mesurais pas les tensions que pouvait susciter la période transitoire que nous vivions. Les enseignants expatriés devaient abandonner des postes privilégiés, souvent une posture paternaliste et passer le témoin aux autochtones. Ils devaient aussi quitter un territoire et retrouver un pays dans lequel ils auraient du mal à se réadapter” (3).

Petit Joss: École urbaine mixte, Tome 1 is broken down into six chapters: L’École buissonnière; Le Petit déjeuner; L’Éclipse; Le Petit champ; La Punition; and, L’Araignée. In L’École buissonnière, Mme Djecky is sick and her class is therefore divided into two groups: one to go with the CM1A class and the second to go with another teacher. Silo and Abama, the two best students of Mme Djecky’s CM1B class, decide to uncharacteristically sneak off and skip school for the day, since neither of the substitute teachers knows them. After initially enjoying their free exploration of Douala, they decide to sneak back into school, but are caught and sent to the Director's office for punishment. Silo and Abama are then teased by their classmates for getting into trouble. In Le Petit déjeuner, Dipita, Silo, and their little brother Disso miss breakfast and just barely make it to school for the day. Consequently, their father sends his driver to the local boulanger to buy three croissants and bring them to school for the children. Later, Dipita, a student in the CM2A class, is egged on by the class bully for not sharing...
his croissant and ends up in a fist fight after school in the neighboring courtyard of the military school. The same day, the Kalla family arrives at the school just as the guard is locking the gate. The father lifts his children over the gate so they can go to class. Mme Etambi, who does not tolerate late arrivals, instantly appears and pulls the ear of one of the children. The father is incensed and removes his children from the school. In L’Éclipse, the children take fright when suddenly it becomes perfectly dark but calm down after Mme Djecky explains to them what an eclipse is and that there are two forms, lunar and solar. Scenes in this chapter also depict the unrest that takes place in the streets of Douala.

In Le Petit champ, the children of CM1B are asked to tend to Mme Etambi’s personal garden. Frustrated by the work that they are asked to do that yields no rewards for them, they steal some of the vegetables and are eventually caught and punished for their bad behavior. In La Punition, Mme Djecky must excuse herself from the class for a few minutes so she asks Abama to watch over her class by writing down the names of any students who misbehave. Almost immediately after Mme Djecky leaves the room, trouble breaks out. Abama prepares a list of the trouble-making students but does not include the names of her friends who misbehaved. The punished students take their revenge on Abama by physically attacking her when Mme Djecky once again needs to leave them in order to meet with Mme Etambi. Abama is so badly bruised by her fellow students that Mme Etambi must call Abama’s mother to come and pick her up from school. Needless to say, Abama’s mother is furious and shouts at Mme Etambi that Petit Joss is one of the best schools in Douala and that her daughter’s safety is at risk. She warns Mme Etambi that she will be back in touch with her. In L’Araignée, a rainy September day illustrates how some children will play in the rain, while others will wait under the awning (that is, unless a boy pushes a girl into a puddle). A rare poisonous spider is later found in the classroom and an exterminator is brought to the school to take care of it. When school resumes its normal routine, the class notices that the spider’s web remains in the classroom. Mme Djecky uses the web as a lesson in perseverance for the students, especially as Siankam and Dikoum prepare to lead their class’s team in a championship soccer match. Extremely motivated by the lesson learned with the spider’s web, the class wins the soccer match.

Joëlle Esso is a multi-talented artist: painter, comedian, dancer, backing and solo singer. She has accompanied various artists: Jean-Michel Jarre, Carol Fredericks, Yannick Noah, Jimmy Cliff, Manu Dibango, Céline Dion, Tina Arena, Dee Dee Bridgewater, among others. From her work with other artists grew her need to express her own emotions. Petit Joss: École urbaine mixte, Tome 1, is inspired by her homeland, Cameroon, and presents an intriguing swirl of cultures and styles that will open the minds and hearts of American students to the world of Francophone Africa.

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German


Minimum requirements: Win98, Pentium II, 64MB Win2K, Pentium III, 128MB WinXP, Pentium III, 128MB 1024 x 768 monitor CD-ROM, 400 MB space on HD. Power Macintosh G3 running OS X (10.2.8, 10.3.9, 10.4.6 or later), 128 MB RAM, 1024 x 768 monitor CD-ROM, 400 MB space on HD.

For more information please contact Dr. Lee Forester, Evia Learning Inc.; 36 W. 8th St. Suite 250; Holland, MI 49423; forester@evialearning.com; phone: 616/393-8803. Visit [http://www.evialearning.com](http://www.evialearning.com) for direct purchase.

While the majority of post-secondary beginning German instruction in the U.S. is dominated by approximately six widely-used textbooks nationwide, there are even fewer standard materials readily available at the intermediate level. *Weiter Geht’s!* not only adds a viable alternative to this small pool, but does so in an innovative manner that actively seeks to engage a new generation of mobile, wired, visually-inclined college students whose non-traditional learning tends toward the individualized and asynchronous. This is a decidedly appealing and noteworthy accomplishment in a language that generally sees a steep drop in second-year enrollment and, in the past decade, has been experiencing a decrease in perceived relevance among undergraduates.

As does its beginning-level predecessor *Auf Geht’s!*, Forrester’s intermediate-level curriculum aims to help students gain not only foreign language skills, but also develop the necessary intercultural competency tools to navigate an increasingly global environment. *Weiter Geht’s!* was conceptualized in response to an MLA recommendation, that in addition to language proficiency, foreign language curricula should also emphasize systematic teaching of cultural difference. The hallmark of *Weiter Geht’s!* from a curricular perspective is that interactive multimedia takes a central instructional role, with the workbook (*Lernbuch*) materials serving an ancilliary role. The pedagogical premise is that students will engage with the interactive software outside of class in a non-linear, user-driven fashion and use the accompanying workbook to enhance classroom production time.

Another sound pedagogical decision that harks back to the beginning course involves the reduction of grammar in favor of more opportunities to practice and master a limited number of forms necessary for intermediate-mid level production. This includes combining and recombining learned elements to express personal meaning and producing sentence-length utterances primarily in reactive mode. The bulk of pedagogical emphasis is placed on culture gap management, which the authors defined as the ability to anticipate what information a German audience needs in order to understand an American’s utterances from a content perspective, rather than from a structural one.

The materials are organized into ten chapters that deal with concrete, intermediate level-appropriate topics such as: German society, Germans in relation to themselves and others in the world, German history, and demographic/narrative information.
about Germany, Switzerland, and Austria. Each chapter contains between seven and nine distinct inputs/activities for which objectives are clearly stated. Each module has interactive elements such as “click and drag,” direct input, “see and say,” and an interactive visual/aural dictionary. Inputs include autobiographical narratives, charts and graphs, dialogs, and excerpts from contemporary and canonical German literature. Text inputs progress throughout the materials in terms of sentence length and complexity, sentence to paragraph level discourse markers, and abstraction. As with Forrester’s other materials, a large sampling of authentic pictures provides visual stimulation and tangible representations of real life in German-speaking countries.

In that vein, the reviewer noted occasional discomfort related to isolated dialogs dealing with immigrant populations in Germany. As one of Germany’s major social and historical issues revolves around migration and identity, this is a necessary topic for a course at this level—particularly one that is expressly focused on cultural awareness. In her comprehensive study of beginning level German textbooks, the reviewer found that a majority of textbooks’ culture materials contained what she coined “assimilative” (Ashby 2003) immigrant narratives. In these third-party authored materials, all cultural conflicts created by the presence of a German “Other” were quickly resolved when the narrative posited the foreigner as assimilating rapidly to standard (Frankfurt) German norms and values.

While there is an occasional (and seemingly unavoidable) whiff of this phenomenon in these materials as well, a refreshing number of text inputs, monologues, and dialogs in which immigrants were frank about lingering unsolved integration issues, was noted. One encounter in particular left vital issues appropriately hanging. In this instance, a presumably Muslim girl visits a German friend’s house. She shows up with an older, uninvited brother (due to her presumed need for a male relative chaperone). Later, he intervenes in their mother tongue when the little sister was about to accept the Grillwurst (likely containing pork) offered at dinner. While it was not completely clear how instructors were to deal with these issues, if at all, the miscommunication, puzzlement, lack of causal awareness, and sense of non-closure offered on both sides of the dialog mimic current real life cultural (mis)encounters that take place on a daily basis when Western Europeans interact with Eastern European and Central Asian immigrants.

In terms of teacher support, a password-protected website provides instructor and student support for users of Weiter Geht’s! materials. The Website allows access to tried and tested PDF handouts for module-related games, conversation activities, cultural readings, questionnaires, dialogs, realia, vocabulary, grammar, skits, role plays, and Web quests. In addition, a teacher’s handbook outlines lesson plans for each chapter, provides useful overview thumbnail sketches of computer interactions, and contains a photo index, assessment items, and additional in-class media. Using a wiki-like platform, adopting instructors can share materials, which has significantly augmented the number of useful materials since the author’s last review of this product series.

Weiter Geht’s! is an effective and engaging alternative for intermediate-level college German students that covers much of the same content as other intermediate courses but with less emphasis on structure and more on interactional skills.
References


Greek


Greek instructors at the introductory level in college struggle with the choice of textbooks. There are the older, more traditional volumes (Chase and Philips, Groton, Wilding), the Joint Association of Classical Teachers Reading Greek volumes, and the popular Athenaze. Cynthia Shelmerdine of The University of Texas at Austin addresses the crowd dissatisfied with Athenaze by returning to the standard grammar and translation model, focusing on the translation of “real” Greek texts, as she refers to them. Like the majority of Greek textbook authors, she proceeds with the conventional declensions and conjugations, beginning with omega verbs and second declension nouns and adjectives, and offering snippets of adapted classical authors (primarily Xenophon and Herodotus) for translation. She prefers these to the “invented” passages of JACT and Athenaze.

