Reimagining the World Language “Classroom”: The Future Starts Today

69th Annual Northeast Conference
March 2-4, 2023
New York Hilton Midtown

Our conference theme is *Reimagining the World Language “Classroom”: The Future Starts Today*. The goal of the 2023 conference is to consider what we have learned in the past two years of change, adaptation, and innovation to reimagine the “classroom” and world language learning. Tomorrow’s “classroom” is not merely technology based. How is teaching changing?

- How is the concept of “classroom” evolving?
- How can we better engage students?
- How are new technologies impacting teaching and learning?
- How is inclusion addressed as our “classrooms” evolve?
- How do we address social emotional learning?

These questions need to be explored in order to take advantage of lessons learned during the pandemic and to develop strategies that will keep world language in the forefront of 21st century education. Sessions may address a wide variety of topics ranging from best practices and current/emerging technologies to issues such as inclusion and social emotional learning. I am delighted that our keynote speaker is Jessica Haxhi. So let’s work together to better serve *all* of our students.
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Announcement
NECTFL is proud to announce that the NECTFL Review is now included in the Education Resources Information Center (ERIC) of the U.S. Department of Education.

The ERIC database is an online digital library sponsored by the Institute of Education Sciences of the U.S. Department of Education. ERIC provides a comprehensive, easy-to-use, searchable, Internet-based bibliographic database of education research, enhanced by full text when permission is granted by the publisher, or links to the publisher. Available at http://eric.ed.gov, it is an efficient tool for educators, researchers, and the general public to locate education research journal articles, books, and other literature from multiple sources.
The NECTFL Review is pleased to announce a new section in the journal! This new Language Classroom section is edited by Catherine Ritz (maflacatherine@gmail.com) and features shorter articles (8+ pages/1,500–2,500 word) focused on classroom practices and experiences. We invite submissions from language educators at all levels that address topics such as: classroom instruction, curriculum design, assessment & feedback, leadership and advocacy, planning and program design, technology integration, student experiences, or other similar topics. These articles should focus on the language classroom and are not intended to present research findings. We are looking for focused and concise articles that share research-based classroom practices and experiences in the language classroom.

To submit an article to this section, use this link: https://forms.gle/Fi9YTV3qAcmpZBT8A
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The Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (NECTFL) announces the appointment of Christopher Gwin as Executive Director of NECTFL. Chris has been a member of the NECTFL board for the past 6 years and this year served as Conference Chair and fulfilled many of the functions of Executive Director after the passing of John Carlino in January. He provided a calm, efficient, hardworking force which guided us through a most difficult time. His work ethic and deep sense of giving back to the world language community were deeply evident in everything he did over the last few months.

Chris is a teacher of German at Haddonfield Memorial High School and the University of Pennsylvania, as well as the current Executive Director of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations (NFMLTA). Chris has been Past President of the Foreign Language Educators of New Jersey (FLENJ) and has had important roles in the American Association of Teachers of German (AATG) and ACTFL, to name only a few. Along with his numerous leadership roles, Chris has received many awards during his prodigious career.

Chris’s experience, dedication, clarity of vision and proven competence made him the perfect candidate. The entire NECTFL board looks forward to a long, rewarding and successful collaboration with Chris, as we embark on our next chapter.

— Margarita Dempsey, Vice Chair
May 19, 2022
From the 2023 Conference Chair

Dear Colleagues and Friends,

The NECTFL Board Members are pleased to present the 89th issue of the NECTFL Review, an academic journal for PK-16+ world languages educators, researchers, and administrators. We are confident that the articles selected and approved by our committee of experts will spur your thinking and impact your professional growth. Many thanks to Dr. Robert Terry, the editor of the Review, for his continuing efforts in guaranteeing the relevance and quality of the publication.

First of all, I would like to thank the entire Board of Directors for their extraordinary efforts since the passing of our beloved Executive Director, John Carlino, in January. All of the board members had to work extremely hard to make the Conference the success it was. The only way we were able to accomplish this was with Chris Gwin’s incredible stewardship, work ethic, and dedication. I am so proud to be a member of this amazing group of professionals!

The new school year is upon us. Will this year be back to normal? Will we be able to bridge the deficiency gap of the last two years? What new drama will affect our lives? And what does “normal” really mean? We all need to face the future together so that we can support one another. Please join us in New York City for the 69th Annual Conference on March 2–4, 2023 at the Hilton Hotel, where our theme is Reimagining the World Language “Classroom”; The Future Starts Today. Important questions will be addressed such as:

- How is teaching changing?
- How is the concept of “classroom” evolving?
- How can we better engage students?
- How are new technologies impacting teaching and learning?
- How is inclusion addressed as our “classrooms” evolve?
- How do we address social emotional learning?

These questions need to be explored in order to take advantage of lessons learned during the pandemic and to develop strategies that will keep world language in the forefront of 21st century education. Pre-conference workshops and sessions will address a wide variety of topics ranging from best practices and current/emerging technologies to issues such as inclusion and social emotional learning. There will be presentations in English, French, Spanish, Chinese, German, Italian, Greek, Hebrew, Korean, Latin, and Arabic. I am delighted that our keynote speaker is the amazing Jessica Haxhi.

I sincerely hope you will join us in New York City in March and I also hope that you encourage your colleagues to attend as well. There is nothing like a live conference, where you can exchange ideas with inspiring teachers, to keep you motivated and excited about our wonderful profession.

So let’s come together to better our own practice and to serve all of our students. Come Home to NECTFL!

Best Regards,

Margarita Boyatzì Dempsey
Conference Chair, NECTFL 2023
In Memoriam

Kathleen M. “Kathy” Riordan

Kathleen M. “Kathy” Riordan, 76 of the Hungry Hill section of Springfield, MA, was Called Safely Home on Wednesday, May 25, 2022. She passed into Eternal Life at her home surrounded by all the memories she loved and cherished. She was born in Springfield on December 31, 1945, the beloved daughter of the late Springfield Fire Lieutenant William C. “Mickey” Riordan who was Called Home on June 12, 1953 and the late Kathleen M. (Sullivan) Riordan who was Called Home on August 6, 2001. Kathy was raised in Springfield and was a lifelong resident of the city. She graduated from Sacred Heart Elementary School and later from Sacred Heart High School in 1963. She later graduated with Honors in 1967 from the College of Our Lady of the Elms in Chicopee with a Bachelor’s Degree in French. She furthered her education at Assumption College in Worcester and received a Master’s Degree in French in 1969. In 1980, Kathy received a Certificate of Advanced Study from the University of Massachusetts in Amherst and her Doctorate in Education in 1990. From 1968 to 1977, Kathy was a Foreign Language Teacher at West Springfield High School, Lexington High School and lastly at Kennedy Jr. High School, all in Springfield. In 1977, Kathy became the Director of Foreign Language for the Springfield School Department, a post she held until her retirement in 2002. She later was one of the Founding Members of the Pioneer Valley Chinese Immersion Charter School in Hadley. Kathy received the Distinguished Alumni Award from the College of Our Lady of the Elms in 1987 and was President of the Massachusetts Foreign Language Association where she received their Distinguished Service Award in 1990. She was also President of the American Council on Teaching Foreign Languages and, in 1997, received the Florence Steiner Leadership Award for K thru 12 Education. During her leisure time, Kathy loved to travel to many interesting places with her many friends. She traveled the world over five continents and 29 countries. Kathy was a lifelong communicant of Sacred Heart Church in Springfield, where she served her Parish as a Eucharistic Minister, a Parish Council member and a longtime member of the Church Choir. Kathy was an only child but leaves her numerous cherished cousins and a host of many wonderful friends. Her Funeral was held on Monday, June 6, 2022, followed by a Mass of Christian Burial. Her burial was at Saint Michael Cemetery, Springfield, MA. Kathy requested that memorial donations be made in her memory to the Sacred Heart Church Renovation Fund, 395 Chestnut Street, Springfield, MA 01104 or the College
It was 1995 when I first met Janet – she and I were lucky enough to be participants in Project Pluma, a summer grant for Spanish teachers designed by our mentor and friend, Dr. Mari Haas (whose daughter Alexis is here with us today to honor Janet). Janet impressed me immediately with her astute comments and questions, and also with her camaraderie, her kindness, and her warmth. Several years later we were honored to participate in another Mari adventure in New Mexico – we roomed together for this one. I can’t list the multitude of ways we collaborated over the years – presenting at conferences, site visits to support world language programs, and so much more. She inspired thousands of teachers in the US and around the world to teach Spanish through culture, especially via folk art – a love of which we both shared. She touched the lives of thousands of students, who learned to love the language and culture, and to see Spanish as a vehicle through which to better understand the world and their own young lives. But what stands out in addition to the incredible professional work as a Spanish teacher, college professor and teacher trainer, was the passion, dedication, and complete heart with which Janet did everything. Janet was one of the most caring, thoughtful, fiercely dedicated, and noble people I have ever known. She demonstrated these traits even throughout the past two years, when she continued to teach – in the case, she was teaching us all how to die with grace and compassion. Even up to her last days, she was focused on finding her replacement for the many committees on which she served, making time to be with her beloved grandchildren, and sharing her time with the people she loved. Janet, I know you are with us today – I hope you see this gathering of so many people who admired and loved you. We want you to know that all your efforts in life will bear fruit for generations to come. And we thank you for your life of service and love.

Lori Langer de Ramirez, May 22, 2022
The Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages serves educators in all languages (including classical, less commonly taught, and ESL), at all levels from kindergarten through university, in both public and private settings. In existence since the late 1940s, NECTFL is the largest of five regional associations of its kind in the United States, representing educators from Maine to Virginia but exercising leadership nation-wide.

NECTFL has expanded its outreach, professional development and advocacy efforts through publications, workshops, research projects and other initiatives. Its prestige has been reflected in its singular ability to bring together the profession's most prestigious leaders for world-class and ground-breaking programs while sustaining an organizational culture that is interactive, welcoming, and responsive.

Through representation on its Board of Directors, through its Advisory Council, through conference offerings and refereed journal articles, NECTFL maintains a commitment to the individual foreign language teacher, to collaborative endeavors, to innovation and to inclusionary politics and policies.

What We Do:

We serve world language teachers by
• listening to them
• representing their diverse views
• bringing them together
• nurturing their growth as newcomers and veterans treating them as caring friends and respected professionals
Ustedeo, voseo, or tuteo in Costa Rica: Un arroz con mango

Barbara C. Schmidt-Rinehart, Ashland University
Jean W. LeLoup, U.S. Air Force Academy

Abstract

An accurate portrayal of contemporary Spanish in Costa Rica necessitates the inclusion of a discussion of forms of address. Costa Rica is commonly listed among the countries that include voseo as part of its pronominal paradigm. The present descriptive study elucidates the sociolinguistic reality of voseo in Costa Rica and elaborates on the dynamics of second-person singular forms of address or register. Data were derived from a two-part study designed to investigate the use of usted, vos, and tú together with their corresponding verb forms, with whom and in which contexts are these forms of address used, how might the linguistic landscape be changing, and why. In the initial investigation, 132 in-country person-to-person interviews of native speakers from all seven provinces were conducted and analyzed. The results revealed that ustedeo was overwhelmingly the form of choice in all contexts, voseo was noticeably present, and tuteo rarely appeared in the speech of the interlocutors. Subsequent exploration of the linguistic landscape of the country as evidenced in over 500 tokens of print media and signage indicated a different usage of these forms of address. Results showed that all three forms were prevalent. This incongruence has ramifications for Spanish language instruction as well as those wishing to interact appropriately in the Costa Rican culture.

KEY WORDS: applied linguistics, Costa Rica, forms of address, linguistic landscape, register, second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, vos, voseo, tuteo, ustedeo.

Introduction

This article reports on a two-phase project. The first phase sought to provide an accurate portrayal of language use across the seven provinces in Costa Rica (Alajuela, Cartago, Guanacaste, Heredia, Limón, Puntarenas, San José) in terms of register and subject pronoun and concomitant verb use for the second person singular. Specifically, researchers were interested in the fluctuation and potential interplay between and among native speakers’ use of
three potential second person singular pronouns and their concomitant verb forms: Ud., vos, and tú. From this point forward, said pronoun usage as well as its unique verbal morphology will be referred to as the ustedeo, the voseo, and the tuteo, terms defined by the Real Academia Española (Real Academia Española, n.d.) as appropriate forms of address for usted, vos, and tú, respectively. While some previous studies have addressed this topic (Hasbún and Solís, 1997; Jara Murillo, 2008; Thomas, 2008), to date no study has systematically investigated voseo with an examination of subjects (Ss) who were strategically selected to reflect a diverse geographic and socioeconomic pool. Instead, most studies have involved participants in the Central Valley of Costa Rica (the provinces of Alajuela, Cartago, Heredia, San José) where a large percentage of the country’s population resides. The focus of attention of the first phase of the overall project was the interchange of ustedeo, voseo, and tuteo in present-day Costa Rica as a whole. Results of this first study are presented in summary below, as they are germane to the second phase of the project. (A detailed report of this study can be found in Schmidt-Rinehart & LeLoup, 2017).

A second phase of investigation was undertaken and was specifically directed at the linguistic landscape of Costa Rica, in an attempt to see if the pronoun and verb usage established in the first part of the study held true in visual tokens of the linguistic landscape across the Central Valley, the most urban region of the country. Research on the linguistic landscape of urban areas in countries around the world has broadened the scope of sociolinguistic studies, shifting the focus from speakers of the language to the study of space and of places. Such areas are now considered language speakers in their own right (Gorter, Marten, and Van Mensel, 2012).