Language texts are notoriously difficult to organize and any approach will have its drawbacks. Shelmerdine's book is a revised edition of an earlier text and, since the first edition in 2001, she has made important modifications, including dividing some chapters and recreating exercises to focus on the recognition, rather than the creation, of forms. She introduces students to the entire verbal system in the first chapter, understanding that the perfect will not be addressed for another twenty or so chapters. It is difficult to discern how much students should be introduced to a topic in passing, before actually having to master it.

Shelmerdine's approach offers substantial advantages. The first is the early, thorough introduction of principal parts. Her explanatory style is accessible, clear, and intuitive. For example, in her introduction to 1st and 2nd declension adjectives, in Chapter 7, she begins the discussion by clarifying that “Adjectives exist in all three genders, so that they can agree with any noun” (33). This is one of the most important pieces of information for a Greek student and it is memorably placed at the beginning of the chapter and clearly worded. Shelmerdine seems to understand what questions Greek students will have, and answers them before they can ask them. Similarly accessible and student-friendly are her explanations of relative pronouns, contract verbs, and participles.

Shelmerdine presents the entire system of verbs: thematic verbs, contract verbs, athematic verbs, in that order. Thus the student learns the future, aorist, and imperfect
sooner than in many introductions. While this approach fills in gaps, students are exposed earlier to more complicated stem changes, suffixes, and augments. Some students will appreciate full charts sooner, others will find them daunting.

Her appendices are helpful, particularly her chart of the principal parts of the verbs included in the book’s vocabularies. I also welcome the construction of her charts in Appendix 4: Summary of Forms, in which she includes columns of complete nouns accompanied by columns of just endings (although she does not do this with verbs). She includes many small charts that are very helpful, thereby indicating her extensive teaching experience; e.g., lists of the cardinal and ordinal numbers.

As she points out in her introduction, she has designed the grammatical instructions to aid in recognizing constructions, rather than to aid in forming them, knowing full well that most Greek students will be using the language to translate. The print is an attractive font of user-friendly size and design. An instructor should be able to fit this into one full year, although it is less easy to imagine dividing the 34 chapters into 28-30 weeks of classes.

My first, minor criticism is that at times chapters seem short and too condensed, possibly due to the author having cut them in half from the first edition because they were too long. While most of the time her language is helpful and clear, at times she can seem rushed and overly abbreviated (as if running out of space and time). A second more significant issue is the time that elapses between the explanation of thematic verbs (Chapter 2) and contract verbs (Chapter 19). Again, this is perhaps a matter of taste, as the author takes the students through the entire thematic system (including all tenses, moods and voices) before moving on to contract verbs.

Ultimately, the choice for an instructor of Introductory Greek focuses on theories about the relationship between language and culture and the purpose of studying an ancient language. In learning ancient Greek, ought the student feel at home and exposed to a more “realistic” and relatable kind of world that invents conversations between ordinary masters and slaves and fathers and children (Athenaze), or study the “real” Greek texts—the ones produced by the intellectuals of the Greek world, specifically historians, philosophers, and playwrights? Shelmerdine’s use of Xenophon and Herodotus privileges, as does the classical studies discipline as a whole, the military and historical orientation of the classical Greek writers themselves. If the instructor chooses this latter approach, then Cynthia Shelmerdine offers a substantially improved and attractive Introductory text that successfully moderates the stiffness of more conventional offerings.

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**Japanese**

Advanced Japanese: Communication in Context is a unique and innovative classroom textbook for teaching appropriate language use in real-life situations to advanced students of Japanese. Its companion Website posts complete audio files to accompany all dialogues in the textbook, image files of all photos included in the textbook, and PDF files for the teacher's guide and optional extra activities for students. The textbook consists of six units. Unit 1 is a general introduction to the book. Units 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 feature essential communicative functions: complimenting, thanking, requesting, refusing, and apologizing. The book has an insightful foreword by Professor Seiichi Makino describing the book and its significance in the field of Japanese language education. A partial list of exercise topics and a useful bibliography are provided at the end of the book. Each Unit consists of an introductory paragraph that clarifies the objectives of the Unit, a “Warm-up” section for brainstorming, over 10 exercises with numerous contexts, and a conclusion. The “Warm-up” section lets students discuss how they communicate in their native language within a given context. Each exercise has multiple contexts in which students can try to communicate in Japanese and then use audio files to listen to sample conversations by native speakers of Japanese. Glossaries are provided as needed and a self-evaluation section is included in each unit. There are some fill-in-the-blanks tasks that help students classify and organize their reasoning. The conversational strategies that students would have learned through exercises and discussions are summarized in the Conclusion.

Nowadays most elementary textbooks of Japanese nowadays include some cultural notes and warnings about inappropriate language use. However, even high-achieving students of Japanese often make native speakers of Japanese frown and become confused when they talk to them outside of the classroom even if they make no errors in terms of grammar and vocabulary and appear to be following appropriate socio-cultural norms. This is because there are ample variations and hidden pragmatic factors in everyday language. Advanced Japanese: Communication in Context helps students discover numerous subtle, but pragmatic factors essential for speaking idiomatic Japanese as well as a variety of strategies that native speakers of Japanese use in their daily lives. For example, most students of Japanese are taught, at some early point, that they should deny the compliments that they may occasionally receive when speaking in Japanese. However, in reality, the situation is not that simple. In some contexts, native speakers of Japanese like to accept compliments. If not, they may want to question the validity of a compliment or add background information. Or, they might want to just change the subject after smiling briefly or maybe want to use different tones, pitch, intonation, speech style, or dialect, depending on the context.

There are many scholarly articles and books on the pragmatics of Japanese that deal with such strategies and variations, but it is hard to find a textbook that effectively teaches these topics. The authors of Advanced Japanese: Communication in Context put a tremendous amount of effort into creating a textbook with numerous natural and frequently occurring conversational contexts that students can try out and learn from. It is obvious that the book was written after thorough research in pragmatics: even native speakers of Japanese would be amazed when seeing the wide range of variations for a seemingly simple communicative task. This textbook carefully lays out exercises through which students can first guess what they would say in Japanese in a
given context, listen to a sample authentic conversation using one of the audio files, and then, following thoughtfully designed instructions, discuss the difference between them with their classmates. That is, they can analyze the facts to discover a variety of pragmatic factors, discourse tools, and conversational strategies. This book takes a descriptive approach rather than a prescriptive approach in that it does not force or prescribe ideas or rules to students, but instead offers ample authentic Japanese conversations in contexts to analyze. It takes a student-centered and hands-on approach and a “discovery method” by which learners actively hypothesize, try out, observe, evaluate, discuss, analyze, and discover facts. This helps them learn abstract concepts and facts quickly and clearly, helping them become independent learners who can continue to learn whenever the language is spoken around them, even outside of the classroom, and without a teacher. This textbook naturally strengthens “Communication,” “Cultures,” and “Comparisons” included in the National Standards. The companion website is user-friendly: the audio files posted on the site are extremely easy to play back, and the photos are in good resolution and downloadable.

Overall, Advanced Japanese: Communication in Context is an innovative, much-needed, and exciting classroom textbook for intermediate/advanced students of Japanese. Teachers of Japanese at the college level might consider developing a course for Japanese pragmatics, using this book as a main or supplementary text.

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“East is East and West is West, and never the twain shall meet” wrote the British poet, novelist, and old India hand Rudyard Kipling. This delightful little book will not erase fundamental differences between East and West as much as help Western visitors correctly identify and even understand much of what they find bizarre and strange in the Land of the Rising Sun.

“The first-time traveler to any foreign country—no matter what the person’s place of origin and no matter how well he or she has prepared for the trip—is always surprised at the differences between expectations and reality. The greater the differences, the greater the surprise, and it is this surprise that constitutes what is called ‘culture’ shock, a potentially debilitating malady that can affect even the most enthusiastic visitor to the most paradisiacal locale”. (ix). As its subtitle suggests, The Japanese Way offers an introduction to the Japanese way of life and presents “fun-size” mini-presentations arranged in alphabetical order that cover virtually every aspect of Japanese behavior, attitudes and customs, thereby promising to ease the pain of acute culture shock. On the other hand, in this age of globalization, cultural differences are becoming ever less pronounced and no doubt I am not the only person who travels internationally who has noticed that something is a changing in this world of ours: an understanding has
developed in host nations of the needs and expectations of visitors from overseas. Just look at France where everyone and their cousin suddenly speak beautiful English in tourist venues such as hotels, restaurants, and museums. I have noticed a similar phenomenon in Japan over the twenty-odd years I have been a regular visitor. Young Japanese especially have changed: for starters, their English is far better than their parent’s generations and, furthermore, they display a curiosity about the outside world which was not always evident before. Japanese culture has changed and become more accommodating to gaiko-kujin (this term or gaikoku no hito is considered more polite than the stereotypical term gaijin, title of James Clavell’s bestselling novel Gaijin), i.e., to say non-Japanese, so it is no doubt an exaggeration to write that “mailing a postcard, ordering dinner, hailing a cab, crossing the street—suddenly turn complicated” (ix). In virtually all of Japan it is quite easy in fact to accomplish any one of these tasks with a minimum of effort.

What is still really difficult of course is acquiring a modicum of basic Japanese to survive everyday encounters. To alleviate this communication gap, the authors have included a generous helping of Japanese vocabulary and basic phrases, transcribed into Romaji (a system of transcription into Roman characters). The weary-eyed American traveler who has never been exposed to Japanese may find the task of learning even a handful of phrases too much to bear because of the unfamiliarity of the many sounds, short and seemingly indistinguishable syllables (ko ku; hi, ho, etc.); however, ambitious travelers, willing to invest time and effort into learning about the culture they have decided to explore, will be positively delighted. Even casual and business travelers who do not have the time to spare can learn much about Japan just by browsing this volume. This is very much the sort of book you can read on the plane ride to Japan or in the peace and quiet of your hotel room at the end of a busy day.

Globalization notwithstanding, there is real culture shock involved in traveling to Japan and anyone planning a visit will do well to read this eminently useful and well-conceived book. Just to list a handful of facts most visitors to Japan probably are unaware of, did you know that:

- The population of Japan is 124 million, approximately half that of the United States, and the land area is about two-thirds the size of California; the four islands of Japan are arranged in bow shape, roughly comparable in both latitude and seasonal characteristics to the stretch from Maine to Georgia;
- The Japanese drive on the left side of the road;
- Baseball has been the favorite sport for at least a generation or two;
- The guest of the house is the first to use the bathtub;
- It is poor manners to show others your collection of business cards;
- Public toilets do not supply paper towels;
- 9 and 4 are unlucky numbers;
- Karaoke literally means ‘empty’ orchestra;
- Japanese have only one given name;
- There is no custom of tipping in Japan (cheap Charlies, be advised that a service charge is included in the price);
- Personal seal stamps are still very much the practice in Japan.
The 89 topics included cover every subject imaginable and are listed alphabetically, moving from Abbreviations and Contractions (covering the metrical system and commonly used contractions in Japanese) to Zoological Calendar, helping foreigners match their astrological sign with the correct animal. Adapted from the Chinese, the zoological calendar year runs in twelve-year cycles, making this reviewer a Sheep (considered docile and faithful) and his Japanese-born wife a Tiger (a much more assertive species). If you really want to know how old someone is (asking still is considered too personal), ask for his or her zoological calendar year. Among other significant topics covered, one notes:

*Bathing and Bathhouses* (you are in for a surprise and a treat, too; but, foreign visitors definitely need a primer on what to do and not to do with their clothes off);

*Body Language and Gestures* (Japan, like every country, has its immutable do's and don'ts; to be on the safe side, avoid any gestures altogether);

*Bowing* (you will never master the complex ritual of bowings but do try to show your respect by bowing when you meet and take leave of your host);

*Brand Names and Brand-Name Goods* (The Japanese are obsessed with Louis Vuitton, as everyone knows, but this obsession can be explained, historically, by a demand for quality as well as a long-standing tradition of excellence in Japanese manufacturing and arts and crafts.) Here, I can’t help but think of that clever advertising slogan, “What has your Toyota done for you lately?” Most of us will agree that one should only buy the best;

*Business cards* (a sine qua non for anyone going to Japan; and don’t forget to keep them out, in plain sight, in front of you, during the entirety of your meeting);

*Directness* (Japanese have been much misunderstood for a perceived unwillingness to say “no” or to assert a personal opinion, both of which are false, of course, and the pointers in this section will provide you with the most commonly used cues to look for if you think that the conversation is heading “south”);

*Footwear* (the Japanese are always changing shoes, it seems, even to go to the bathroom, and you will be a much appreciated guest if you learn to observe the three or four rules that set shoe etiquette);

*Gifts* (a protocol of gifts still exists, even among close friends, and is especially important to observe in professional contexts where it is best to bring one gift too many, than one too few);

*Hotels and Inns* (Western-style hotels, of which there is an abundance everywhere in Japan, pose no problem; but, to discover the real Japan, you need to stay in a traditional ryokan or minshuku, where certain rules still apply; in addition, there are a great many so-called businessmen's hotels which are incredibly inexpensive [$40 a night is what this traveler normally pays]);

*Religion* (this section helps you bone up on differences between Buddhism, Shintoism, and Taoism, all practiced in Japan, by the same people, but in different contexts);

*Shopping* (credit cards are finally becoming almost as accepted as in this country, making it very easy, but hazardous to your end of the month statement because there sure are a lot of nice souvenirs to bring back from Japan);

*Thank-Yous and Regrets* (teaches you a handful of helpful phrases and explains their context);
Just checking. Unless you are perfectly conversant with all of the above, you would do well to acquire this useful small book before leaving for Japan. Each section is rather on the short side, but provides just the right of information to be meaningful in a practical context.

The Japanese Way is an eminently useful guide to everyday life in Japan and could easily be incorporated into the language curriculum at any level: as an accompanying, enrichment tool in a language class or as recommended reading in an introduction to Japanese culture and civilization class.

Tom Conner
Professor of Modern Languages and Literatures
St. Norbert College
De Pere, WI

Publisher’s Response

I would like to thank the reviewer for his thorough and enthusiastic review of the second edition of The Japanese Way. While aware of Professor Conner’s extensive knowledge of France and la Francophonie, I was surprised to learn of his regular travel to Japan over an extended period, and greatly appreciate his evaluation of this book from a standpoint of this experience.

The review references many of the distinctive features of Japanese culture covered in the book. Professor Conner observes, however, that cultural differences are becoming less pronounced nowadays, leading to the valid critique that travelers to Japan will be able to avoid many of the complexities that the book references. That said, the authors and publisher agree with the assessment that The Japanese Way provides insights that can effectively supplement a class on Japanese culture and civilization, as well as enrich the language curriculum, where its inclusion of relevant Japanese terms and phrases will be appreciated. It is to this audience that the book is primarily directed, but it certainly also enhances the cultural experiences of the adventurous traveler.

Christopher Brown
Publisher
McGraw-Hill Professional

Korean


First, a note about the authorial team. They earn top marks for producing a collaborative work that includes a non-Korean on the team. This latter point is especially important considering that non-heritage learners are the main target audience for the book. This brings me to the first topic in my series of comments.
Target Audience

Unlike almost all the other textbooks currently on the market, this series makes it unambiguously clear that the target audience are “students with no background in the Korean language,” i.e., non-heritage students. Of course, this means we have yet another textbook that overlooks or ignores the rather different pedagogical needs of heritage learners, the group that still comprises over 80% of all learners at the post-secondary level in North America; but, at least the authors are clear in their goals.

The authors clearly envision their books being used in post-secondary Korean as Foreign Language (KFL) programs. Most such programs tend to use the KLEAR textbook series published by the University of Hawaii Press. However, I have yet to meet a fellow KFL teacher who speaks highly of that series (even while using it), so there is hope—now that the You Speak Korean! series is up to Book 4 and has workbooks ready—that this new series can perhaps provide more competition and choice in a field that has been more or less monopolized so far by one approach.

Presentation and Layout

The books are well organized and well sign-posted; they make excellent use of color illustrations, clip art, callouts/bubbles, reminders, cautions, “language points,” and other design elements for a dynamic and attractive look that catches the eye and motivates students. I particularly like the frequent use of “Caution” road signs (literally) that warn students of this or that pitfall. Many of these little warnings appear for the first time ever in a textbook—the authors are truly attuned to the errors that North American non-heritage learners are most likely to make. This is definitely the most attractive and user-friendly KFL textbook to appear to date (more so, even, than the glossy, over-produced, but misguided and mostly ignored Korean through English published by Seoul National University). The numerous color illustrations pose a striking and refreshing contrast to the KLEAR books, which have made a bold attempt at breaking up the monotonous look of other KFL books with a few line drawings and the odd photo—all in black and white—but that still look rather flat.

Pronunciation, Writing System and Orthography

The authors’ approach to pronunciation is generally excellent, and they are to be commended for explicitly alerting the student to the fact that the orthographic form of the copula after vowels (-yey yo) is actually pronounced -ey yo without the “y” (except in dialect speech, spelling pronunciation, and “foreigner talk”). Book 3 (first volume of the Intermediate level) actually switches to the current standard orthography with –yey yo after using a more beginner-friendly pronunciation-based spelling in the first two volumes.

The authors adopt the newish ROK Romanization system, claiming that students might encounter this in Korea on forms and placement tests, but this is somewhat unfortunate, as the system is a disaster linked ultimately to Korea’s peculiar form of “script nationalism,” and one suspects that the authors felt compelled to use the ROK system over the more established McCune-Reischauer system because of the publication subsidy they received from the Korea Foundation.
This series is also somewhat out of the ordinary in that it addresses—more than most KFL textbooks—orthographic issues and the relationship/differences between writing, transcription and spelling; this is especially important, given the need to challenge myths about the “ease” and “phonetic nature” of the Korean script. Sure, one can learn the alphabet in an hour or so, but Korean orthography and the analysis behind it are nothing, if not complex.

**Cultural Notes**

The cultural notes are excellent and highly entertaining. The “Culture Shock” sections in Book 3 are rich in content, up-to-date, and relevant: Personal Space, School Connections, Well-being, Getting a Job, and Wired World. These are so much more interesting than the standard litany of boring explanations of taekwondo, Ch’usŏk (Korea’s harvest moon festival), and the South Korean national flag featured in the “culture notes” of so many other textbooks.

**Dialogues**

The dialogues are witty, entertaining, and generally well-crafted. However, many of them might strike some teachers as a bit long-winded, given how much we know students can memorize at one time (8 lines tops?) Yonsei University authors claim even less. This brings me to one criticism about the books, especially the Intermediate Book in which the authors have crammed a considerable amount of detailed information onto very large pages in rather small typeface. While the color and clip art and other illustrations certainly make for a more visually attractive page, the pages are nonetheless rather overwhelming in their sheer crowded informativity.

**Grammar Sequencing and Grammar Explanations**

The book introduces some connective endings which (traditionally, at least) have been considered “complicated” and thus typically taught at a much later date. Thus, this book teaches -ko, -e se and -ciman already in Lesson 3, -(u)nikka in Lesson 4, and -(u)ntey/-muntey in Lesson 5 (out of 7 lessons covered in one academic year). But the authors lay the groundwork for this well, and one suspects it works in class.