Review of Literature

The use of voseo

The initial portion of this literature review relates to the first phase of the research project that is the foundation of the investigations referenced in this article. As stated above, the focus of the first phase of research concentrated on the interplay between and among the three subject pronouns and verb forms for second person singular in Costa Rica: Ud., vos, and tú. The concern about the presence or absence of use of each pronoun is of interest because Costa Rica is considered a voseante country—where the pronoun vos is presumed to be quite prevalent (Cabal Jiménez, 2013; Cameron, 2012, 2014; Jara Murillo, 2008; Kapović, 2007; Morgan et al., 2017; Moser, 2006, 2008; Vargas Dengo, 1974; Villegas, 1963). Indeed, the presence of voseo in some Central and Latin American countries and the absence of same in others is largely due to historical events beginning in the 15th century with the Spanish conquistadores (Benavides, 2003; Cabal Jiménez, 2013; Kapović, 2007; Rojas Blanco, 2003; Vargas Dengo, 1974; Weyers, 2014). Through the ensuing centuries, vos was replaced in Spain by vuestra merced as a form of address—which would eventually become usted— but this change did not necessarily follow to every place in the New World. Across the ocean from Spain, linguistic as well as sociolinguistic changes were adopted or rejected in different territories according to their degree of contact with the mother country on the Iberian Peninsula. For example, those areas maintaining close contact with Spain (Mexico, the territories of the Caribbean, and Peru) experienced language changes concomitant with the norms in Spain. Consequently, voseo is largely or entirely absent in these areas. Other sociological reasons influencing the presence or disappearance of voseo in Latin America were the perception of a social hierarchy and the use of linguistic forms that were preferred by members of that group (Benavides, 2003; Kapović, 2007; Rojas Blanco, 2003; Vargas Dengo, 1974). (See Micheau, 1991 and Vargas Dengo, 1974 for a detailed account of the development of voseo through the ages.)
The linguistic variation found within the forms of voseo itself should not be surprising when one considers the vast geography of Latin America. Indeed, several researchers have chosen to investigate these linguistic alternatives and the reasons underlying these distinctions. This body of research provides detailed studies on voseo forms and offers several clarifying examples (Congosto Martín, 2004; Hernández, 2007; Kapović, 2007; Moser, 2006, 2008; Thomas, 2008; Vargas Dengo, 1974). The present project deals with voseo in general, a construction that is relatively simple to master when compared to the irregular forms for the tuteo (Cameron, 2012, 2014; Mason & Nicely, 1995). The studies reported here are primarily concerned with the presence or absence of the forms of address in question, rather than with linguistic variations. Various researchers found tuteo largely absent in Costa Rica, thus opening the door for a dual interplay between ustedeo and voseo (Cabal Jiménez, 2013; Jara Murillo, 2008; Kapović, 2007; Moser, 2008; Murillo Medrano, 2010; Thomas, 2008). Of particular note is the importance of verbal morphology for establishing vos vs. tú vs. usted in Costa Rica, where—unlike in many parts of Latin America—verb forms are enormously helpful in determining which form of address is being employed (Morgan, personal communication, August 23, 2021).

A significant body of research has attempted to identify the variables causing this interplay. Hasbún and Solís (1997) conducted a study of pronouns of address with 94 subjects (Ss) (30 male and 64 females) from different social levels, working at the University of Costa Rica. Data derived from a questionnaire referring to the use in specific conversations and interactions revealed age and gender as the more important factors (rather than social standing) in Costa Rican society. Findings indicated that ustedeo was used more with older people and voseo with younger people, irrespective of social status. In general, in their data, they report more use of ustedeo than of voseo. Jara Murillo (2008) conducted a study with 600 Ss spanning four years that used a written questionnaire to elicit Spanish speakers’ opinion of the pronoun usage in Costa Rica. Resulting data revealed a fluctuation between ustedeo and voseo, with the choice being determined by a combination of variables such as differences of age, social status, intent of conversation, directive or receptive position of interlocutor, and context. Another study concentrating on Ss in the Central Valley and San José in particular used data from 40 hours of recordings of Spanish speakers (Moser 2006). Findings revealed that usage varied depending on such factors as age, purpose of conversation, requests, imperatives, and degree of intimacy or perception thereof on the part of all interlocutors.

In another study using 20 recordings of 60 Spanish speakers, Murillo Medrano (2010) found a varying degree of alternation in forms of address. Differences were focused on relations of social distance, solidarity, power, and perception of contextual inequality. In yet another study targeting the Central Valley, Thomas (2008) used a questionnaire with 20 Spanish speakers to determine opinions of pronoun use. In his study, the same kinds of alternation between ustedeo and voseo could be attributed to similar influential factors. Solano Rojas (2012) conducted a study of both adult and child Ss in four different elementary schools in the urban area of San Ramón, in the province of Alajuela in the Central Valley. Adult Ss included administrators and teachers (N=132), and there were 80 student Ss from each of the four elementary schools (N=320). Data were collected from questionnaires, annotated conversations, and observed linguistic interactions between and among students. Student Ss used ustedeo overwhelmingly (> 90%), even in interactions with each other. Adult Ss used ustedeo the majority of the time, but usage did vary at times with age or perceived position of authority. The use of voseo was noted somewhat but at times could be considered rude or vulgar. The use of tuteo was deemed effeminate and/or as an affected mannerism.
In general, across these studies, *ustedeo* was used to express solidarity, affection, authority, and trust in several instances. Depending on the interlocutor and the appropriate context, *voseo* was used to indicate trust. In the absence of these affective factors, the use of *voseo* was perceived as insulting. Different factors emphasized in other research include age and educational level of interlocutors, and degree of intimacy and trust as perceived by conversation interlocutors (Benavides, 2003; Cabal Jiménez, 2013; Hernández, 2007; Kapović, 2007; Lotheylington, 2007; Moser, 2006, 2008; Murillo Medrano, 2010; Thomas, 2008; Vargas Dengo, 1974). Research questions for the initial phase of the project were as follows:

1. What are the prevalent subject pronouns and concomitant verb forms used in spoken interpersonal communication in Costa Rica?
2. With whom and in which contexts are the forms of address used in interpersonal communication?

The Linguistic Landscape

The second portion of this literature review underpins the segue from the first phase to the second, wherein the researchers chose to investigate the alignment (or lack thereof) of spoken verbal forms of address with those in evidence as written tokens in the linguistic landscape of the Central Valley in Costa Rica. The evolving field of research in linguistic landscape was put on sound footing by the flagship study of Landry and Bourhis (1997), in which they presented the concept of linguistic landscape as a sociolinguistic variable directly related to language planning, ethnolinguistic vitality, and perceptions and behaviors directly affecting and being affected by public signage (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). In their study, the researchers clearly lay out the notion of linguistic landscape: “The language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on governmental buildings combines to form the linguistic landscape of a given territory, region, or urban agglomeration” (p. 25). They further state that the linguistic landscape serves two basic functions: informational and symbolic. The informational aspect delineates the geographical territory of a language group, while the symbolic aspect relates directly to in-group status and the value of a language relative to other languages that may be present in the geographic area. They found that these two functions of the linguistic landscape could be important factors in language maintenance and language shift, and as such need to be considered by anyone creating and/or adding to a given linguistic landscape.

With the rise of studies of linguistic landscapes as a field in its own right, the term “linguistic” has taken on a broader meaning, no longer limited to verbal and written language but amplified to include analyses of semiotic, sociological, political, geographic and even economic spaces (Barni & Bagna, 2015). Again, the focus has shifted from human speakers of the language to the examination of space and places, which are now considered “speakers” themselves (Gorter, et al., 2012). The issue then becomes how to study these spaces in order to make sense of the linguistic landscape present in them and the purposes behind uses of the language(s) that appear therein. Without a framework from which to proceed, this would seem to be a challenging task—as often the linguistic landscape seems to reflect chaos more than order in terms of language usage (Ben-Rafael & Ben-Rafael, 2015). Indeed, a term often heard in Costa Rica to reflect this lack of order is “*un arroz con mango*,” an expression used to indicate a situation as atypical and inexplicable as eating rice with a mango. Many researchers have settled on an approach that employs both qualitative as well as quantitative analyses, because they feel that merely counting linguistic occurrences within the landscape without further analysis is simply not enough (Barni &
Bagna, 2015). In order to truly understand the linguistic landscape of a place, one must also consider and understand its context. Basically, research on linguistic landscapes poses the compelling questions of who puts up what sign(s) where, in what language(s), and, last but not least, why (or why not)? (Marten, et al., 2012).

In a study of public spaces or downtowns of three different cities (Brussels, Berlin, and Tel Aviv), Ben-Rafael and Ben-Rafael (2015) analyzed the linguistic landscape by focusing on the naming of commercial establishments. Their unit of analysis was that of stores bearing Big Commercial Names (BCNs). They explored the language used for signage of the BCNs and found that it did reflect the societal context of each area. Some languages were privileged over others, indicating a strong sociocultural or socio-ethnic influence and/or bias. Hassa and Krajcik (2016), referring to Scollon and Scollon’s (2003) theory of geosemiotics, also examined signs in their social and cultural context to make sense of their meaning. Their analysis involved 646 photographs of 429 store signs with 4,035 words in a Dominican neighborhood of New York City. Signs were photographed, words counted, and frequency of each determined. These signs were then categorized by three factors: language, type of business, and location. Their data reveal a language hierarchy showing a preference for one language over another, in particular giving superior status to English over the minority languages of the residents of the area. Pavlenko and Mullen (2015) also reference Scollon and Scollon—in particular their principles of indexicality, which proposes that signs derive their meaning in part from their placement in time, and dialogicality, which suggests that an understanding of one sign requires a consideration of other signs in the same area. Pavlenko and Mullen feel these principles promote the approach of a one-day viewing of all signs on a particular street, which may not yield true linguistic landscape data. They propose an additional consideration of diachronicity, which entails (1) looking at all signs over time and (2) acknowledging that the viewer has also seen other similar signs that may or may not exercise influence. This additional dimension broadens the perspective of the study of individual signs and the reasoning behind language selection of those signs.

In a study of the composition of shop signs in Athens, Greece, Nikolaou (2017) identified 96 different business types and analyzed their language(s). He found that the linguistic landscape serves both a symbolic and informational function, as noted in Landry and Bourhis (1997). In some instances conveying a high degree of specialized information, Greek was used almost exclusively. But in others such as businesses specializing in products and services related to modern lifestyles, other languages such as English, Italian, and French were used as symbolic expressions of values and ideologies associated with those foreign cultures. Przymus and Kohler (2018) used their eponymous SIGNS (Semiotic Index of Gains in Nature and Society) as a framework to investigate how the linguistic landscape in a particular geographic area influences language and race ideologies and educational opportunities. They found that linguistic messages in the landscape of school neighborhoods do influence these ideologies and consequently affect language planning and policy in those neighborhood schools.

In an analysis of 317 signs from three shopping malls located in a Hispanic neighborhood of Charlotte, NC, Roeder and Walden (2016) took a synchronic approach and used a model of conceptual frames of discourse and indexicality to explain their data. They placed signs in the following categories: the civic frame, the commercial frame, and the community frame. For them, “... frame is a schema of interpretation or a conceptual reference point that influences and shapes thought and interpretation” (p. 122). Signs in the civic frame were government-mandated, professionally manufactured, expensive
to produce, were created for long-term use, and were notably in English (p. 129). Signs categorized in the commercial frame represented the most linguistic diversity and were used to convey practical information and to sell products. The language used on these signs was based on a target audience, in this case Spanish speakers. While a large number of signs presented information in English only, in bilingual signs Spanish was the dominant language. The third frame, community, contained signs of either nationalist or Latino affiliation. The former referenced particular Latin American cultures (e.g., Mexican) and the latter demonstrated a hybrid of English and Spanish with a more general Latin American social identifier rather than a specific country or cultural affiliation.

Malinowski (2015) offers a conceptual framework of “thirdness” (p. 95) as a way for language learners to explore multiple meanings present in a linguistic landscape. He references Lefebvre’s (1991) three-part paradigm of conceived, perceived, and lived spaces and reinterprets it for pedagogical purposes in order to enable investigations of the discourse of place in the second language classroom and beyond, in the real world. This directly relates to the Communities Standard of ACTFL’s World Readiness Standards (The Standards Collaborative Board, 2015), whereby an examination of signs in a particular neighborhood exemplifies using language beyond the school setting to study and learn. Research of this type takes language learners out of the classroom and into the neighborhoods where the language on signs is real, exists, makes meaning, and is interpreted in many different ways by a variety of viewers.

Sayer (2010) also sees the linguistic landscape as a pedagogical resource for his language classroom. He constructed a data set of 250 texts (photos of signage in English) in Oaxaca for use in his English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom. He analyzed the signs according to intended audience and purpose: either cross-cultural or intracultural communication. The signs in the former grouping were used to convey information to foreigners. The signs in the latter grouping conveyed local social meaning and fell into either iconic (English in corporate slogans, etc.) or innovative (use of English with a variety of meanings) categories. He presents this study as a model for use in the EFL classroom as a project with students as the investigators of the linguistic landscape in their own environment. As such, the model could easily be replicated in a variety of foreign language classrooms. The learner becomes the researcher, using language creatively and analytically to explore their own surroundings and become more cognizant of their own sociolinguistic context. This could, in turn, have a definite impact on language learners’ awareness of the use of language in public spaces and how it influences language planning as well as policy (Shohamy, 2015).

In a study specifically directed toward the use of voseo in advertising in Costa Rica, Quintanilla Aguilar and Rodríguez Prieto (2014) surveyed 151 Costa Ricans of different ages and educational levels, mostly residents in San José, about the increased use of voseo in advertising and the media. They found that the growing use of voseo in Costa Rican advertising is related to a positive attitude toward this pronoun and to national identity. Their Ss rejected the use of familiarity indicated by tuteo and tended to see voseo as a sign of trust and Costa Rican linguistic identity. The use of voseo most definitely appears in a large part of the linguistic landscape of this country. As shown in these studies and seconded by Shohamy (2015), the linguistic landscape of any particular area is not random or arbitrary but rather is systematic and consistent with the goals and intents of those placing the signage. Taken a step further, Shohamy argues that linguistic landscape research points to a de facto execution of language policy that may have far-reaching effects beyond the local neighborhood. It would seem from the studies and articles above, the linguistic
landscape of a place (in the present study, the Central Valley of Costa Rica) takes on a new and significant importance that potentially has a significant impact on a large population. It follows, then, that a natural progression of research is to ascertain whether or not pronoun usage in Costa Rica, as determined by previous studies and in particular the first phase of research discussed above, is borne out by the linguistic landscape that is ever-present in the Central Valley.

The research question of the second phase of this project, dealing with linguistic landscape data, is as follows:

Does the use of forms of address in the linguistic landscape align with the interpersonal communication use of Costa Ricans?

**Method: The Interview Project**

Tapping into everyday interactions between native speakers provided a rich data set to investigate the use of the second-person singular forms of address. In order to ascertain the interlocutor’s choice of *ustedeo*, *voseo*, or *tuteo* the researchers interviewed 132 Costa Ricans – posing a scenario in which they were prompted to address various interlocutors: family members, friend, co-workers, strangers, shopkeepers, babies, someone younger, and pets. (See Appendix for sample scenario prompts.) At the end of the interview, participants were asked to explain their choice and their perceptions of the use of *ustedeo*, *voseo* and *tuteo* in Costa Rica.

Participants were carefully chosen to include a cross-section of the population based on gender, age, geography, and profession. All seven provinces were represented, 57 percent were female, 43 percent male, and ages ranged between 15 and 76. Access to participants was facilitated through the researchers’ in-country contacts, and the 20-minute interviews took place in educational centers as well as public venues (e.g., restaurants, the street, hotels, etc.) Quantitative data analysis involved recording the forms of address chosen by each interlocutor. For qualitative purposes, the interviewees’ comments were linked to these data, then grouped into categories that had been used in previous studies: respect, formality, solidarity, intimacy, and context. (Cabal Jiménez, 2013; Congosto Martín, 2004; Hernández, 2007; Kapović, 2007; Lotherington, 2007; Shenk, 2014).

**Results: The Interview Project**

**Results - Ustedeo in the Interviews**

*Ud.* and its forms emerged as the choice in most categories and across all provinces. Addressing their parents with *Ud.* was reported by 71-100% of the interviewees and 50% or more (≥ 50% was the target to denote “dominant”) with strangers, shopkeepers, children, and pets. The use of *ustedeo* with siblings was dominant in five provinces (Heredia, Puntarenas, Limón, Cartago, and Alajuela), with a spouse in four of the provinces (Guanacaste, Puntarenas, Cartago, and Limón), with co-workers in four (San José, Guanacaste, Puntarenas, and Limón), with someone younger in four (Heredia, Limón, Guanacaste and Alajuela) and with friends in two provinces (Alajuela and Heredia). When participants were asked to give an explanation for their choice, the most salient comments centered around respect— for family, older people, co-workers, subordinates, children. *Ustedeo* was viewed as more formal – someone one is not close to, someone who is providing a service, or to create a distance. The issue of solidarity also arose with the choice of *Ud.*; examples of comments from participants were: “*Ud.*. – *Ud.* is for ticos [I am very tica],” “we almost always use *Ud.* in Costa Rica, not vos or tú.”
Results - the voseo in the Interviews

Although Costa Rica is commonly listed among the voseante countries, the results of the interviews for this project revealed only two instances of voseo as the dominant choice (≥ 50%): with a spouse in Heredia and with friends in Cartago. A perusal of the qualitative data provides a window into their use and non-use of voseo revealing contradictory perspectives in play. Below are representative samples of their perceptions:

- **Formality**: “We use it very little here—it’s like you’re talking in another form. It’s offensive and sounds ugly”
- **Intimacy** – “vos is softer,” “it is disrespectful to use vos with someone you don’t know,” “I use it every once in a while with my friends”
- **Solidarity** – “it is our custom. We shouldn’t lose our roots with Ud. and vos,” “vos is the essence of the culture,” “vos is ours”
- **Context** – “Friends from my infancy, we use Ud. with my friends now, sometimes we use vos,” “I usually use Ud. with my mom, but if I use vos, it softens her.”

Results - The tuteo in the Interviews

The use of tuteo was the choice in very few instances across all provinces and all relationships. Only in Guanacaste did interviewees show a preference for tuteo in any situation at all: 60% reported that they use tuteo with babies. When probed for an explanation, comments revealed that they simply do not think of tuteo as Costa Rican and only use it in very particular situations, primarily to denote intimacy. Some sample comments were: “I use tú with someone that is really close,” “someone I have a lot of trust in,” “My grandkids speak to me in tú sometimes. They think it sounds closer.” Some reported using tú with friends and family from other tuteo countries (The Dominican Republic, Panama, Venezuela, Colombia, etc.). Many commented that they regarded the use of tú as a lack of solidarity: “tú isn’t normal,” “we never use tú here,” “tú isn’t Costa Rican,” “I don’t like it. It’s a cultural disgrace,” “tú rubs me the wrong way,” “it’s ridiculous, a disaster,” “I think tú is used in publicity to attract people from the U.S. or a certain category of people,” “People use tú to sound more refined.” These findings and comments demonstrate once again a lack of uniformity in usage throughout the country.

Despite a lack of 100% uniformity in usage, overall findings point solidly to ustedeo, followed by voseo. The second phase of the project sought to verify these results as reflected in the linguistic landscape of the country, primarily in the Central Valley.

Method: The Linguistic Landscape

For the present study, the researchers spent approximately two weeks on the ground in Costa Rica, primarily in San José and in surrounding smaller towns and villages in the Central Valley (where the majority of the Costa Rican population lives), collecting examples of forms of address. They canvassed neighborhoods, city centers, highways, commercial enterprises (e.g., restaurants, supermarkets, and department stores), and any public gathering places where this pronoun and verb use appeared in written form. Their aim was to collect as many different instances as possible in order to compare, contrast, and analyze pronoun and concomitant verb use. Researchers gathered data both digitally (photos) and in hard copy (later digitized for ease of analysis).

In order to interpret systematic patterns in the register exhibited in the tokens collected, the researchers considered several paradigms in use by previous research studies, such as those mentioned above in the review of literature (Landry & Bourhis, 1997; Malinowski, 2000).
USTEDEO, VOSEO, OR TUTEO IN COSTA RICA

2015; Nikolaou, 2017, 2016; Roeder & Walden, 2016; Sayer, 2010). The researchers ultimately turned to the field of marketing and publicity for a paradigm to explain the choice of ustedeo, voseo, or tuteo in public spaces in Costa Rica. According to Nogués, Coordinator of the School of Design and Visual Communication at the University of Veritas, San José, Costa Rica (personal communication, February 17, 2016), there are three factors to consider in a marketing or publicity campaign: (a) the product or information being publicized, (b) the target audience, and (c) the concept of the campaign. Thus, the 500+ tokens collected, with their concomitant pronominal and verb forms, were categorized and analyzed following these three factors. First, the products or information conveyed in the tokens (examples of register use in the written word available to the public via street signs, advertising, etc.) were sorted into categories according to purpose or type of business. The following categories were prevalent:

- public service announcements (e.g., fasten your seatbelt)
- telecommunications ads (e.g., WhatsApp)
- social media announcements (e.g., Facebook)
- graffiti
- companies from other countries
- Costa Rican companies and local businesses (e.g., hair salons, tailor shops, car mechanics)
- educational institutions
- banks
- employment opportunities.

Next, the researchers sought to ascertain the target audience and the campaign concept of the tokens. Given prior research indicating the predominance of ustedeo, the findings of these subsequent analyses were surprising as all three forms were in evidence in the tokens. A discussion of these analyses follows.

Results – The Linguistic Landscape

Results – The use of ustedeo and voseo in the Linguistic Landscape

The researchers hypothesized that ustedeo would be the form of choice in most cases, voseo in very specific instances and tuteo rarely. Indeed, as expected, ustedeo emerged in all categories, regardless of the target audience or the concept of the campaign. (See the ustedeo column in Table 1.) A most unexpected outcome, however, was seen in the prominence of voseo in the tokens collected. In the interview data, voseo was the form of address selected only in the most intimate of relationships (e.g., spouse, close friends). In the linguistic landscape, voseo was used across all categories: public service announcements, telecommunications, social media, company signs (both national and international/foreign), banks, educational institutions, and graffiti. (See the voseo column in Table 1.) It could be posited that the target audience for the tokens collected that contained voseo were Costa Ricans, whose cultural identity is aligned with this form of address. The message was brought closer to them (lessening the social distance, made more intimate) by using a form they considered their own, indicating the campaign concept of solidarity and respect. The information was conveyed in a more informal way, perhaps. Therefore, voseo in the linguistic landscape may indicate a specific marketing goal of appealing to either a younger audience or to highlight the cultural/linguistic tradition commented on by several Ss in previous studies.
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose or Type of Business</th>
<th>ustedeo</th>
<th>voseo</th>
<th>tuteo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public service announcements</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telecommunications</td>
<td>•</td>
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<td>•</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social Media</td>
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<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costa Rican companies</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Companies from other countries</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banks</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational institutions</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results – The use of *tuteo* in the Linguistic Landscape

In stark contrast to the data gleaned from the interpersonal interviews, *tuteo* was prevalent in the linguistic landscape. Both Nogués (personal communication, February 17, 2016) and the interviewees of this study indicated that *tuteo* is used to sound foreign, imported or refined, to attract or interact with a particular socioeconomic group or visitors from abroad, and/or to appeal to the younger generation. Many instances of *tuteo* were found when the target audience was a higher socioeconomic group: products of companies from other countries (e.g., Sears, Toyota, Uber, Mobil, Starbucks, Victoria’s Secret, Nestle), real estate in upscale neighborhoods and signage in an upscale mall (for parking, store club memberships, pubs, shoe stores, spas, etc.). Public service announcements containing *tuteo* were found in tourist areas, where it could be hypothesized that the target audience was from other countries. The appearance of *tuteo* for employment opportunities seemed to be directed at a younger audience (toy store, clothing, supermarket, Starbucks). The concept of the campaign when *tuteo* was selected was consistently one in which the message was intended to sound foreign, more refined, informal, fashionable or a distraction/diversion. (See the *tuteo* column in Table 1.)

It is important to raise the issue that it is possible that the use of *tú* was not intentional at all, especially for the foreign companies. Two explanations are plausible: (1) the translators/creators for these tokens simply were not aware of *voseo* in Costa Rica, and/or (2) the publicity was part of a mass marketing campaign used in many countries (including those where *tuteo* is prominent).

Discussion

Results of phase one of this project corroborate findings of previous research that found that *ustedeo* was the form of address chosen for second person singular address in interpersonal communication in Costa Rica (e.g., Hasbún & Solís, 1997; Murillo Medrano, 2008; Solano Rojas, 2012). Because *ustedeo* was so overwhelmingly the choice of the speakers, the variables indicated by other studies such as age, social status, intent or purpose of the conversation, and context (Moser, 2006; Jara Murillo, 2008; Thomas, 2008) did not surface. The use of *voseo* did emerge in the category of trust, but was far less frequent than *ustedeo* in the interview data. The absence of *tuteo* was consistent with most
Researchers’ findings. Because of this corroborated outcome of the project’s second phase, investigating the linguistic landscape of the Costa Rican Central Valley, was the manifestation of all three forms of address in the tokens collected. Indeed, \textit{ustedeo} was predicted to be the most prominent usage and \textit{voseo} can be explained by the desire of the creators to connect to the Costa Rican’s cultural identity. In addition, \textit{ustedeo} has featured prominently as the default form in numerous studies of usage in Costa Rican Spanish. Nevertheless, the linguistic landscape that employed \textit{tuteo} is clearly a divergence from what speakers reportedly use in their daily interaction. In fact, the qualitative data of the interview phase of this project as well as previous research (Quintanilla Aguilar and Rodríguez Prieto, 2014) regard the use of \textit{tuteo} in Costa Rica in a negative light. The appearance of \textit{tuteo} in the signage adds to the \textit{arroz con mango} nature of the interplay of the three pronouns and their verb forms in Costa Rica and warrants more analysis.