The authors make good use of sequencing of patterns based on the -e form: first -e (se), then -e-ss- (past stems), then (skipping a lesson) -e to, -e ha-, -e cwukkeysta, -e cwu-, -e po-, -e ci-, -e ya toyta, -e istta. This is as it should be, and the authors are to be commended for building on this one useful building block so quickly in the first year. The same could be said for their sequencing of -ko and -ko nase then -ko siphta and -ko istta, -ki cen ey then -ki swipta/elyepta, and -ki ttaymun ey.

This book is unusual in that it teaches Intimate Style (-e, -ni, -ela, -ca) before Formal (hapnita) Style; this is a commendable (and bold) innovation. But note that Chapter 4, in which these are taught, is somewhat overloaded with patterns.

In general, the sequencing is fairly “water proof,” in that there is relatively little “leakage” of patterns. In other words, one finds relatively few uses of grammatical patterns, in either dialogues or example sentences, which have not yet been formally introduced (or that aren’t flagged as “out-of-sequence: just memorize it for the dialogue!”).
Overall, the grammar notes/structural explanations are concise without being too sketchy (unlike most of the books produced in Korea), and well-exemplified. If anything, the authors’ training as formal-theoretical linguists leaks through a bit too much in places, and one senses that they revel in providing a level of detail and analysis otherwise lacking in similar textbooks. In Book 3, though, they adopt the sensible strategy of banishing some long-winded linguistic explanations to three appendices at the back of the book. Starting in Book 3, the authors also provide (in the Table of Contents) Korean terminology for the grammatical points being introduced, and I wonder if this is really necessary in what is essentially a second-year university textbook.

**Introduction of Vocabulary**

The authors note in the beginning of Book 3 that “Vocabulary is everything!,” and certainly these books take no prisoners when it comes to vocabulary: there is a lot of it. The authors adopt a thematic approach, with useful and enjoyable items throughout (one doubts that any of the current attempts underway at various universities in Seoul to define vocabulary lists for KFL textbooks on the basis of corpora and computer-generated “frequency lists” could come even remotely close to providing such a useful and pleasurable vocabulary set for a beginning KFL text). The vocabulary is well-organized/grouped and extensive—too many KFL books “spoon feed” vocabulary in pathetic dribs and drabs, when the sad fact is that KFL learners need to learn, at an early stage and without much help from cognates or recognizable loans, a large number of new vocabulary items. This book is not shy about introducing vocabulary, and does it in an enjoyable way.

One thing the vocabulary lists and glossaries do not do is provide Chinese characters for Sino-Korean vocabulary. Given that KFL is becoming more and more popular these days with speakers (and learners) of Mandarin and Japanese, and given the ever-increasing numbers of students in North American KFL classes with prior exposure to Chinese characters through Mandarin and/or Japanese, it would be useful for such learners to at least provide (in parentheses, for optional learning) Chinese characters for all Sino-Korean vocabulary.

**Mnemonics**

One of the great innovations in this book is its use of catchy mnemonic devices to help students remember different things. Thus, the ‘Mnemonics for Vowels’ and ‘Mnemonics for Consonants’ are brilliant and a major contribution to teaching Korean script in North America. Ditto for the ditty to help remember the order of the Korean alphabet in Korean dictionaries, the “Masissnum p Restaurant,” the “BONUS” rule for attaching endings to L-final verbs, etc.

**Songs and Poems**

The authors include a number of songs throughout the first two books, and include a poem in each of the lessons in Book 3: these are certainly rather novel features. My experience is that getting post-secondary learners of Korean to sing in a classroom (as opposed to in a noraebang or around a campfire with a guitar) is like pulling teeth; but, for the brave soul who wishes to try, the authors provide useful materials. In general,
the authors are to be commended for reaching out to both literature (there is even an excerpt from Hwang Sunwŏn’s famous short story, *Sonagi*, in Book 3—though one suspects this is a bit too difficult for students at this level) and popular culture. Thus, Book 3 also contains discussions of Korean Internet chat language forms and the use of certain speech levels in Korean historical dramas. The only problem with this latter innovation is that it puts the books (or at least such sections) at risk of becoming outdated sooner rather than later.

**Approach to Verbal Morphophonemics**

The authors, like everybody except King and Yeon in their *Elementary Korean* and *Continuing Korean* (following Samuel Martin’s approach), uncritically adopt the traditional Korean approach to “irregular” verbs. And like everybody except King and Yeon, there are holes in their approach. In general, the traditional approach to Korean verbal morphophonemics (“take the dictionary form, chop off the -ta, and voilà — the verb stem”) unnecessarily creates a bogeyman for foreign learners out of “irregular verbs,” when the reverse approach (“take the -e form, and chop it off before the -e/-a to get the stem”) simply creates a set of discrete classes or conjugations, all of which are perfectly regular. Korean teachers from Korea who have been weaned on Korean traditional grammar “freak out” at this approach, but foreigners learning the language from scratch have no trouble with it (or at least, less trouble than with the traditional approach). So the authors have missed a chance to do something really different here, I think.

**Exercises and Workbook**

The authors use a broad array of stimulating and fun quizzes, bingo games, True or False sections, word searches, fill in the blanks, complete the picture, excellent Reading Practices, as well as more traditional translation exercises. And the exercises in the books are supplemented by a rich workbook for each volume.

**Typos**

Books 1 and 2 are generally free of typographical errors, but Book 3 shows signs of having been prepared in haste and would have benefitted from a thorough copy-editing.

**Summary**

In my opinion, this series will soon establish itself as the best, funniest, and most popular KFL textbook series for non-heritage learners. It is a major accomplishment and valuable contribution to the fields of Korean Studies and KFL pedagogy, full of creativity, originality, humor and sensitivity to North American university circumstances of a sort that it is rather difficult to expect from an authorial team with representatives of a much older generation (let alone an authorial team based in Korea). The authors are to be commended for producing such a series with (so far as I know) little or no financial or institutional support and under less-than-ideal conditions for the production of teaching materials (for example, none of the authors is in a tenure-track professorial position). Indeed, that the authors have been able to pull this off,
more or less unnoticed and with little foundation support other than a publication subsidy from the Korea Foundation, borders on the miraculous.

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Publisher’s Response

Thank you for this opportunity to respond to the review of our Korean textbook series, You Speak Korean!, Volumes 1-4, and many thanks to the thoughtful reviewer. I have relatively little to add or clarify about the review, as Dr. King knows our series well, the first volume having come out in 2003. I have only three basic lines of thought along which to respond, followed by some more minor comments.

Which volume? The first is that there may be some confusion as to which book is being reviewed. We now offer a “full set” of four textbooks with accompanying workbooks (and online answer keys) and online audio files. The four volumes constitute a rigorous two-year course for college students, covering standard “beginning” and “intermediate” grammar and vocabulary lessons. When Dr. King refers to “this book,” I believe he is referring to Book 3, and I do not believe he has had the opportunity to peruse or assess our Book 4 as of yet. Volumes 1 and 2 have been in print since 2003, and Dr. King makes reference to those volumes more clearly in his review. Of course the four books in the series have much in common stylistically and structurally, including extensive and thematic vocabulary, many hints, warnings and cross-references in callouts/bubbles, songs, poems and culture points, extensive use of color-coding and illustration, and an overall thorough but fun approach.

Books 3 and 4 continue along these lines, but add a more in-depth and culturally-seated approach. These intermediate volumes include vocabulary usage explanations and additional example sentences to round out the vocabulary lessons. The cultural discussions are much more in-depth as Dr. King notes, and these are the first and the only books that seriously tackle culturally-loaded and tricky language patterns located at the heart of the Korean language, such as sound and action mimetic words and grammaticalized dependent nouns. Book 4 culminates the series as a complete guide for classroom and self-study users who seek a true mastery of the language, including colloquial speech and academic language (with a healthy dose of Sino-Korean vocabulary and the necessary intermediate-advanced grammar structures), as well as cultural understanding (vocabulary usage, use of onomatopoeia and Sino-Korean vocabulary). Beyond formulaic memorization of patterns, the You Speak Korean! series offers true insight into the linguistic and cultural workings of the language, which serves students well, we hear, when they have finished the series and engage with Korean society. Our feedback from users has been very enthusiastic, and we hope that Dr. King will have a chance to review Book 4 in the near future.

Why non-heritage?
The second point concerns the focus on non-heritage/novice learners (those with no Korean language background) as the target audience for the *You Speak Korean!* books. Dr. King points out that heritage speakers of Korean (who have Korean-speaking family members or other substantial (immersion) language experience) comprise over 80% of learners at the post-secondary level in North America. In response, I want to underscore that in no way and by no means did we intend to exclude heritage learners from our user-audience: we believe that heritage learners will greatly benefit from our textbooks. Our goal and our reasoning behind the claim to be targeting non-heritage novice learners was simply that there would be no gaps, oversights or assumptions of student knowledge in our books; everything would be included and explained (waterproof, as Dr. King says) so that no student would be left to feel he/she “should know” something that was not formally introduced in the books. As such, many heritage learners already know some amount of what is introduced in the books, but, we feel, at least they won’t feel left behind, and it falls thus to the teacher to decide how to use the information in the books and what to exclude if they are used for a heritage class. In addition, there is such variation in heritage levels and specific exposure to the language, that, again, the more that is included and the less assumed, the better, we felt. Some heritage programs may choose to begin with *You Speak Korean!* Book 2 and continue on to Book 3 and 4 as intermediate and advanced grammar books. Keeping in mind that heritage learners do have not been educated in the grammar structure, the emphasis on explanation in the series is quite appropriate for heritage learners. Because of the thorough, inclusive and tight organization of content, the *You Speak Korean!* books are also well-equipped to support individuals learning Korean on their own, whether heritage/experienced or non-heritage/novice Korean learners.

One last consideration along these lines is that the non-heritage population would seem to be the audience that will grow in the future, perhaps unfortunately; as the first generation has children outside of Korea, the second and then third generations, who have less and less family/life/immersion exposure to the Korean language, will grow. We also want to support the Korean Wave phenomenon and other non-heritage interest in Korea and Korean language and culture. As such, the *You Speak Korean!* books look to the future to support continued deep-learning of Korean.