The pedagogical implications of this research are clear. It is time for the issue of register to be updated in language learning environments. The results of this study and others reveal that a simple paradigm for pronoun and corresponding verb use in Costa Rica and elsewhere is inadequate. Even when countries are identified as \textit{voseante}, the traditional explanation of \textit{ustedeo} for formal ‘you’ and \textit{voseo} for informal/familiar falls short. In the case of Costa Rica, the interview data indicated a much more complex interplay among the three choices – \textit{ustedeo}, \textit{voseo}, and \textit{tuteo}.

Furthermore, the linguistic landscape should be a sociolinguistic field of interest to any language teacher or student. Whether in-country for study, work, or pleasure, the signage will be immediately apparent. At first glance, the observer may only notice the content (e.g., an advertisement for cell service), but with further examination it becomes a rich source of insight into the choices made that reflect cultural traditions. Teachers should make students aware of the register issue facing each and every signage creator (whether it be for marketing, publicity, or other information), much like they do when focusing on appropriate interpersonal or presentational communication.

Heretofore, the teaching of \textit{voseo} has been conspicuously absent in the U.S. Spanish classroom. In a study to investigate the place of \textit{voseo} in the Spanish language curriculum, LeLoup and Schmidt-Rinehart (2018) discovered that it is simply not taught, even though a third of the Latin American population use it (Morgan et al., 2017; Shenk, 2014). In this day and age of sociolinguistic appropriateness, it would behoove the teaching profession not only to address that gap, but also to include the linguistic landscape as a fascinating piece to the puzzle.

Learners interested in doing study abroad programs in Central American \textit{voseante} countries should be made aware of and expect the reality of the pronominal paradigm of \textit{ustedeo}, \textit{voseo}, and \textit{tuteo} in Costa Rica. Such learners would benefit from formal instruction on this sociolinguistic phenomenon as forms of address have distinct functions that could impact interpersonal communication there. Additionally, knowledge of the verbal morphology associated with the pronoun might prevent misconceptions. Given the similarity in \textit{voseo} and \textit{tuteo} forms, one might confuse the two. For example, one could read a sign like “\textit{antojate de cualquier sabor}” [fancy a taste] from a Pops ice cream store sign and, at first glance, think it is a \textit{tuteo} expression. Awareness of \textit{voseo} in Costa Rica and knowledge of its corresponding verb forms enables the reader to see that there is no orthographic accent on penultimate-stressed \textit{antojate} (as there would be for the antepenultimate-stressed \textit{tú} form: \textit{antójate}) and that \textit{te} is the object pronoun for \textit{vos} as well. In all fairness, people read signs quickly – and miss the nuances of messages like \textit{La tecnología que buscás} [the technology you are looking for] from a Chevrolet sign. \textit{Buscas} would be the \textit{tuteante} form.
and buscás is clearly voseante to the trained eye. The public signage reader who is tuned in to these differences will recognize the following banking announcement as vos, rather than tú: “Solicitá tu préstamo”[apply for your loan].

**Conclusion**

Although Costa Rica is characterized as a voseante country, the reality discovered by this project is very complex and cannot be easily explained. The traditional symmetry between the second-person singular as ustedeo for formal and voseo for informal/familiar does not manifest itself in the interpersonal communication of the Costa Ricans. In other words, the standard grammatical explanation indicates that in a voseante dialect, the second person singular is ustedeo for formal and voseo for informal/familiar. In phase one, ustedeo emerged as the unmarked form, voseo marked in one direction (i.e., intimacy) and tuteo highly marked in another (i.e., foreignness, refinement). The participants did express, however, that they recognized voseo as being Costa Rican and part of their cultural linguistic identity (in contrast to tuteo). In phase two, the analysis of signage in the linguistic landscape revealed a different framework entirely, with all three forms of address in evidence. This stark difference in usage between interlocutor pronoun and verb selection in conversations and pronoun and verb choice for signage in public spaces is surprising and bears further investigation. A more detailed examination of the tokens collected for this phase of the project is needed in order to tease out the rationale and/or motivation for pronoun and verb use in the linguistic landscape that does not follow traditional Costa Rican spoken language custom.

**Note**

1Institutional Review Board approval for this research project was obtained (04-28-15-#085 A), and an amendment to an existing Cooperative Research and Development Agreement (CRADA) between both institutions was secured (CRADA 13-297-AFA-01, between the United States Air Force Academy and the Ashland University).

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**References**


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Appendix

Sample Scenario Prompts

The following scenarios / prompts are examples of those that were directed to each interviewee for interaction with:

**Your son or daughter:** You are in your home in the kitchen getting ready for dinner. It’s time to call your son/daughter to the table. What would you say to get him/her to the table: *Venga, vení, or ven*?

**Su hijo o hija:** Ud. está en casa en la cocina preparando la cena. A la hora de comer, ¿cómo llama Ud. a su hijo/a para que venga a la mesa? ¿Dice Ud. «venga», «vení» o «ven»?

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**Your co-worker:** You are working on a project at the office and want your co-worker’s advice. What would you say to have him/her come over to your desk: *Venga, vení, or ven*?

**Su compañero/a de trabajo:** Ud. trabaja en un proyecto en la oficina y quiere el consejo de su compañero/a. ¿Qué le dice Ud. a su compañero/a para que venga a su escritorio para ayudar: «venga», «vení» o «ven»?

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**Your friends:** Your friends are gathered at your house to watch a movie together. One person has gone into the kitchen and you want to start the movie. What would you say to get him/her to the living room: *Venga, vení, or ven*?

**Amigos:** Un grupo de amigos están en su casa para ver una película. Una persona está en la cocina y Uds. quieren empezar la película. ¿Qué le dice Ud. a su amigo para que venga a la sala: «venga», «vení» o «ven»?

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**A shopkeeper:** Suppose you are in Palí (a supermarket chain in Costa Rica) and needed assistance from a store clerk in locating an item. How would you ask the clerk for help? *Venga, vení, or ven*?

**Un empleado de una tienda:** Ud. está en Palí (un supermercado de Costa Rica) y necesita ayuda para encontrar algo. ¿Qué le dice Ud. al empleado para que le ayude: «venga», «vení» o «ven»?

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Jean W. LeLoup (Ph.D., The Ohio State University) has taught Spanish at the junior high, senior high, and college levels for more than 40 years and is currently Professor of Spanish in the Department of Foreign Languages at the United States Air Force Academy. Her current areas of research are the *voseo*, language immersion in the classroom, and the World Language edTPA.

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Developing a peer mentorship program for world language educators in Pennsylvania

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Abstract

Responding to concerning reports regarding common world language classroom practices failing to meet a communicative standard (Burke, 2011; 2014), acknowledging the critical shortage of teachers in the United States, and reacting to the call by Madel (2020) to leverage teacher leadership to promote pedagogical development within the field, this article describes the planning, development, and implementation process of a peer mentoring program for world language teachers in Pennsylvania. This program was designed with the specific intention of supporting novice teachers while simultaneously providing meaningful leadership opportunities for experienced teachers, both design aspects expected to impact retention efforts according to a review of the literature. Opportunities to evaluate the program’s effectiveness empirically are also explored.

Keywords: peer mentoring; teacher leadership; teacher retention; teacher attrition; foreign language education

This article describes the multiple facets of developing a dynamic peer mentorship program for world language educators in the state of Pennsylvania. The rationale for such a project, the chronological phases of developing a program to meet the state’s specific needs and professional context, and opportunities to evaluate the program’s efficacy empirically as it relates to key criteria and established literature are also discussed. While this description indicates the process relative to the particular needs of the Pennsylvanian context, details here are intended to provide a tangible guide for organizations that may benefit from developing similar programs within their own settings.

RELATED LITERATURE

Project Rationale

World language education is rich with potential benefits for both teachers and students alike (e.g., Fox, Corretjer, & Webb, 2019). Nonetheless, there are areas of concern for the
current and future wellbeing of the discipline that make the project described in this article timely, relevant, and responsive to the field’s needs. First, in spite of the best efforts of leading second language pedagogues and researchers for some decades, many classrooms are still promoting approaches to language learning that fail to meet a communicative standard. In her observations from the field, Burke (2011, 2014) described consistent practices that are characteristic of world language classrooms: (a) a heavy emphasis on non-contextual explicit grammar teaching and practice; (b) abundant use of translations; (c) use of English subverting ACTFL’s (2010) 90% target language recommendation; and (d) an abbreviated exploration of target language cultures. The result of these classroom practices is often that students lose interest and abandon language study well before achieving functional proficiency (Commission on Language Learning, 2016, 2017; Pufahl & Rhodes, 2011; Wesely, 2010).

The second concern is only showing signs of increasing gravity. That is, the field is experiencing a critical shortage of world language teachers in the United States. This phenomenon has been well documented (Sutcher, Darling-Hamming, & Carver-Thomas, 2016; Swanson & Mason, 2018; U.S. Department of Education, 2016) and was reported by ACTFL (2017) to be the worst on record. For many educational contexts, the COVID-19 pandemic only exacerbated these concerns (e.g., Carver-Thomas, Leung, & Burns, 2021; Dugger, 2021; Moser & Wei, 2021). Furthermore, Murphy, DeArmand, and Guin (2003) found that world language teaching positions were the most difficult for schools to fill. In Pennsylvania, the rate of teacher certifications has declined by two-thirds between 2010 and 2015 (Benshoff, 2016). According to data published by the Pennsylvania Department of Education (2021), world language-specific certifications have experienced an alarmingly parallel change: a 65% decline of Instructional I certificates¹ issued by the state from 2010 through 2020 (see Table 1). By comparison, Rodriguez and King (2020), as cited by Madel (2022a), noted a -44% trend in world language education degrees conferred in the United States from 2009-2019. As a result, retaining teachers who do enter the field is of critical importance especially in the face of an equally problematic challenge. Namely, Swanson and Huff (2010) showed that attrition rates among world language teachers exceed the 17% to 30% range reported for all classroom teachers within their first five years in the profession.

Table 1
World Language Educator Certificates Issued by the Pennsylvania Department of Education (2021)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Year</th>
<th>Instructional I Certificates Issued**†</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010-2011</td>
<td>368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011-2012</td>
<td>264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012-2013</td>
<td>318</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹. The Pennsylvania Department of Education (2022) offers two levels of certification. Level 1 certification, known as Instructional I certificates, is the initial certification awarded and is valid for a limited number of services years until the educator completes specific requirements, at which time the Instruction I certificate may be converted to an Instructional II certificate.
DEVELOPING A PEER MENTORSHIP PROGRAM FOR WL EDUCATORS IN PENNSYLVANIA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2013-2014</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014-2015</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015-2016</td>
<td>186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016-2017</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017-2018</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018-2019</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2019-2020</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Frequency totals include certificates issued as in-state, out of state, and add-on.
†Languages represented: ASL, Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Latin, Portuguese, Spanish, Turkish, and Urdu.

Acknowledging the realities presented by the practices that undermine language programs’ communicative goals (Commission on Language Learning, 2016, 2017; Pufahl & Rhodes, 2011; Wesely, 2010) coupled with the field’s ever-pressing challenge of teacher shortages and attrition (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2021), The Pennsylvania State Modern Language Association (PSMLA), the commonwealth’s leading professional organization for language educators, determined that Pennsylvania would benefit from implementing a peer mentorship program as a means to (1) support novice world language educators and (2) elevate the status and voice of experienced teacher leaders. Relative to the former point, Podolsky et al. (2016) acknowledged the invaluable role that peer mentoring plays in effective new-teacher support. Specific to world language educators, Mason (2017) showed the significance that connections with other world language teachers play in language teacher retention. More broadly, studies focusing on teacher leadership (e.g., Ingersoll, Dougherty, & Sirinides, 2017; Teach Plus, n. d.) have shown that providing experienced teachers with meaningful new responsibilities and roles can impact the likelihood that a teacher chooses to remain in the profession.

Teacher Leadership as a Pedagogical Change Agent

A peer mentorship program is recommended specifically by Madel (2020) as a means to break the cycle of pedagogical transference through generations and leverage teacher leadership, experience, and expertise to support colleagues in their professional development as communicative language teachers. This conclusion derived from a study of over 600 language teachers in the United States to understand the relationship between the participants’ perception of what influenced their classroom practices and their value of instruction that regards accuracy over communication. On one hand, Madel found that language teachers left to their own devices transfer teaching practices in a cyclical fashion and largely uninterrupted throughout generations. That is to say that throughout three consecutive phases of an educator’s development (i.e., experiences as a language learner, experiences as a learner of language methods, and experiences as an educator), they are influenced by variables that associate statistically with practices that tend to value
a more explicit, accuracy-driven approach to language learning. Namely, the variables that correlated positively with less-than-communicative practices were: (1) how they were taught themselves, (2) their college-level methodology courses, (3) language textbooks, (4) accuracy-focused assessments, and (5) an intuitive sense of “what works” in the classroom. Considering the sense of silo and isolation that teachers often experience (Dussault et al., 1997; Dodor, Sira, & Hausafus, 2010; Ostovar-Nameghi & Sheikhahmadi, 2016), Madel suggested that the omnipresence of these influences in the world language teaching context perpetuate a generational cycle of a grammar-driven approach to language learning as exemplified by Burke (2011, 2014).