*Why “irregular”?*

The last main criticism of Dr. King’s that I would like to address, briefly, is that the authors “uncritically adopt the traditional Korean approach to ‘irregular’ verbs.” Dr. King suggests that “the reverse approach (‘take the -e form, and chop it off before the -e/-a to get the stem’) simply creates a set of discrete classes or conjugations, all of which are perfectly regular.” In response: what makes a verb (or adjective) irregular in Korean is that it has alternating stem forms, one of which occurs with *e/-a* (and the other vowel-initial suffix *-u*) and one with *ta* and other consonant-initial suffixes (e.g. *gele, gelu, getta* to walk), whereas regular verbs do not alternate and do overlap in form with irregular verbs in vowel-initial conjugations (e.g. *gele, gelu, getta* to hang). To identify an irregular verb as opposed to a regular verb, both of its stem forms must be learned. Thus it seems that neither approach is fool-proof without thorough explanation of, and
practice with, the morpho-phonological alternation—unless I am missing something crucial in Dr. King’s argument.

Other comments

Dr. King makes several other comments that we have taken note of, on two of which I have a brief response:

**Dialogues:** Dr. King notes that the You Speak Korean! dialogues, while witty and well-crafted, are somewhat long and likely impossible for students to memorize. It is specifically acknowledging this fact that Books 3 and 4 include *Igeotmaneun oeucha!* (이것만은 외우자!) sections; two short dialogues using all the grammar points (between them) and some amount of vocabulary which are intended for memorization. In this way, the main text dialogues can exemplify all the grammar and vocabulary and serve as reading exercises.

**Chinese Characters:** Dr. King points out that Chinese characters could have been included for Sino-Korean vocabulary to assist those with background in languages that use the characters. The decision to exclude them was partially due to formatting concerns and the desire not to overwhelm those who do not have such background by including them in the main vocabulary list. There is already quite a lot of information in the books, especially Books 3 and 4 as Dr. King notes. It is a consideration that we will keep in mind for future editions; perhaps Chinese characters can be included in an alternative edition or in the glossary. You Speak Korean! authors also recognize that Sino-Korean vocabulary and the use of Chinese characters in Korean merit a special course of study.

I would like to thank Dr. King once again for his thorough and thoughtful review and the valuable comments and suggestions therein. I also thank The NECTFL Review for allowing us to respond and clarify what we could. We are eager to hear from users and anyone else who is interested in the You Speak Korean! series and its approach.

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**Second Language Acquisition**


*Key Terms in Second Language Acquisition* offers a concise, yet comprehensive, clear, and user-friendly overview of the core topics within the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and is divided into four major parts: Introduction, Key Issues in Second Language Acquisition, Key Terms in Second Language Acquisition, and Key Readings.

In the Introduction, the authors give a short survey of this complex field of inquiry by discussing the question, “What is second language acquisition?” They also provide
a brief history of SLA (from Corder’s *The Significance of Learners’ Errors* and Selinker’s *Interlanguage* through the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s to the 2000s and beyond), explore the relationship between second language acquisition and second language teaching, and explain to the reader the purpose and layout of the book.

In the **Key Issues in Second Language Acquisition** section, the authors present nine of the major issues or questions that confront and drive SLA research today, which include the following:

1. What is the initial state? That is, what do learners bring to the task of acquisition in terms of underlying knowledge related to language?
2. Can L2 learners become native-like?
3. Is there a critical period?
4. What does development look like?
5. What are the roles of explicit and implicit learning in SLA?
6. What are the roles of input and output in SLA?
7. What are individual differences and how do they affect acquisition?
8. Does instruction make a difference?
9. What constraints are there on acquisition?

According to the authors, the above-mentioned questions are related to many other questions that scholars address, as well as to an “overarching question that lurks in the background of SLA: To what extent are first and second language acquisition the same thing (i.e., involve the same learner-internal processing and acquisition mechanisms)?” (9). Thus, all of the questions listed above are not only interrelated but also address, to various extents and in various ways, the issue of L1 versus L2 acquisition and their interconnectedness. The authors hope that these brief discussions serve as “advanced organizers” (10) for pursuing SLA research further and for understanding more detailed and technical material in the field. Frequent linguistic examples provide helpful illustrations of the points discussed, and multiple citations direct the reader toward original works and more thorough discussions, which can be found in the **Key Readings** section of the book.

In the **Key Terms in Second Language Acquisition** section, the authors provide concise and precise encyclopedia-like definitions and explanations of over 130 terms used in the SLA literature. While by no means exhaustive (which is not the purpose of this series), the list does present a comprehensive spectrum of carefully selected terms ranging from mainstream theories and concepts to those that are still emerging, hence, appropriately representing the developing nature of this multifaceted discipline. Arranged in alphabetical order with helpful cross-references, the list includes but is not limited to the following terms: acculturation models, acquisition versus learning, adaptive control of thought model, attention, awareness, behaviorism, bilingualism, cognitive theory, communicative competence, competition model, connectionism, contrastive analysis hypothesis, creative construction hypothesis, feedback, fossilization, fundamental difference hypothesis, grammaticality judgments, incidental learning, individual differences, input, intake, interlanguage, language acquisition device, markedness, monitor theory, nativism, negotiation of meaning, neurolinguistics, output, overgeneralization, parsing, pidginization, poverty of
the stimulus, processability, projection hypothesis, psycholinguistics, redundancy, regularization, salience, sociocultural theory, sociolinguistics, subjacency, teachability, transfer, typological universals, universal grammar, uptake, and working memory.

In the Key Readings section, the authors provide information, not only on the references cited throughout the book, but also additional resources that may serve as a guide to further study. Again, while not all-inclusive, this final section presents a comprehensive list of over 240 carefully selected readings by scholars in second language acquisition, including well-known names, as well as some newer voices.

Throughout the book, certain words and phrases appear in bold. The boldface indicates either key terms and definitions (the explanation of which can be found by turning to the Key Terms in Second Language Acquisition section), or key issues (about which more information is available in the Key Issues in Second Language Acquisition section). This consistent and continuous cross-referencing is most helpful and provides for an effective, somewhat circular, exposition of the material that meaningfully connects all four sections of the book.

To conclude, this well-organized and well-written text is an essential, if not indispensable, resource for successfully navigating the often complicated and sometimes confusing waters of SLA. Although the authors gear their work toward novice students, it would, nonetheless, serve as a helpful refresher and a valuable update for seasoned scholars and educators in the language learning and teaching field.

While this book is not about “instructed SLA” (7) per se and “SLA is a research field that focuses on learners and learning rather than teachers and teaching” (1), “SLA research has its roots in concerns for language instruction” (6). Thus, a mutually beneficial relationship between the two exists, and some important pedagogical implications can be and should be drawn from SLA theories and research to inform language educators about their teaching and inspire them to reflect on their practice.

As a foreign language teacher educator in an undergraduate program that requires all foreign language teacher candidates to take an introductory course on first and second language acquisition, I both concur with and am encouraged by the authors’ observation:

[…] even though a significant gap exists between research on SLA and teacher expectations, there is enough of SLA research in existence that is useful for general teacher edification. The more one understands the nature of the object of one’s profession, the better one is situated to make choices, answer questions, and to best utilize one’s time and efforts. Unfortunately, […] language teachers are often woefully under educated in the general findings of SLA. While a general course on SLA often forms the background of those prepared at the graduate level in TESOL, this is not the case for those who teach other languages and is certainly not the case for those who enter the language teaching profession with a baccalaureate degree or equivalent (7).

Thus, Key Terms in Second Language Acquisition may serve well as a key reference tool and be effectively used in a continuum of both undergraduate and graduate courses dealing with first and second language acquisition and spanning from introductory to advanced levels. I, for one, consider adopting it for one of the undergraduate foreign
language teacher education courses that I teach, and I would encourage my colleagues in the profession to explore this book in the context of what they do as language educators and try to formulate a research- and theory-based rationale for the many whys and hows of their teaching practice.

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Spanish


_3,000 locuciones verbales y combinaciones frecuentes_ is a reference volume of idiomatic expressions in Spanish. The text is comprehensive in structure yet provides the reader with an accessible route to understanding idioms, which is often regarded as one of the most difficult aspects of learning a foreign language. The author, Adela Robles-Sáez, sets out to assist students of the Spanish language in three areas: conversation, writing, and translation. Her conception of the text is based on the following two criteria, as she explains in her introduction.

First, in recognition of the infinite number of idiomatic expressions in every language, Robles-Sáez has chosen to limit her selection of idiomatic expressions almost exclusively to those using verbs that carry direct objects. Secondly, she has selected idiomatic expressions based on the frequency of their appearance in the Real Academia Española’s _Corpus de Referencia del Español Actual_ (CREA), as well as in the University of Pennsylvania’s Callfriend Corpus Linguistic Data Consortium. She has sought out idiomatic expressions with a high or medium-to-high frequency in their verb and noun combination, in addition to a high frequency of usage. Robles-Sáez feels that these two criteria create flexibility in treating idiomatic expressions and ultimately allows for the inclusion of a greater number of them.

The text is divided into three sections. The first and central section is an alphabetical dictionary of verbal idiomatic expressions. Each entry includes the expression’s definition, its register, or level of formality, the contexts in which it appears, examples, and related expressions. Related expressions include those of a synonymous and antonymous nature as well as those that share a root or meaning with the expression in question. The entry also includes information regarding the expression’s degree of “idiomaticalness,” which Robles-Sáez explains as “the meaning an expression acquires through convention” (xiii, my translation). In the introduction, Robles-Sáez explains that the greater the degree of idiomaticalness, the more particular an expression’s usage will be due to syntactical restrictions. She indicates eight alterations that test an expression’s syntactical restrictions and thereby test its degree of idiomaticalness. These eight alterations are as follows: transformation into the passive voice, pronoun replacement, the incompatibility of verbal modifiers, the coexistence of multiple objects, the lack of harmony with a literal meaning, the possibility of separating the parts of the
expression, the increased difficulty of separation as the idiomatic nature of the expression increases, and the possibility of integrating the expression with others within the sentence. These alterations prove that idiomatic expressions are a fixed sequence of words with a unitary sense of meaning, as Robles-Sáez indicates on the first page of her introduction. In addition, each entry in the first section identifies the expression's grammar, structure, examples, possible combinations, explanations for possibly confusing similar expressions, and additional expressions that highlight any peculiarities of the expression under study.

The organization of the second and third sections of the text differ from that of the first section in order to highlight other factors related to the level of an expression's idiomaticalness. The second section brings together what Robles-Sáez has designated as “families” of expressions; she explains that “families” are generated as a result of overlapping grammatical patterns. In her introduction, Robles-Sáez indicates that due to its lower level of idiomaticalness this type of idiomatic expression does not require the detailed explanation found in the first part of the text. The third and final section of 3,000 locuciones verbales y combinaciones frecuentes is an index, which lists the idiomatic expressions alphabetically by complement. Robles-Sáez designed the index in this fashion in order to help readers avoid literal translations.

Robles-Sáez's introduction to 3,000 locuciones verbales y combinaciones frecuentes clearly documents the purpose of her text and piques the curiosity of readers from different backgrounds and levels. Language students no doubt will find the text more useful than others, but students of literature interested in gaining a better understanding their knowledge of how grammar and syntax affect the artistry of language will also be interested in 3,000 locuciones verbales y combinaciones frecuentes. Thus, her bibliographic notes can easily be regarded as a reading list for a varied audience interested in the nature of idiomatic expressions. The organization of the text is most effective and allows it to meet its goals as described in the introduction. The contents of each entry are clearly labeled and the examples included provide context, which makes learning the usage of a given idiomatic expression a meaningful exercise rather than merely a question of memorization.

3,000 locuciones verbales y combinaciones frecuentes is indeed a reference book, as it sets out to be, but it can also be actively incorporated into classroom and homework exercises. Instructors can focus on a few idiomatic expressions appropriate to the level of their courses and use the entries in 3,000 locuciones verbales y combinaciones frecuentes to illustrate the dichotomy of idiomatic expressions in Spanish. Students should be encouraged to consult 3,000 locuciones verbales y combinaciones frecuentes as they continue to develop their language skills. Robles-Sáez's attention to the register of the selected idiomatic expressions allows simultaneous assistance in the development of spoken and written expression. Most importantly, the text fulfills its promise to assist in the prevention of literal translation through its careful definition and discussion of idiomaticalness itself. As a paperback, with a price tag of $59.95, it would not be surprising if 3,000 locuciones verbales y combinaciones frecuentes were eventually utilized as a textbook, as well as continue to serve as a first-rate reference book.

Created on the same premise as Poster Pals’ other laminated “cut-up” products (individual cards used for manipulating the components of grammatical structures whereby physically placing words in those structures aids students’ understanding and fluency by appealing to their kinesthetic and visual modes of learning), ¡Atacando los adjetivos! developed out of the desire to present the challenging concepts of adjectives (and the rules that govern them) in a systematic and engaging fashion. The vocabulary chosen for the laminated cards was selected for two main reasons: (1) their high frequency in Spanish; and (2) their relevance to the adjective concepts presented.

Words in the laminated cut-ups are colour-coded by concept to assist students in mastering the applicable rules. Common nouns have also been included to provide examples of noun/adjective agreement. The author, Deborah Carlson, chose the adjective concepts on the basis of the curriculum of the first to third years of instruction in a Spanish-as-a-foreign language classroom (from middle school to the secondary level). The accompanying reproducible packet consists of activities and exercises (plus answer keys) which address listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. It also includes a black and white reproducible version of the cards for students to have their own “manipulatives” for classroom use or individual practice. The packet contains the following thirty-seven chapters:

1. ¿Cómo se describe algo? (introduction to adjectives to get students thinking about the unit);
2. El vocabulario #1: los adjetivos (thirty-one high-frequency adjectives with visual representation);
3. La práctica “A”: los opuestos (writing activity using adjective pairs/opposites);
4. La práctica “B”: un crucigrama (a crossword puzzle incorporating high frequency adjectives);
5. La gramática #1: la concordancia de los adjetivos (grammar lesson focusing on adjective agreement);
6. La práctica “C”: las formas de los adjetivos (adjective agreement reinforcement using adjectives and vocabulary for people);
7. La práctica “D”: las descripciones (adjective agreement reinforcement using es/son, nouns and adjectives);
8. La práctica “E”: ¡Te toca a ti! (independent writing practice for students to describe friends or family);
9. La práctica “F”: la práctica de comprensión oral (listening activity to select the pictures being described);
10. El vocabulario #2: los colores (vocabulary plus spelling practice for fourteen colors in Spanish);
11. La práctica “G”: los colores—un buscapalabras y un mensaje escondido (word-search activity to practice colors plus words for “dark” and “light”);

12. La práctica “H”: las formas de los colores (grammar review using colors and nouns);

13. La práctica “I”: las banderas (writing and speaking practice to reinforce colors plus flags of the Hispanic world);

14. El vocabulario #3: los colores del pelo y de los ojos (vocabulary plus coloring activity that introduces eye and hair color);

15. La práctica “Je”: lee y contesta (reading activity involving small Spanish paragraphs with questions in English);

16. La práctica “k”: ¿Quién es? (listening activity to reinforce expressions of eye and hair color);

17. La gramática #2: los adjetivos posesivos [grammar lesson comparing English with Spanish on possessive adjectives (It’s mine, not yours!)];

18. La práctica “L”: los adjetivos posesivos [translating (Spanish to English) activity to practice possessive adjectives and nouns];

19. La práctica “M”: más práctica [another translating (Spanish to English) activity to practice possessive adjectives and nouns];

20. La práctica “N”: ¿similar o diferente? (writing and listening activity to compare family members with a classmate);

21. La gramática #3: ¡Ya está claro! (grammar discovery lesson on phrases to clarify possessive adjectives);

22. La gramática #4: los adjetivos demostrativos (grammar lesson comparing English with Spanish on demonstrative adjectives);

23. La práctica “P”: los adjetivos demostrativos [translating activity (English to Spanish and Spanish to English) to reinforce demonstrative adjectives];

24. La práctica “Q”: las parejas de frases (matching activity to reinforce agreement of demonstrative adjectives, plus nouns);

25. La práctica “R”: reconoce y escribe (matching and writing activities to expand upon demonstrative adjectives, plus nouns and adjectives);

26. La práctica “S”: escucha, escribe y traduce (guided listening/writing/translating activities to reinforce demonstrative adjectives);

27. La práctica “T”: ¡Te toca a ti! (scaffolded free-writing activity to assess student ability);

28. La gramática #5: los comparativos [grammar lesson comparing English with Spanish on making comparisons (bad-good … small-big)];

29. La práctica “U”: un crucigrama (a crossword puzzle to practice the formation of Spanish comparisons);

30. La práctica “V”: cierto o falso (writing practice in making comparisons with peer listening/review);

31. La gramática #6: mejor y peor (grammar lesson comparing English with Spanish on superlatives: “worst … worse … better … best”);

32. La práctica “W”: ¡Escucha bien! [two listening activities (multiple choice/competition) to reinforce mejor/peor];
Building upon the thorough A to Z treatment of the form and use of adjectives, Carlson has used scaffolding to help students build from basic to more advanced concepts. Included in the activities are interesting graphics to reinforce comprehension and add interest and humour. In addition, the author incorporated authentic situations and examples to further engage students (e.g., describing hair and eye colors and the colors of the Spanish flag). True to Poster Pals’ form, the ¡Atacando los adjetivos! cards and activities will certainly prove to be very helpful in dealing with students of differing ability levels. The versatile materials can be used for whole class or individualized instruction, as well as for engaging supplemental practice.

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¡Avancemos! is a new, multilevel textbook series for Spanish students enrolled in levels one through four. Its objective is to develop learners’ language skills through real-life situations using a communicative approach. This review will be confined to an examination of the first level of ¡Avancemos!, which offers learners an incremental succession of meaning-focused target language activities all of which facilitate the acquisition of form from meaning. ¡Avancemos! is accompanied by numerous multimedia ancillaries, including CD-ROMs, audio CDs, DVDs, and an online tutorial Website (www.classzone.com).

Level One consists of 8 unidades (units) plus an introduction. Each unit is divided into two lesson chapters. These are called lecciones (lessons) and each one deals with one or more aspects of Spanish grammar. Each lección presents a selection of vocabulary in a thematic framework which learners are to practice on their own for
mastery. Enhanced practice of vocabulary items can be accomplished via an accompanying video DVD, vocabulary games, interactive flashcards, and online self-check quizzes. Although the alphabet is presented in the introductory chapter, reinforcement of individual vowels and/or consonants is reviewed in each lesson for further practice and reinforcement. Also included in each lesson are three short telehistorias (short film clips) which introduce and incorporate new grammatical concepts. These concepts are presented in English to facilitate understanding. Practice of these items is provided by several communicative exercises, such as fill-in-the-gap, mini-dialogues, and comprehension questions.

In addition to the lexical and grammatical features covered in each lesson, focus is also given to Spanish-speaking countries through a short Comparación cultural (cultural comparison) component which highlights the selected country’s art, customs and famous writers. Further information on cultural themes, including the names of artists and their works, is found in the Teacher’s Edition, as well as in the accompanying downloadable audio and video files.