On the other hand, Madel (2020) identified other variables with an inverse association of accuracy-driven practices that have the potential to disrupt the aforementioned cycle of pedagogical transference. This alternative cycle, referred to as the Disrupted Cycle of Pedagogical Transference (D-CPT) and seen in Figure 1, shares the initial three phases as previously mentioned but suggested a fourth phase during which pedagogical beliefs are challenged. In this phase, variables that associated with more communicative practices include second language acquisition research and/or materials based in such, membership in online professional learning networks and traditional in-person communities, formal world language-focused professional development, and a teacher’s overall sense of self-efficacy. These variables share a qualitative likeness characterized by the invaluable role of teacher leadership. To that end, Madel joined others (e.g., Swanson, 2010) to call for the development of structured relationships between novice educators in the field and experienced teacher leaders to further support their successful growth as communicative language teachers.

Figure 1
The disrupted cycle of pedagogical transference (D-CPT) (Madel, 2020)

**The Cyclical Nature of Language Pedagogy Development and Transference: The Disrupted Cycle**

**Phase 5**
Experiences as an educator (post-disruption)

**Phase 4**
Disruption of pedagogical beliefs

**Phase 3**
Experiences as an educator (pre-disruption)

**Phase 2**
Experiences as a learner of language methodology

**Phase 1**
Experiences as a learner

**PROJECT DEVELOPMENT**

As a result of the rationale outlined above, PSMLA approved the development of a peer mentoring program as part of the Mead Leadership Fellowship offered by the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (NECTFL). Consistent with the charter of the NECTFL Mead Leadership Fellows Program to support individuals in the development of a project that contributes to the world language teaching profession and advances quality language instruction, this proposed project sought to focus its support on both the profession
at large as well as on effective, research-based classroom practices. NECTFL’s support for this project was critical in that its network houses exemplary peer mentorship programs already in implementation and, as such, the organization was well suited to facilitate the proposed fact-finding process and program development stages described below. For example, Madel (2020) identified the Foreign Language Educators of New Jersey’s (FLENJ) model specifically as an exemplar for state organizations to promote more structured collaboration among world language educators. FLENJ described their opportunity as one that is “designed to support novice world language teachers over a three-year period and, in doing so, help develop leadership in New Jersey’s world language teaching community” (FLENJ, 2019, para. 1).

The project proposed an action plan to develop the program that consisted of three phases (see Table 2). Each year consisted of a specific phase of development that provided a sequential primary focus beginning with a research phase, followed by a program development phase, and ending with the program implementation phase. Each of these phases are described below.

Table 2
Action Plan Describing the Phases of Development to Design and Implement the PSMLA Peer Mentorship Program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Primary Focus</th>
<th>Steps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Research</td>
<td>Research and identify needs of novice world language teachers in Pennsylvania.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Develop interview and evaluation protocol for mentor programs currently implemented.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Contact associations and organizations to identify and evaluate successful elements of mentorship programs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>Program Development</td>
<td>Develop program proposal for PSMLA approval and identify supports needed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Present/propose program to PSMLA leadership.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Share research and program proposal at NECTFL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Develop research design/methodology to evaluate program efficacy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Identify/Recruit novice and experienced teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>Program Implementation</td>
<td>Collect baseline data from recruited teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Partner mentor/mentees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Organize orientation/induction event.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Facilitate mentorship communication and support.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Identify/Recruit novice and experienced teachers for new cohort.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Collect Year 1 data from participants to evaluate efficacy of intervention.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Phase 1: Research

During the first year of program development, informal research was conducted to understand the unique needs of novice world language educators in the state of Pennsylvania. In doing so, the author utilized his personal network to ensure that those most knowledgeable of the needs of novice language teachers had input in the process. Indeed, six university professors responsible for their respective institution’s world language-specific
credentialing program responded to the question: “From your experiences working with teacher candidates, what are the areas of greatest need for our newly credentialed language teachers?” The responses overwhelmingly echoed the need for additional support related to classroom and behavior management above all else.

In addition to researching the needs of novice world language teachers in the state of Pennsylvania, mentor programs that were already being implemented within the NECTFL region were reviewed and evaluated. In particular, peer mentor programs were identified as a part of the Connecticut Council of Language Teachers, the Foreign Language Association of Virginia, the New York State Association of Foreign Language Teachers, and—as previously mentioned—FLENJ. Reviewing publicly available information and speaking with knowledgeable representatives of the programs and associations revealed a variety of qualitative differences among the programs already implemented. For example, while most programs appeared to be one year in length, FLENJ’s peer mentoring fellowship seeks a three-year commitment. Other notable differences included frequency, modality (i.e., virtual, hybrid, or in-person), and content of mentor/mentee meetings. While some programs were geared toward informal networking, other programs established a protocol of logged exchanges between participants.

**Phase 2: Program Development**

After collecting information regarding the needs of novice world language educators with the insight provided by those who work most closely with teacher candidates in differing contexts throughout the state and also reviewing programs already in existence, an initial program draft was developed. The following describes the program’s expressed intentions by PSMLA (2022):

> The Pennsylvania State Modern Language Association (PSMLA) Peer Mentoring Program is designed to support novice world language teachers while simultaneously recognizing and further developing teacher leadership among experienced Pennsylvania world language educators. PSMLA members with fewer than three years of teaching experience are invited to apply to be mentees. Mentor applicants are also expected to be PSMLA members and should have at least eight years of experience teaching a world language. (para. 1)

Four goals were identified relative to the program’s impact on world language education in Pennsylvania:

1. Support novice world language teachers in the development of successful communicative language teaching practices;
2. Support teacher retention efforts;
3. Recognize and elevate the presence of world language teacher leaders;
4. Introduce novice world language teachers to PSMLA and encourage a continued relationship with the organization, its leadership, and professional learning community.

In developing specific aspects of the program, it was clear that key determinations needed to be made regarding (1) the length of participation for mentors/mentees, (2) the frequency and modality of interactions between participants, and (3) the support focus for mentees. These aspects and their rationale are described individually below.

**Length of participation**

While a three-year program like that of FLENJ would almost certainly produce tangible dividends for the participants, the organization determined that the length of commitment might appear too daunting to recruit new participants into a program that has not yet
established a reputation in the state. As a result, the intended length of commitment for both mentors and mentees was decided to only be one year. Recognizing the benefit of novice teachers having exposure to multiple experienced classroom practitioners, PSMLA also decided that mentees can be afforded the opportunity to re-apply for an additional year of involvement as a means of extending their participation and placement with an additional mentor.

**Frequency and modality of interactions**

Considering the relative short nature of a single year of participation, mentor/mentee pairs are expected to interact synchronously at least once a month. These interactions are logged and submitted for review in three distinct intervals during the year. Submitting evidence of mentor pairs’ interactions serves to ensure appropriate participation and also provide opportunities to offer additional support in accordance with the pair’s expressed concerns. While face-to-face interactions afford certain benefits to interpersonal relationships and exchanges, the vast size of Pennsylvania and the burden that would be placed on participants made requiring exclusive in-person interactions a challenge. States or organizations with a smaller geographic footprint would have more latitude in establishing expectations for in-person engagement. Instead, the singular in-person meeting would take place during the state’s annual conference held traditionally in the fall. It was determined that the mode of all other interactions could be coordinated between the mentor/mentee pairs at their discretion.

**Support focus for mentees**

The foundational focus of support for mentees concerns their pedagogical development as effective communicative language teachers. To provide focused but also varied support, the year-long mentorship program splits the experience into three distinct phases wherein each third has a specific practice-related emphasis for mentor/mentee pairs. Considering the unanimous feedback provided by the university leaders most experienced with world language teacher candidates, the first phase focuses on classroom management and routines in the target language. To begin each phase, the partners work together to establish a SMART goal and identify observable and measurable evidence of the mentee’s progress (see Brown, Leonard, & Arthur-Kelly, 2016). The acronymic goal setting template guides the pairs to develop specific, measurable, attainable, realistic, and time-bound objectives. Upon reflecting on the first phase’s goal, actions, and evidence toward the attainment of the goal, the second phase allows mentor/mentees to develop a subsequent goal that either continues the first phase goal or establishes a new goal relative to the personalized needs of the individual mentee.

The cycle continues once more: For the last third of the program experience, mentorship pairs develop a goal grounded in the work or experience of further professional learning. The Association determined particularly valuable considering the work by Madel (2020) that showed a relationship between engagement with world language-specific professional learning opportunities and/or second language acquisition research with an increased value for communicative language teaching practices. Mentorship pairs have the option to either attend a professional learning experience together and develop a goal related to the topic or they can ground their work in a publication that is provided to all participants that specifically connects second language acquisition research to classroom practices (Henshaw & Hawkins, 2022).

A complete month-by-month timeline of the year-long program as it was developed including the various program activities within each phase can be seen in Table 3.
Table 3  
**Timeline Describing the Chronology of the One-Year Peer Mentoring Program**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PHASE</th>
<th>MONTH</th>
<th>PROGRAM ACTIVITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Program Planning       | July  | • Mentor and mentee applications are reviewed  
|                        |       | • Mentor/Mentee pairs are created  
|                        |       | • Acceptance communications are distributed  
|                        |       | • Collect participant baseline data                                                                                                                                |
|                        | August| • Recognition letters sent to program members’ schools and supervisors  
|                        |       | • Virtual program kickoff meeting (late August)  
|                        |       | • Establish Phase 1 Goal                                                                                                                                     |
| PHASE 1 Focus: Classroom management and routines in the target language | September | • Mentor-mentee collaboration  
|                        |       | • Minimum 1 synchronous contact (virtual or in-person)  
|                        |       | • Continue Phase 1 Goal                                                                                                                                     |
|                        | October| • Mentor-mentee collaboration  
|                        |       | • Minimum 1 synchronous contact (virtual or in-person)  
|                        |       | • PSMLA Fall Conference  
|                        |       | • Special closed PSMLA Peer Mentoring Program session during Conference  
|                        |       | • Continue Phase 1 Goal                                                                                                                                     |
|                        | November| • Mentor-mentee collaboration  
|                        |       | • Minimum 1 synchronous contact (virtual or in-person)  
|                        |       | • Continue Phase 1 Goal  
|                        |       | • Submit contact log/Phase 1 Goal Reflection                                                                                                                 |
| PHASE 2 Focus: Progressive development related to individual needs of participants | December | • Mentor-mentee collaboration  
|                        |       | • Minimum 1 synchronous contact (virtual or in-person)  
|                        |       | • Establish Phase 2 Goal  
|                        |       | • Option 1: Progressive development of Phase 1 Goal  
|                        |       | • Option 2: Establish new goal target/focus                                                                                                                   |
|                        | January| • Mentor-mentee collaboration  
|                        |       | • Minimum 1 synchronous contact (virtual or in-person)  
|                        |       | • Continue Phase 2 Goal                                                                                                                                     |
|                        | February| • Mentor-mentee collaboration  
|                        |       | • Minimum 1 synchronous contact (virtual or in-person)  
|                        |       | • Virtual meeting to share expectations to ground Phase 3 Goal in professional learning or book study  
|                        |       | • Continue Phase 2 Goal  
|                        |       | • Submit contact log/Phase 2 Goal Reflection                                                                                                                   |
As noted in Table 2 above, the final steps of the program development stage were to establish specific criteria that could be used to evaluate the program’s effectiveness and engage in a messaging campaign to solicit participation in the program by the state association’s members. Research opportunities grounded in this experience are described in a subsequent section of this article.

**Phase 3: Program Implementation**

The final phase of the development process to establish the PSMLA Peer Mentorship Program is characterized in large part by putting into action the preceding plans and decisions. First, upon accepting participants into the program as mentors or mentees, baseline data are collected in order to establish the initial points of comparison to inform the program’s efficacy and its impact on individual participants. As shown in the chronology outlined in Table 3 above, mentor/mentee pairs are made before the traditional school year begins. As such, the end of August indicates the commencement of the year-long program with a virtual event to orient all members to the program’s goals and expectations and also provide an opportunity for mentor pairs to establish their first phase SMART goal. Throughout the year mentees develop personalized goals with the support of their mentors, record logs of monthly synchronous interactions, submit evidence of participation, and meet both in-person and virtually at various intervals. The program ends with a final program meeting, a collection of post-intervention data to explore the program’s effectiveness and suggest improvements before repeating the process and beginning the program anew.

**Evaluating the Efficacy of Pennsylvania’s Peer Mentoring Program**

As a result of well-documented evidence to support the value of peer mentorships in teacher development (e.g., Mason, 2017; Podolsky et al., 2016), there is a healthy amount of literature regarding general experiences pertaining to participation in peer mentoring programs. One study, in particular, aligns with the goals and context of PSMLA’s Peer Mentoring Program and can serve as a guide to evaluate its impact on the participants. Kissau and King (2015) investigated the perceived benefits of a newly initiated peer
mentoring project between 27 graduate student mentors and 27 mentees who were completing the final requirements of the participating institution's licensure program. Their study's research questions and data collection method that invited both qualitative and quantitative analysis would be well suited to be replicated in this new context. The questions they posed to investigate, while simple, were fundamental: (1) To what extent do mentees perceive the mentoring relationship to be beneficial? and (2) to what extent do mentors perceive the mentoring relationship to be beneficial? The results of the study suggested that a peer mentorship experience between world language teachers can be a mutually beneficial experience. The authors also provided aspects of the program that they believe facilitated the positive experience: a nonjudgmental, supportive, and collaborative partnership and biographic commonalities such as age and amount of previous teaching experience.