To reinforce grammatical explanations, an animated grammar feature can be accessed by students on the classzone.com Website. This site provides a relevant context for the grammar point under review and introduces four animated characters (Toño, Toña, Pablo, and Pili) who supply a comical and engaging review of the concepts related to each lesson. In addition to the grammar explanations, students can also access online flash cards, review games and practice conjugating verbs on the Conjuguemos.com site found on the classzone Website. Further expansion of these explanations can be accomplished by providing students with a copy of the relevant “Did you get it?” section found on the Teacher’s One-Stop Planner. The short exercises derived from this resource give students more opportunity to demonstrate mastery and can be assigned as homework. ¡Avancemos! also supplies Sing-Along Grammar and Vocabulary Songs to reinforce material in individual lessons. Words and copies can be found on the Teacher’s One-Stop Planner CD. Additional reinforcement that is especially geared for kinetic learners is the ¡AvanzaRap! DVD that invites students to sing along with the lead singer and to improvise with their own karaoke version of the songs. Putting vocabulary and grammar points into a contextual framework can at times be frustrating. To address this concern, ¡Avancemos! provides students with a written or reading prompt to elicit a short response to a set of comprehension questions.

In addition to the textbook, the Workbook creates many more opportunities for practice and mastery of Spanish. The Workbook features a variety of written and listening activities that coincide with each of the two chapter lecciones. Accompanying these exercises there are ample selections of reading, writing, and cultural question sections that provide further reinforcement of the main themes introduced in each lesson. The Instructor’s Workbook supplies teachers with all relevant answers to each section, and suggests ideas on how to supply further enhancement of each lesson’s concepts in the classroom. These enhancement ideas correspond to the multiple auxiliary materials and suggested strategies found in the Best Practices Toolkit and their incorporation into each day’s lesson.

One of the most striking features of this textbook series is the multifaceted presentation of cultural aspects of the countries and peoples introduced in each lesson. In
addition to the multiple Comparación cultural sections found throughout each lesson, there are additional examples and references to geography and indigenous art. In the ¡Avancemos! textbook for first-year learners, cultural celebrations and realia of the Hispanic countries reviewed are supplied with colorful pictorial displays and an accompanying DVD series. The DVD series highlights these celebrations, as well as monthly festivals throughout the Spanish-speaking world. One of the highlights of ¡Avancemos! is an ongoing mini-series that focuses on a supposed world famous Latino soccer player (Trini Salgado). The escapades of this individual and his travels in various Hispanic countries are followed by many of the characters introduced in the preliminary lesson, and then spiraled through the ensuing telehistorias that accompany each lesson and serve to connect subsequent unit chapters to a common cultural theme.

Although teachers may wish to create their own assessment materials, ¡Avancemos! supplies teachers with two vocabulary quizzes and two grammar-related quizzes per lesson. Blackline Masters for these items can be obtained in the Assessment Manual or copied off the One-Stop Planner CD. One of the excellent features of the Assessment Manual is the way in which it addresses differentiated instruction and assessment. Assessment materials are included to address four different groups of students: those who need extra instructional assistance to facilitate their learning, and those who are considered on-level, advanced, or Heritage (native) speakers. Hence, teachers are greatly helped in their daily work of addressing audiences with different needs.

Overall, ¡Avancemos! for beginning Spanish students is an excellent textbook for middle, high school, or college. Much care has been given to supply students with suitable materials which are compliant with the National Standards for Foreign Language Teaching. Teachers can utilize the multiple resources accompanying the textbook in order to address a diverse group of learners and to provide extensive review of every item in each lesson.

While the multiple auxiliary materials that accompany ¡Avancemos! supply teachers with a plethora of ideas and tools with which they can enhance their daily lessons, this can be somewhat overwhelming for new teachers. Sitting down to make plans requires a large planning area so as to lay-out all relevant materials and then begin the arduous task of putting everything together. One feature that ¡Avancemos! provides is a Sequential Ordering section in the Teacher’s text. This section suggests how to cover each lesson and to include relevant materials. In addition, the actual lesson layouts within each lesson can prove to be frustrating to some teachers. For example, between a grammar presentation and the exercises that correspond to it, a Comparación cultural selection appears that requires an instructor to either skip over it completely or return to it at a later date. Apart from these points, ¡Avancemos! is an enjoyable and rewarding text for beginning Spanish students.

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The target audience for *Three Centuries of Spanish Short Stories: Literary Selections and Activities for the Student of Spanish* are college students of Spanish at the intermediate level or higher. Its goal is to provide students with authentic Spanish short stories written between 1800 and the present, in order to reinforce and improve their skills in reading, writing, and speaking. Students will study and practice new vocabulary, read, discuss, and express their ideas about seventeen short stories from nineteenth, twentieth, and twenty-first century Spain, seven of which were written by women. Topics include social relations; the hardships of children, adolescents, and adults; women roles, including their revolt against those roles; and the fantastic. In my opinion, the choice of authors is very good: there are short stories representing many different styles (including the Realistic, the Romantic, the Naturalistic, the Modern, and el cuento fantástico [the fantastic short story]); and, there are short stories written by both sexes. I believe that all of these stories appeal to students since they cover a variety of topics involving philosophical questions, relationships, life and death, the post-war years, daily struggles, and others. It is my belief that students will easily relate to several of these topics.

*Three Centuries of Spanish Short Stories* encourages students to read some biographical and literary information in the section Biografía e Información Literaria as well as a list of the most important works by an author in Obras más importantes. Students should study a list of difficult words stories by reading through a glossary first and then completing a few exercises involving matching, fill in the blanks, and true or false activities. All that should be done before class. Also, Billat provides some sources for further study (Websites about each author, interviews, and other useful information about the period or genre). Since the author wants the course to be highly interactive, much time should be devoted to discussion (the use of Spanish is required). Before reading the short stories, students talk for a few minutes with the aid of the section Para conversar (“To talk”). After reading the text at home, they go to class and work on the preguntas de comprensión (“comprehension questions”) and preguntas de interpretación (“interpretation questions”), which are designed to be answered in class in small groups (of up to three students) and take up to 20 minutes per set. There should also be class discussion during the third hour of discussion of the short story (the author proposes that three class periods be devoted to each short story, plus time at home to study vocabulary and, of course, read the short story itself). Afterwards, there are proposed creative writing activities, actividades de escritura creativa, which may be done in class in small groups in order to finish each short story. The activities are engaging and varied. Students will have an opportunity to express their own opinions in order to complete these stories. Such activities vary from deciding which Hollywood actors would play the characters if students were movie makers, to writing a movie script or a different ending to a short story. Alternatively, students may need to write a letter addressed to one of the characters or compose a response to something that happened in the story. After finishing each story, everyone should post their writings on a class blog, which I find a useful tool since students may learn from each other
by reading their peers’ work. Finally, students will learn *un poco de historia* ("a bit of history") of Spain and find a comprehensive glossary (Spanish-English) of the new Spanish words they have learned. I believe students who successfully complete the course will acquire a good deal of vocabulary and will become more confident Spanish speakers and writers.

My response to this text is overall positive, and I congratulate the author on a well-written and enjoyable textbook. The readings are interesting and involve a variety of topics; the activities and questions proposed are intriguing. I believe students will learn a lot of vocabulary and become more comfortable discussing issues in Spanish. Furthermore, students will be able to relate to the topics covered in a variety of ways. The problem I see has to do with the practicality of completing all the reading and activities proposed in a single academic semester. There is not enough time to spend three class periods on each short story to ensure that all necessary analysis takes place. Instructors who want to cover all short stories would have to ask students to prepare many of the proposed activities outside the classroom.

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**Publisher’s Response**

We appreciate this kind and thoughtful review. I also agree with the reviewer that it would be impractical, in most classes, to cover all of the stories in a single semester. The role of the traditional Spanish literature or culture class has been changing over the last few years. What Billiat has attempted to do it to create a text which takes that evolution into account. *Three Centuries of Spanish Short Stories* can be assigned in a literature course, a culture course, or even a history course. As always, the instructor should be in control and feel free to choose appropriate stories. Additional stories can always be covered in a paper or maybe even in students’ free time after they complete the class.

Ron Pullins  
Focus Publishing


*Transición* is a textbook aimed at intermediate-high and advanced levels. Through readings, discussions, and writing activities, as well as by watching episodes of a popular Spanish television series, students will acquire a deeper understanding of Spain's history as it impacted a whole generation of Spaniards (the so-called *chiripitifláuticos*—Spaniards born between 1960 and 1975, and who grew up watching the popular Spanish children’s show of that name that were broadcast between 1966*
and 1976). Also, students will develop their Spanish language skills and move well beyond the basic/intermediate grammar and vocabulary they have previously learned.

Transición consists of seven chapters, each roughly 40 pages in length: Capítulo 1. Franco ha muerto (“Franco has died”); Capítulo 2. Identidad nacional (“National identity”); Capítulo 3. Censura y destape (“Censorship and the destape,” [the Spanish phenomenon that allowed for the end of censorship of nudity in movies, shows, etc.]); Capítulo 4. Educación: Escuela y reforma social (“School and social reform”); Capítulo 5. Prosperidad económica y familia (“Economic prosperity and family”); Capítulo 6. La Iglesia (“The Church”); Capítulo 7. El ejército (“The Army”); and finally, the Epílogo: País de emigrantes, país de inmigrantes (“Epilogue: Country of emigrants, country of immigrants”) Each chapter encourages students to search for the meaning of words on the Website of the Spanish Royal Academy and to learn historic or cultural information, by using the Web as a research tool, including popular Websites, such as youtube.com.

An example of this is: “investigate on the Internet the meaning of __ and share with the class.” This is a good technique to help students learn and retain new vocabulary. The textbook contains many activities that serve this very purpose.