Further, to understand if a program such as PSMLA’s Peer Mentoring Program has an impact on teachers’ pedagogical development, a pre-test/post-test design can be utilized during the initial and final data collection opportunities described above. Madel’s (2020) construct to determine teacher’s overall value of explicit grammar instruction was proven to correlate strongly with a teacher’s perceived pedagogical focus between accuracy and communication ($r = .56$, $n = 597$, $p < .001$). The pre-test/post-test intervals can also be used to collect data regarding the program participants’ perceived likelihood to remain in the profession, thus informing the program’s efficacy related to teacher retention. To provide additional insight regarding a variable discussed in this paper, outcome means can be compared according to groups based on length of program participation (i.e., one year versus two years).

Involvement in the PSMLA Peer Mentoring Program also provides opportunities to qualitatively reflect on the goals that mentor and mentee pairs develop. This content analysis can provide insight on the perceived deficits of novice teachers and also determine worthwhile interventions as a result of the collaborative effort. Considering the work by Swanson (2010) that underscored the relationship between teacher attrition rates to the perceptions of low teacher self-efficacy, trends in pairs’ goal setting may suggest ways that teacher preparation programs and new teacher induction experiences can better anticipate the challenges that novice teachers may face.

**Conclusion**

This paper presented the state of language teaching in the United States and, specifically, Pennsylvania as it pertains to the need for a peer mentoring opportunity geared toward new and experienced world language educators. As a result, the PSMLA Peer Mentoring Program was developed as described above. The facets of its development were explained in detail so as to encourage other organizations to consider the implementation of like programs in an effort to support teachers entering the field and provide worthwhile leadership opportunities for educators that have amassed valuable classroom experience. Lastly, this article described opportunities for further research to evaluate the program and contribute to the discussion related to the value of the peer mentorship experience for both mentors and mentees alike, especially as it pertains to the context of world languages.

The development of the project detailed in this paper indicates certain immediate and tangible next steps for PSMLA. These tasks include a cycle of implementation and participant/organizer feedback to make adjustments and modifications to best meet the needs of the novice and experienced world language educators that contribute to the program. As substantial pre- and post-intervention data are collected, empirical results will be explored and shared with the field. Lastly, successful peer mentoring programs...
require a constant pool of participants to maximize its impact on the field and to reinforce a favorable reputation that, in turn, attracts future participants. Informational content about the program (e.g., Madel, 2022b) assists in raising awareness, but expanding the message to include perspectives from participants will help to further validate the experience. As such, the Association intends to elevate the program’s presence at community events, such as local workshops and conferences, and on member communication platforms, such as e-mail newsletters, social media, and other publications.

REFERENCES


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**Rich Madel** (Ed.D., Saint Joseph's University) is a distinguished teacher of Spanish and the Chairperson of the Department of World Languages in the Colonial School District in Plymouth Meeting, Pennsylvania. Rich was named the PSMLA Teacher of the Year in 2018 and NECTFL awarded him a Mead Fellowship in 2021. He is a regular contributor to the field's professional learning opportunities at state, regional, and national levels.
A return to local governance of world language teacher preparation is needed

Pete Swanson, United States Air Force Academy
Jean W. LeLoup, United States Air Force Academy

Abstract
Given the call by Krashen (2012) and others advocating for shorter, easier to digest research papers, we provide a shorter than usual summary of the World Language edTPA via empirical findings from the Stanford Center for Assessment, Learning, and Equity and researchers in the field. We argue in favor of abandoning the World Language edTPA for manifold reasons in favor of placing world language teacher preparation and subsequent teacher candidate recommendation for certification and licensure where it belongs—in the competent hands of the teacher educators who prepare these individuals.

Measurement of Teacher Effectiveness
Since the 1960s, teacher education has been both a political and social focus in the United States. Starting with the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA, United States, 1965) in 1965 (P. L. 89-10), federal legislation emphasized equal access to education while setting high standards for academic performance and demanding accountability from schools and districts within a framework of nine Title government programs (e. g., Title 9). ESEA has been reauthorized approximately every three to five years by each presidential administration, and the Obama administration’s reauthorization required states to measure beginning and veteran teacher effectiveness to receive full funding (United States Department of Education, 2009). During the Great Recession (2007-2009), states competed for federal education funding and developed legislation focused on pre-service teacher preparation and licensing / certification standards, underscoring teacher performance and effectiveness at the state level (e. g., Georgia Professional Standards Commission, 2014; Illinois State Board of Education, 2012). As part of the funding, states had to require the use of student learning as evidence in teacher evaluation practices (Darling-Hammond, 2012), such as the results of classroom practices having a direct impact on student learning (Goe et al. 2008). Such impact was made visible via teacher performance assessments.
Teacher performance assessments, such as edTPA, seek to evaluate teacher candidate knowledge, skills, and effectiveness in the classroom. These assessments can provide valuable information to a variety of educationalists such as the people who work directly with teacher candidates, entities like program directors and college of education leadership, and most importantly, to the teacher candidates themselves. With respect to World Languages (WLs), the WL edTPA was developed and has been used as one means to evaluate beginning teacher readiness by assessing three to five lessons created by the individual teacher candidate within three areas or tasks: Planning for Instruction and Assessment, Instructing and Engaging Students in Learning, and Assessing Student Learning. Typically, during their final semester in a teacher preparation program (Hildebrandt & Swanson, 2016), teacher candidates embark upon their student teaching residency. During this time, they teach classes and develop an edTPA portfolio. Adhering to strict submission guidelines and submission dates, teacher candidates submit their portfolios along with $300 to have it assessed.

Teacher candidate performance is evaluated via a digital portfolio that includes extensive written passages and videotaped teaching segments. That is, each teacher candidate, without any assistance from university faculty or their mentor teacher, must write a Context for Learning statement, 3-5 days of consecutive lesson plans (3-5 hours of connected instruction) for one class that include instructional materials, assessments, commentaries to explain and reflect on for each of the three tasks, learner work samples and reflections, and no more than 15 minutes of video (1-2 video unedited clips) in specified tasks (totaling no more than 15 minutes in length, but not less than 3 minutes) (Stanford Center for Assessment, Learning, and Equity, SCALE, 2019). There are strict font, margin, page length, and video format (e.g., mp4) requirements that teacher candidates must obey. For example, each lesson plan cannot exceed four pages, instructional materials cannot have more than five additional pages per lesson plan, and citations must be included for materials that the teacher candidate did not create (e.g., websites, materials from other educators).

Moreover, teacher candidates must obtain parental permission in order to film the learners in the classroom during instruction/assessment, which was highly problematic when schools were meeting in person (Hildebrandt & Swanson, 2016). Starting in 2020, with the Covid-19 pandemic and the plethora of modes of instruction in effect (e.g., in-person, online, hybrid classes), securing parental permission has been shown to be even more difficult than before (Journell, 2020). The portfolio must be submitted adhering to Pearson’s strict schedule. In addition, teacher candidates must submit their portfolio about half way through the semester so that if they do not pass, they have time to revise the portfolio and resubmit before the semester ends. If they do not pass by the time the semester ends, they must start over because the portfolio must be completed with the same group of students (Hildebrandt & Swanson, 2016).

The portfolio assessment process is facilitated by the “controversial British-owned testing and publishing conglomerate Pearson” (Journell, 2020, p. 1), where trained evaluators score teacher candidate performance in each of the three areas (discussed later) using 13 standardized rubrics with each rubric ranging from level 1, the lowest, to level 5, the highest. The WL edTPA is aligned with the World-Readiness Standards for Language Learning (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015) and the Common Core State Standards (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010). According to Pearson (n. d.), edTPA scorers must possess (1) expertise in the subject matter or developmental level of the teaching field (degree and/or professional
experience), (2) teaching experience in that field (or experience teaching methods courses or supervising student teachers in that field), and (3) experience mentoring or supervising beginning teachers, or administering programs that prepare them. Additionally, reviewers are expected to have worked with teacher candidates in the past five years as well as having National Board certification or a current teaching license in the content area in which they want to score edTPA portfolios. Furthermore, potential reviewers must complete 19-24 hours of online training, which includes scoring practice edTPA portfolios.

The Rapid Proliferation of edTPA

In 2013, New York and Washington became the first two states to require that teacher candidates for state teacher certification take and pass the edTPA (Meuwissen et al., 2016). Once those states officially began using edTPA for initial state certification, other states quickly followed. In 2014, edTPA was in various stages of implementation in 34 states and the District of Columbia (Hildebrandt & Swanson, 2019). Two years later in 2016, edTPA was in 668 Educator Preparation Programs in 36 states and the District of Columbia participating in edTPA (Hildebrandt & Swanson, 2016). In 2017, edTPA was used in 747 teacher education programs across 40 states and the District of Columbia (Swanson & Hildebrandt, 2017). In 2018, it was part of 789 educator preparation programs in 41 states and the District of Columbia (Hildebrandt & Swanson, 2019). At present, edTPA is in more than 976 Educator Preparation Programs in 41 states and the District of Columbia (American Association for Colleges of Teacher Education, 2021).

Investigating the Effectiveness of the WL edTPA

As its growth accelerated, researchers began to investigate the use of the WL edTPA. In an exploratory study, Hildebrandt and Swanson (2014) reported that teacher candidates in two large WL teacher preparation programs scored higher on Task 1 (Planning for Instruction and Assessment) and Task 2 (Instructing and Engaging Students in Learning) than on Task 3 (Assessing Student Learning). The findings suggested that WL teacher preparation programs needed to add more instructional time on assessment. Then, in an effort to understand more about the communicative nature of the WL edTPA portfolio, Swanson and Hildebrandt (2017) examined five of their high-scoring teacher candidates’ portfolios focusing on the communicative learning outcomes they developed for the portfolio with respect to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approaches. Results from the external reviewers suggested that the portfolios were “outstanding examples of high quality planning and highly effective teaching in the WL context” (p. 342). However, data analysis of the portfolios did not support such a conclusion.

In fact, nearly all of the “lesson plans in the dataset were not logically sequenced, and grammar lessons were inserted haphazardly with newly-learned structures not used for communicative purposes in subsequent activities” (Swanson & Hildebrandt, 2017, p. 342). It was common to find that the students of these teacher candidates were filling out worksheets that simply practiced grammatical forms in a decontextualized manner. Overall, data analysis revealed a frequent lack of adherence to CLT principles and misunderstandings of the three modes of communication. The researchers cited an example in which one teacher candidate had an activity where students developed a conversation, then read it aloud to the class, and had the activity categorized as interpersonal. However, the interpersonal mode is for activities that promote spontaneous communication as well as requiring negotiation of meaning. The presentational mode allows for such rehearsed language. While other discrepancies were reported, concerns about the external reviewers’ qualifications were
raised. Swanson and Hildebrandt (2017) noted that based on the incongruity between data analysis and the teacher candidates’ high scores, there are discrepancies between CLT practices taught in methods classes and what reviewers believe are effective practices. Results from the study, perhaps more importantly, call into question the high-stakes nature of the WL edTPA as a required assessment for teacher licensure in many states.

Over the years since edTPA’s inception for teacher certification (i.e. teacher candidates must pass edTPA for certification purposes), mean national composite scores for the WL edTPA have steadily decreased across the nation (SCALE, 2015, 2016a, 2017a) as shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Means and standard deviations for total WL edTPA scores for both national and program data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>National WL edTPA Total Score (N)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>7.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>572</td>
<td>37.24</td>
<td>7.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>655</td>
<td>35.94</td>
<td>6.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>747</td>
<td>35.62</td>
<td>5.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018</td>
<td>832</td>
<td>35.50</td>
<td>5.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2019</td>
<td>891</td>
<td>35.75</td>
<td>6.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, while the composite scores continued to drop, the number of WL edTPA submissions increased nationally from 416 in 2014 (SCALE, 2015) to 891 in 2019 (SCALE, 2021) as the mean scores dropped and plateaued at approximately 35. Meanwhile, the cut scores that reflect passing scores for individual states have continued to rise. Clearly, there is cause for concern when the national averages continue to fall and stagnate as the cut scores continue to rise. For example, in Tennessee, a state with policy in place mandating edTPA for purposes of teacher licensure, a cut score of 32 was required through 2018 and then increased to 33 in 2019, 35 in 2020 and 36 in 2021 (Tennessee State Board of Education, 2020).

While such findings are startling, scoring discrepancies have caused researchers to investigate the credentials of the external reviewers. As mentioned earlier, scorers must meet specific criteria in order to rate teacher candidate portfolios. Nevertheless, Pearson is not transparent about the demographics of the external reviewers, such as their qualifications, when they were certified to teach languages, whether or not they are fully credentialed educators in the field or did they test in to the subject area, their familiarity with CLT approaches, and their knowledge of the World-Readiness Standards for Language Learning, to mention a few. Hildebrandt and Swanson (2016) reported during informal interviews that external reviewers “were not required or asked to present a demonstration of their planning, instructional, or assessment abilities. They were not asked about their planning for instruction regimen, their ability to teach in the target language 90% of the time at all...
levels, or their knowledge of assessment in general or integrated performance assessments in particular” (p. 247). Those interviewed said that they were motivated to become external reviewers in order “to make a little extra spending money” (p. 247). As noted by Meuwissen and Choppin (2015), such an opaque rating process makes people uneasy.

Given the high-stakes nature of the WL edTPA with respect to the certification and licensure of teacher candidates in various states, research has shown that external reviewers rate teacher candidates’ abilities on Rubric 8 (Subject-Specific Pedagogy) the lowest of the 13 rubrics (Beheny, 2016; Hildebrandt & Swanson, 2014, 2016, 2019; Ruiz-Funes, 2016), which is corroborated by SCALE (2015, 2016b, 2017a). Such a finding suggests that reviewers may not be up-to-date on two of the five goal areas from the World-Readiness Standards for Language Learning, Comparisons and Cultures, when evaluating teacher candidate performance via one 15-minute, unedited video and one prompt of the written instructional commentary.

In order to work with SCALE on a revision of the WL edTPA, a task force sponsored by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages was created in 2015. The content experts had several conversations with members of SCALE regarding the WL edTPA and issues surrounding Rubric 8. Researchers presented data as well as the incongruity of the WL edTPA with CLT approaches and best practices in the field. Unfortunately, even after being “assured that the concerns expressed would be taken into consideration when revising the subsequent WL edTPA handbook” (Hildebrandt & Swanson, 2019, p. 28), meaningful changes to the WL edTPA never took place.

The lack of collaboration with researchers and teacher preparation program leaders continues to show a serious discrepancy in scoring with respect to the teacher shortage and diversity in the profession. In a study regarding the use of edTPA in general in Georgia, New York, Washington, and Wisconsin, Chang (2021) reported that edTPA is socially, economically and racially inequitable. Citing data from the four states, edTPA reduced new teacher hires by a magnitude between 21.6% and 58.6%, reduced black representation among new hires, mainly in Georgia, reduced the number of graduates majoring in education by 17.8%, and reduced black representation among new teacher graduates in more selective teacher preparation programs. Additionally, Chang reported that edTPA reduced students’ reading and mathematics scores for 4th grade students, it had a negative impact on higher-achieving students, and it lacked significant impacts on the test scores of 8th grade students.

With respect to WLs, Russell and Davidson Devall (2016) reported that the nonnative English speakers in their study had the two lowest composite scores on the assessment, suggesting a bias against those whose first language is not English due to the academic writing that is required. Jourdain (2018) reported similar findings showing that “native/heritage Spanish speakers were less likely to receive a passing score than the portfolios of native English speakers preparing to become Spanish teachers” (p. 97). Unfortunately, such reports are not unique to the WL edTPA as the 2016 edTPA report (SCALE, 2016b) showed that nonnative English speakers performed significantly lower than native English speakers across 29 different disciplines.

Overall, researchers have reported that edTPA deprofessionalizes teacher and teacher education through the encroachment of corporations like Pearson into educational decision-making (Dover et al., 2015; Madeloni & Gorlewski, 2013). Additionally, others have found that edTPA depersonalizes teaching and teacher education as it diminishes local control of teacher preparation (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013) and teacher candidates’ attention to diversity as they prepare their edTPA portfolios (Au, 2013). Finally, edTPA’s $300 price tag has been a concern (e. g. Hildebrandt & Swanson, 2016) as more than 40,000
teacher candidates submitted portfolios were expected for official scoring in 2017 (SCALE, 2016a), which created a revenue stream that year of $12 million for SCALE and Pearson on the backs of teachers.

**Removing edTPA from Teacher Preparation**

Since its rollout in 2013-14 after two years of pilot testing, as discussed earlier, edTPA proliferated quickly. As it grew in prominence, state leaders who were eager to adopt it as a means to measure teacher effectiveness began to listen to those in the field. Controversy swirled as researchers and others noted that edTPA policy has caused colleges of education to alter their curricula for assessment compliance (Downey, 2020). Rather than supporting the development of WL expertise or fostering creative approaches to proficiency-oriented classrooms, it puts preservice teachers in an unpleasant position of relying on others outside the teacher preparation program (e.g., cooperating teachers, school districts) to secure their certification (Journell, 2020). While others have reported edTPA’s negative effect on the teacher supply (Chang, 2021; Swanson & Hildebrandt, 2016; Swanson & LeLoup, 2021), research continually shows that edTPA remains a serious barrier to entry to the profession due to the cost (Swanson & Hildebrandt, 2016; Takahama, 2021) while being socially, economically, and racially inequitable (Takahama, 2021). For the aforementioned reasons, and perhaps others, states previously requiring edTPA have begun to reconsider if edTPA should be a state requirement for certification and licensure.

In 2020, Georgia’s Professional Standards Commission decided to eliminate the edTPA requirement for teacher candidates. Citing that “critics have long worried that it has forced colleges of education to teach to the test and has pushed aspiring teachers—especially those from marginalized backgrounds—out of the profession” (Will, 2020, p. 1), as well as other factors such as a bias against diversity of teacher candidates, the PSC unanimously voted to remove the statewide edTPA requirement even though individual programs could still have candidates take the edTPA for programmatic purposes. A year later in Washington state, state legislators proposed House Bill 1028 that would remove that state standard requiring teaching candidates to pass edTPA (House Bill 1028, 2021). Citing similar issues to those in Georgia and in other states, lawmakers noted that many students in the state were not able to take or pass the test this past year largely due to a key part of edTPA requiring students to film themselves teaching in a classroom, which was hijacked during the COVID-19 lockdown. An amendment to the bill proposed temporarily lifting the edTPA until fall 2022 when schools would most likely open for traditional instruction. However, lawmakers voted against the amendment and in favor of eliminating edTPA as a requirement for certification. Several months ago, state education officials in New York recently proposed to remove edTPA and seek instead “to require teacher preparation programs to come up with a replacement” (Amin, 2021). New York officials stated that edTPA is a “barrier to diversifying the teaching workforce and is exacerbating teacher shortages” (p. 1). Amin noted that “Black test takers were nearly twice as likely to fail the edTPA compared to their white or Hispanic peers (p. 1).

**Out with the Old and In with a More Effective Tool**

As concerned citizens for the education of America’s youth and parents, we are in favor of teacher accountability. However, with respect to our field, the WL edTPA has serious issues, and it has become apparent that SCALE is not interested in listening to experts in the field to revise the assessment in a serious manner. edTPA covers several dozen content areas measuring beginning teacher performance and is present in 976 educator preparation programs nationally
A RETURN TO LOCAL GOVERNANCE OF WORLD LANGUAGE TEACHER PREPARATION IS NEEDED

because local control over beginning teacher assessment became outsourced to corporations like Pearson (Au, 2013; Cochran-Smith et al., 2013; Dover et al., 2015; Winerip, 2012). Based on research findings and conversations with SCALE, it has become apparent that edTPA was “designed to answer questions posed by corporate education reformers instead of the questions of teacher educators” (Madeloni & Gorlewski, 2013, para. 16). Without a doubt, the testing industrial complex promotes “excessive high-stakes testing, false political narratives about improving education, and the transfer of curricular and financial governance from individual to local, local to state, and state to national/private entities” (Croft et al., 2013, p. 72).

Officials in several states have now realized that edTPA is not an answer to beginning teacher evaluation. Instead, states like New York and Georgia are returning to local control over new teacher preparation and assessment. Before the implementation of the WL edTPA, many, if not all teacher education programs, had developed Teacher Work Samples that were used to evaluate teacher candidate performance during the student teaching semester. The work samples were very similar to what the WL edTPA required yet were more informative. Teacher candidates had to develop lesson plans and assessments for an entire unit of study for the classes they taught, evaluate the effectiveness of their instruction by examining student data from assignments and assessments, and examine videotape recordings of the teacher candidate teaching entire lessons.

Teacher candidates kept a journal and were required to meet with their university supervisor at least four times throughout the semester, although usually they met more frequently. The teacher candidates developed a substantial portfolio without page limits or video length requirements under the mentorship of highly trained content experts. University supervisors utilized carefully constructed rubrics that were aligned with state and national standards as well as CLT approaches to measure the effectiveness of the teacher candidates. Unlike data from SCALE regarding the passing scores on the WL edTPA, university faculty were able to predict the relative prowess of each teacher candidate by examining the score on the work sample.

The following problems with the WL edTPA plague WL teacher preparation:

- edTPA’s $300 cost to have a portfolio reviewed;
- the documented issues relating to diversity (Chang, 2021) and opportunity to enter the teaching ranks;
- the lack of mentorship throughout the development of the teacher candidates’ portfolio of teaching excellence and the development of becoming a highly effective teacher;
- the mixed results between edTPA scores and improved student learning (Goldhaber et al., 2017);
- the deprofessionalization and depersonalization of teachers and teacher education (Dover et al., 2015);
- the lack of respect for local control of teacher preparation;
- and the lack of transparency about portfolio reviewer qualifications (Swanson & Hildebrandt, 2017).

As a remedy, we call for a return to local control of WL teacher education.

As noted by Hlas (University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire), edTPAs adoption by so many states assumed that our current system was not working and the “solution to this problem is to outsource the teacher licensing process to a for-profit company” (Hildebrandt & Swanson, 2016, p. 179). She further noted that the rigid common architecture for edTPA emanated from mathematics and was not well vetted as an instrument to measure world language
teacher effectiveness. Clearly, outsourcing teacher education to for-profit corporations is a bad idea. An equally poor decision was to allow a teacher candidate’s success to hinge on 3-5 days of instruction highlighting 15 minutes of video demonstrating one’s effectiveness that is evaluated by reviewers with unknown, up-to-date content expertise.

Teaching is a highly complicated, complex endeavor, and we believe the people who articulate the policies that govern teacher preparation have good intentions. However, as noted by Cochran-Smith (2003), “policies intended to improve teaching quality can only be as good as the underlying conceptions of teaching, learning, and schooling on which they are based” (p. 3). It is evident that many current policies and policy recommendations have been found to share narrow and impoverished notions of teaching and learning that fail to account for educational complexities (Cochran-Smith, 2001, 2003; Earley, 2000; Engel, 2000) as well as the expertise of the individuals entrusted with teacher preparation.

As former high school Spanish teachers who entered higher education to prepare the next generation of WL teachers after several decades of recognized, highly effective language teaching in the classroom, we believe in local control of teacher preparation (i.e., the experts coordinating WL teacher preparation programs). Our colleagues are content experts who are highly skilled teacher educators and outstanding models and mentors for the teacher candidates in their programs. These individuals are knowledgeable, competent, and proficient instructors who take pride and a substantial amount of individualized time to prepare highly effective WL teachers. They should be the ones informing the state certification boards that these individuals are ready to join the teaching profession.

**References**


A RETURN TO LOCAL GOVERNANCE OF WORLD LANGUAGE TEACHER PREPARATION IS NEEDED


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The Language Classroom

Articles focusing on research-based teaching and learning in world language education
On the following pages, we are delighted to launch a new section of *The NECTFL Review* – **The Language Classroom** – which focuses on classroom-based applications of research in world language education. This new section would never have come into being without the leadership and foresight of NECTFL’s Publications Committee, chaired by Cynthia Chalupa, and with myself, Xiaoyan Hu, and Erin Papa as committee members, as well as significant input and thought from then-NECTFL Chair and now NECTFL Executive Director, Christopher Gwin. As the editor of this new section of *The NECTFL Review*, I need to also particularly thank our editor Bob Terry, whose mentorship and guidance have been invaluable as I stepped into this role.

**The Language Classroom** articles are intended to be anchored in a solid research base, while focusing on practical, in-class applications of research and student experiences. What a joy to launch this new section with six articles that so strongly exemplify this intent.

Beckie Bray Rankin and Ryan Casey’s article, *Goals, Growth, and Grades: Student Ownership of Learning Through Reflection*, demonstrates a clear model for regularly engaging learners in a cycle of goal-setting and reflection, building learner metacognition, and leading to increased performance on the path to proficiency.

Mira Angrist’s article, *Language for All: Teaching Graffiti for Intercultural Literacy*, explores the concept of “linguistic landscape” where learners investigate authentic language in the medium of graffiti to expand multicultural awareness, build critical thinking skills, and examine the intercultural realities of a multilingual society. Using Israel as the target culture, she provides clear examples that can be replicated in any language classroom.

Theresa Schenker and Angelika Kraemer’s article, *Digital Escape Rooms for World Languages*, integrates technology to create an authentic but gamified approach that engages learners in the target language and culture. As students work collaboratively to demonstrate their knowledge of German culture, they experience increased motivation and excitement while using the target language.

Chiara Trebiocchi’s article, *Re-thinking the Italian Curriculum: Sustainability in the Italian Classroom and Beyond*, pushes us to reevaluate the premise of much of our curriculum, shifting our focus to issues of environmental sustainability and justice. She shares the overview of an entire 4th semester Italian course that has been redesigned and provides a model for teachers of any language who are looking to make similar changes to their curriculum.

Samantha Fowler’s article, *Motivating Speaking in the World Language Classroom and Beyond*, provides a thorough literature review of research into student motivation in world languages, and makes explicit connections to classroom practices that boost motivation.
Finally, Maureen Lamb and Michael Orlando’s article, *The Power to Choose: Engaging Students and Assessing Proficiency*, presents a “Modified Integrated Performance Assessment (IPA) Choice Board” that builds differentiated instruction into assessment using the IPA as its foundation. A model is provided that can easily be replicated, and can serve different learning modalities, from remote to hybrid to in-person instruction.

Each article in *The Language Classroom* undergoes a double-blind review process, and we are indebted to the reviewers of the above articles for their careful consideration and detailed feedback, an invaluable service to the authors and to *The NECTFL Review*.

We hope you enjoy the articles in *The Language Classroom*!
Happy reading!