The amount of readings will certainly have a positive impact on how much students learn. The more they read critically, the better their command of words and expressions. Each chapter is filled with readings (authentic materials in the target language) that require the completion of pre-reading activities by students (such as answering questions about the subject even if they don't always know the answer and have to speculate), as well as post-reading activities (e.g., students check their notes from the pre-reading activity to see what mistakes they made). Oftentimes, there is a strong emphasis on grammar, and students are asked to return to the text in order to locate a certain structure, for instance. The same technique is used with vocabulary. For instance, in Chapter 2, the word como appears several times. Students are to explain the meaning of the word in each sentence, as well as the context in which it may be mentioned. Therefore, it is almost certain that students will acquire a better command of grammatical structures and vocabulary upon completion of Transición.

The TV series is certainly a plus as a visual aid (it has received several awards, both national and international), and it is both entertaining and very informative. It shows socio-political aspects of Spain from 1968 to the present, dealing with all sorts of topics, including everything from male power (machismo) and compulsory military service to censorship in the media and demographic shifts. Bilbao-Henry uses the series very cleverly in every chapter of her textbook. The content of each of the small DVD segments is well adapted to the textbook. A summary of the plot is provided, as well as topics for discussion and role play. However, since authentic material is being used, understanding the storyline will certainly be a major challenge for many students. Perhaps a complete script should have been provided (or at least subtitles in Spanish). I believe many students can become quite frustrated at attempting to understand native speakers talking among themselves.

I congratulate the author on her efforts. Transición clearly reveals that she invested much time and work into doing the necessary research, compiling articles and topics for readings and discussions, writing, proposing intelligent questions to her readers, and editing all the materials. The activities proposed are engaging and challenging, and
will certainly help serious Spanish students advance in their study of the language and culture of Spain. It is clear that she is passionate about the subject and that it is personal to her.

My only reservation concerns the limited number of students to whom I believe this book caters. *Transición* is unique and challenging. It will be difficult, I think, to use it in a regular classroom and to keep students interested. In my experience, students like to discuss a variety of topics, instead of focusing a whole semester or year on one single topic (that is, the history of Spain and the experience of Spaniards born between 1960 and 1975). In addition, it seems to me that *Transición* will require at least two semesters to cover in class, even with students reading many texts outside the classroom. Each of the seven chapters is comprehensive, including all the pre-research about each topic, readings, discussions, analyses/written activities required plus the TV series (watching it, sometimes more than once in class, and discussing it). Hence, thinking of two weeks per chapter would be too overwhelming for the students (considering a regular 15/16 week-long college semester). They will need to be very committed and willing to spend several hours a week doing the necessary research, reading, and writing.

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**Publisher’s Response**

Yale University Press thanks The NECTFL Review and reviewer Dr. Jeanine Lino Perez for the comprehensive and complimentary review of *Transición*. As Dr. Perez says, the book and soap opera series included with the book on DVD will increase students’ proficiency in grammar and vocabulary while providing a window into Spain’s political and cultural changes of the 1960s-1970s. The many readings and suggested activities combined with the authentic episodes of the TV show *Cuéntame cómo pasó* offer students and instructors entertaining, informative, and challenging materials. While the book focuses on a specific time, students may be able to observe and compare it to today’s Spain as well as their own lives.

Yale University Press is committed to publishing engaging and essential texts for Spanish and other world languages; our next Spanish publication is *Fundamentos teóricos y prácticos de historia de la lengua española* by Eva Núñez Méndez, a comprehensive language text about the evolution of Spanish, and an introductory Spanish textbook series is forthcoming. Many thanks to Dr. Perez and The NECTFL Review for the thoughtful review of *Transición*. If instructors would like to request an examination copy of this or any of our language textbooks, you may do so at [yalebooks.com/languageexam](http://yalebooks.com/languageexam).

Karen Stickler
Academic Discipline Marketer
Yale University Press
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!

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NECTFL Mailing List Available to Foreign Language Educators

Our mailing list of 14,000 names throughout the region and the country represents the most active, dynamic, and professional educators in the field. These are the individuals who seek out opportunities for continued growth in their teaching, administration, research, and personal knowledge. The mailing list is available for purchase to those with a demonstrated interest in and commitment to foreign language education. It will not be sold to anyone outside the field. If you wish to present information about your program, district, or materials, please contact us at 717-245-1977 or at nectfl@dickinson.edu for further information.

IMPORTANT!
How to contact The Northeast Conference

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We answer our own phones!
In Memoriam

John Peter Nionakis

The Northeast Conference Board was saddened to learn of the death of John Nionakis in May of 2011. Mr. Nionakis was elected to the NECTFL Board in 1983 and served as Chair of the 1989 conference, “Shaping the Future: Challenges and Opportunities,” following a four-year term and a term as Vice Chair. We extend our sincere condolences to his family and to the many students he influenced during his decades teaching in Hingham MA.

JOHN NIONAKIS died on Tuesday, May 17, 2011. John was born in Haverhill, MA on June 29, 1923. He was the son of Greek immigrants, who had moved from Asia Minor to the United States. John graduated from Haverhill High School in 1941, with the goal of teaching foreign languages. In 1943 he joined the U.S. Army and served in the 75th Infantry Division. In 1946, he was honorably discharged. Thanks to the G.I. Bill of Rights, John was able to pursue his lifelong goal of becoming a foreign language teacher. In 1950, he received his B.A in French from the University of Massachusetts, Amherst. He then received his M.A. in both French and Spanish from Middlebury College in 1952 and 1956, respectively. In 1962, he married Nike Zannetos, his devoted spouse of nearly 50 years. John dedicated his professional life to teaching foreign languages and culture. In 1962, he became the Chairman of the Foreign Language Department for the Hingham Public School System, a position he would hold for 30 years and until his retirement. During that time, John built one of the most impressive foreign language programs in the Commonwealth. His department continuously offered French, Spanish and Latin classes. He instituted innovative and progressive programs, such as foreign language classes in the elementary schools and a language immersion program. In addition, he nurtured a robust exchange program, bringing foreign students from around the world to study in Hingham, and encouraging Hingham students to live and study abroad. John also directed a summer study-abroad program in Madrid, Spain for over 30 years. Thousands of students from around the nation participated in this program and, over time, referred to John as “Papa Nio” because of his dedication to their development and welfare. During the course of his distinguished career, John held many leadership positions in local, state, and national foreign language associations. He also received many accolades for his dedication to education, students, foreign languages, and culture. In 1983, King Juan Carlos I of Spain bestowed upon John the honor of La Cruz de Oficial de Isabel la Católica (an Officer in the Court of Queen Isabel) in recognition of his extraordinary contribution to and promotion of the Spanish language and culture. This award is the highest honor that the King of Spain can bestow upon a non-Spanish citizen. And although he did not use it, his official title was “His Excellency, Sir John Peter Nionakis.” Even after retiring in 1992, John continued to teach part time until age 81.
In Memoriam

Teresa Pica

It is with great sorrow that the Northeast Conference reports the untimely death of Teresa Pica, a professor in the Graduate School of Education at the University of Pennsylvania. Dr. Pica was the recipient of our 2007 Stephen A. Freeman Award for the best published article on instructional practices to appear in the preceding year: Classroom learning, teaching, and research: A task-based perspective, which was published in The Modern Language Journal 89(3).

It will not surprise anyone familiar with her energy, commitment, and generosity to learn that she immediately asked us what she could contribute to the 2007 conference as a means of thanking us for the honor we were bestowing upon her. She conducted a packed session at the conference, and she spent every other moment of her time with us in lively discussion and interaction. It was a privilege to have known her, and we shall miss her and her myriad contributions to the field of second language acquisition and language education. Her family, colleagues, friends, and students all have our deepest sympathies.

Teresa Pica, 66, a professor at the University of Pennsylvania Graduate School of Education and one of the world’s leading experts in the field of second language acquisition, died Nov. 14 after an illness of many months. Dr. Pica’s influence on the theory and practice of second language acquisition would be hard to overstate. In the 1980’s, when most approaches to SLA were cognitive and psychological, she championed the idea that students learn best when they use their second language in meaningful, task-based, face-to-face interactions—an idea that is now at the center of SLA teaching and research. And although she was excited by theory, Dr. Pica never lost sight of the practical applications of her work. Much of her research focused on how best to use task-based interaction in the second-language classroom, and she led workshops for teachers in Philadelphia and around the world. But Dr. Pica is perhaps best remembered as a tireless teacher and caring mentor to thousands of master’s degree students and dozens of doctoral candidates—many of whom have gone on to become leaders in the field themselves. Warm and welcoming, Dr. Pica nonetheless held her students to high standards and pushed them to excel. But she pushed herself as well; always generous with her time, and seemingly tireless, she quickly responded to students’ e-mail messages at any hour of the day or night, and she would return thoughtful and incisive feedback on long pieces such as dissertation chapters within a few hours of receiving them.

Dr. Pica was a constant and enthusiastic presence at academic conferences, where she amused her colleagues with her “wicked sense of humor,” said Dr. Larry Selinker, another pioneer of the SLA field. She was a frequent guest lecturer at universities in the United States and abroad; a member of the editorial boards of leading journals in her field; and the winner of numerous academic honors and awards.
Teresa Palma Pica—known as Tere to her family, friends and colleagues—was born Sept. 26, 1945, in Bridgeport, CT, and grew up in Trumbull, CT, where she graduated from Trumbull High School in 1963. Dr. Pica graduated in 1967 from the College of New Rochelle with a bachelor's degree in English and Speech Communications; in 1969, she received a master's degree in Speech Pathology and Audiology from Teachers College, Columbia University. Soon after, she began work as a speech therapist in the Easton-Redding, CT, school system. She earned her Ph.D. in Educational Linguistics from Penn GSE in 1982 and came to work as an assistant professor at the school in 1983. In the course of her career, she held many positions at GSE; at the time of her death, in addition to her professorship, Dr. Pica was director of Penn GSE’s TESOL program and co-director of the Penn Lauder CIBER Summer Institute.