*Catherine Ritz*
*Editor, The Language Classroom*

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**Reviewers —*The Language Classroom***

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

- **Vilma Nasuti Bibeau**
  Medford Public Schools (MA)

- **Rebecca Blouwolff**
  Wellesley Public Schools (MA)

- **Christopher Gwin**
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Goals, growth, and grades: Student ownership of learning through reflection

Beckie Bray Rankin, Lexington High School (MA)
Ryan Casey, Lexington High School (MA)

Abstract

As students feel empowered to select their own goals, they forge their own journeys to success. A culturally sustaining tool, student reflection is an informative practice for self-paced growth in language learning and beyond. A French and a Spanish teacher share their protocols to bring goal-setting into any classroom, along with the research and results from their own experience.

Keywords: assessment & feedback, planning & program design, student experiences

Introduction

A hot topic on Teacher Twitter is how to approach participation grades, often a nebulous or subjective area. What is included in participation can range from oral participation quantity and quality to body language and note-taking. While the debate of how to grade participation dates far before social media, online discussion has offered space to air multiple perspectives. In a tweet, Erica Fischer (2011) asked, “So having a participation grade motivates students to participate?” If a participation grade is tied to a specific set of practices such as daily oral responses, novel and complete sentences, eye contact, or group discussions, participation becomes a grade for compliance rather than a reward for students’ practicing speaking. And some students would prefer a lower grade over the social anxiety of not giving a grammatically correct, content-perfect answer. Just this past February on Twitter, Julie Matthew (2022) added an equity lens: “I don’t grade participation…since each kid brings [with] them their own needs, identity, & emotions that I work to take into consideration when thinking about what being engaged is for that kid.” If language teachers are looking to grade for equity, a standard of participation may be inaccessible for some students based on their learning style, cultural background, knowledge and skills, or current mindset.

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September 2022
To offer students the opportunity to define for themselves what “successful participation” looks like and to eradicate the compliance-driven participation score, two world language teachers from Lexington High School implemented a growth-based portion of the grade through goal-setting. Drucker’s (1954) Management by Objectives and Locke’s (1968) Theory of Task Motivation and Incentives remind us that challenging and specific goals, focused feedback, and planning are three main indicators of high performance. This work influenced Doran’s (1981) acronym SMART to focus on the attributes of the goal: specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, time bound. With this research in mind, we support students in writing their goals and focusing on what matters in our classrooms via two goals per quarter: a personal goal and a language goal. Now in our third year of quarterly goal-setting with students, we see this not only positively impacting learners’ academic and language performance, but also increasing their efficacy in creating and working towards other life goals.

Below we share with you the steps we take in our quarterly growth protocol.

1. Share with students the purpose behind and process for goal setting and growth-based grading. We recommend using multiple input and output options to be inclusive of various learning and expressing styles (instructional video, instruction sheet, journal template, PowerPoint template) and copious examples for each goal at the beginning of the year that reflect the school and course goals.

In adopting a proficiency-based curriculum, we also solidified growth-based attitudes toward student learning: in particular, using Can-Do Statements to focus on what students can do with the language. As the teacher mindset shifts from deficit to abilities, we must coach students to likewise value their progress along the path to proficiency rather than how many points away from an A their quarterly grade is. When we analyzed how a classroom participation grade fit into our courses, we realized that we were only valuing progress in the “communication” goal area of the World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015), as we were primarily assessing students’ oral communication in our classrooms. While participation grades have historically been correlated to interpersonal speaking during class, we wanted to expand our practice to mirror the type of participation we want for our students in the global community.

For this reason, we ask students to write both a personal goal and a language goal. The former is connected to our school’s grade-level goals (such as appropriate communication, healthy risk-taking, and personal goal-setting) for under- and upperclassmen. Other schools may have a similar document, such as a vision of the graduate, that can serve as a springboard for this work. Oftentimes, students’ personal goals end up having a positive effect on their language study. For example, we had a student facing a long recovery from a surgery who set the goal of balancing health and academics and, in working towards this goal, improved her listening skills through copious amounts of French television shows. The latter, inspired by the “communication” and “cultures” goal areas, is tied to a specific way in which students want to improve their understanding of the target language and cultures. This represents the more classic participation grade yet is specifically tailored to where the student needs to grow from complexity of thought to pronunciation. Our hope is not only to show students that we value their growth both in and out of our classroom as both language learners and young adults, but also to demonstrate our belief that being a successful language student and a successful global citizen are intertwined. For the purposes of this article, we will focus on the specifics of how students write, measure, and reflect upon their language goal.

When introducing our growth grading system to students, we tell them that, in lieu of a participation grade, which can favor students who are extroverted or quick to
respond or who come from a cultural background that values speaking up, we want to co-construct individualized goals for their growth as classroom citizens. We discuss how this practice honors progress over perfection and is inclusive of everyone in the class.

In order to do this, at the beginning of each quarter, students reflect on their strengths and areas for growth, keeping in mind the course level and overall course goals, which are listed on our syllabi. Students then select an area for linguistic growth and draft a goal for the quarter, specifying what they would like to improve upon, how they will know if they have reached the goal, and what evidence they will be able to provide. Students submit their drafts in Google Classroom, and we either approve it or suggest revisions along with a due date for final drafts. Figure 1 is a screenshot of the portion of the Google Form where they decide on their Language Goal.

**Figure 1**
*Language Goal Google Form*

What domain would you like to work on this quarter?
It's best to have a different domain each quarter if possible.

- [ ] Speaking
- [ ] Listening
- [ ] Reading
- [ ] Writing
- [ ] Autre :

What is your language skill baseline? From where do you need to grow?

Votre réponse

How do you want to grow this language skill this quarter?
This is your actual goal. Find something that is meaningful, doable in a quarter, and will show progress in your French language competencies.

Votre réponse

What 2 pieces of evidence are you thinking about for your language goal?
Think about where you are now, what activities you will engage in, and how that will prove that your goal is met. Remember that you need 2-4 pieces of evidence.

Votre réponse
For example, an Advanced Placement (AP) Spanish student who wanted to improve his interpretive reading skills proposed that he would read one short story per week from a book called Cuentos en español. He committed to submitting as evidence a list of vocabulary he had culled from these stories, as well as a written reflection on how he felt his reading comprehension had improved and what connections he saw between the stories and the course curriculum. This goal was approved. Another student in the same course stated that she wanted to incorporate subjunctive structures more regularly and fluidly into her oral contributions. The teacher’s feedback guided her to clarify if there were specific structures she wanted to focus on and what kind of system she had in mind for tracking her progress.

2. Give feedback on goals, highlighting that their goal should be achievable within the quarter. To help narrow the scope of the goal, we recommend dialoguing about what evidence students plan to use. We ask students to avoid unmeasurable words like “be comfortable with” so that the end result is tangible.

High school students have not had copious practice in setting specific, measurable, and achievable goals. “I want to speak more fluently” or “I want to get an A on the next paper” or “I want to be more comfortable with past tenses” are just as prevalent in the first drafts as goals students cut and paste from our list of suggestions. We recommend that students use our model goals during the first quarter, then we refer back to that list as students use more creativity in future quarters. Using a model goal that is measurable and achievable moves our high flying students from “I will speak like a native” to “I will identify which consonants are pronounced in each word I say.”

Another tool that helps students narrow their goal into something achievable is the evidence they will use to measure progress. For example, a French IIH student wrote that he will “be comfortable with” speaking in class, citing evidence of raising his hand right after a question is asked, rather than waiting. Accordingly, we were able to rewrite his goal to include an increase in risky participation as a way to measure his growth, rather than relying on a self-reflection about comfort level. Sometimes the evidence is quite clear: for example, a student who chose improving their spoken language skills by identifying and pronouncing nasalized vowels could offer a practice recording of themself reading a text aloud, an annotated version of the text to point out which vowels are nasalized, and a final recording to show growth. Once students identify the evidence, they can reign in their goal to something manageable within the time frame of a marking period.

A French 4 Honors student wrote a grade-based goal for her next writing assignment. We do not accept goals based on grades, so we looked at her last rubric together to see what writing areas needed improvement. She had met expectations in each area except “connected sentences,” so we wrote a goal that included using a variety of transition words, connection between thoughts, and paragraph structure. Unsure of a second piece of evidence, she decided to create a Quizlet (quizlet.com) to help her memorize transition words along with a graphic organizer for her essay. Her reflection included how these tools helped her grow towards her goal.

3. Check in with students throughout the quarter. We recommend having a midpoint date by which students have included one piece of evidence or a self-evaluation example to give the baseline before growth.

Whereas a traditional participation grade may not be considered until the end of a grading period is approaching or has passed, a goal-setting approach works best when students are given frequent reminders or checkpoints. Without this guidance, many students will
for students to keep up with their goals. For students who are prepared with their evidence, class time can be used to gather evidence and write a reflection on how it brought them closer to their goal. Other students may need to create or find tasks that they can complete during class time. Particularly during the first quarter, it is helpful to offer feedback on the evidence and reflection to set the expectation for future quarters.

Students accustomed to compliance systems may struggle initially with the growth mindset necessary to persevere through the obstacles that stand between them and their goal. Similarly and oppositely, some students are unable to give up on a goal that is no longer attainable based on circumstances outside their control. Checking in with learners can significantly reduce stress as you tweak the goal together. For example, a Spanish II student was worried about her goal toward increasing her target language use in class. She had identified a variety of strategies, but struggled to remember to use them and felt that her extroverted, talkative nature was impeding her own progress. It was helpful for the teacher to connect with this student at the end of each class, or via email, to let her know what he had observed and to offer one specific strategy she could focus on as she worked to understand that she could still chat with her classmates, but not always in English.

4. Collect and review evidence and reflection. We recommend that this be done as a dialogue first quarter so students are clear on the expectations.

For logistics, we have attempted to collect goals, evidence, and reflection in a few ways. Our learning platform is Google Classroom, so we post a document that explains the process, a Google Slides for visual students to use as a template, and a Google Doc for students to fill out each quarter. In the first week, students fill out the goals section with a first due date and completion grade, then by the end of the quarter, the entire document is submitted and graded against the rubric. While this is effective for managing progress and comments each quarter, there is a disconnect between goals each quarter as the documents are stored in different posts. Figure 2 provides a screenshot from the google form mail merge, which takes the students’ answers from the Google Form, fills them into a template, and emails the students with the template.

**Figure 2**
*Screenshot of Google Form Mail Merge*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Evidence / Examples / Reflection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Personal Goal: <<grow as a student and human>> | <<What 2 pieces of evidence are you thinking about for your personal goal?>>
| Reflection: |
| Language Goal: <<How do you want to grow this language skill this quarter?>> | <<What 2 pieces of evidence are you thinking about for your language goal?>>
| Reflection: |
| Community Citizenship | <<Which value will you work on most this quarter?>> REFLECTION:
| <<Which value will you work on a bit this quarter?>> REFLECTION:
| (level up reflection: <<If you are looking to exceed expectations, what is your third value?>>> |
Evaluating students’ growth with a grade can feel as nebulous as the original Participation Grade that started this journey. First, we are clear with students that the grade is not a reflection of if they completed their goal but of the journey that they took to get there. To “Meet Expectations” (85% or B), students must give two pieces of evidence per goal along with their goal reflection. “Meeting Expectations” looks like students taking consistent steps towards that goal, but does not require success. Typically, students who meet expectations grow in their goal during class periods. To level up to “Exceeding Expectations” (95% or A), students are working both inside and outside of class to make progress. Their evidence is more specific, and multiple pieces of evidence show growth over time. The reflection is deeper and shows signs of lifelong learning. Students who do not meet expectations tend to be lacking in robust evidence and depth of reflection. Time for feedback at the end of the quarter is short so the quantity of feedback is directly tied to preparing students for the following quarter’s goals. Google Classroom’s bank of comments can be helpful in targeting some common issues.

A Third Dimension

As COVID turned us virtual and hybrid for various parts of our years of experimenting with this reflective goal-setting practice, we have included a third section to our growth goals, which is their contribution to our community. Several members of our department collaborated on a Community Citizenship self-evaluation that includes statements such as “I seek opportunities to engage with the Target Language, Target Culture, and/or Target Communities outside of class” and “I respect others through empathy, curiosity, and an openness to learn from them” (see Figure 3). From risk-taking to honest work and from preparation to contribution, we ask students to be active members of our community as we prepare them to be active global citizens. Both at the mid-point check-in and at the end of the quarter, we ask students to reflect on how they have modeled these pillars of our community and how they will increase their engaged citizenship. These indicators are also noted in our grading criteria as we ask our students to expand from their own engagement and participation in our class to including and supporting others, as well.

Figure 3
One version of our Community Citizenship Indicators
Lessons Learned by Students & Teachers

The adage that the journey is more important than the destination has kept our grading focus on students’ process and growth, and the impact that their goals have on them as students and as people, rather than whether they achieved the goal or not. That being said, our students never cease to inspire us. Here are some of their reflections:

• AP Spanish, Senior, Language Goal Reflection: “In larger groups (of three or four), I think I have been successful in my goal of using the subjunctive once a week. Especially on discussion days, I have tried to incorporate subjunctive at least once into my speech. However, it is still difficult for me to do that fluidly. I often have to put conscious thought into using subjunctive and it doesn’t usually come out naturally. I am going to continue working on this.”

• French IIIH, sophomore, Personal Goal Reflection: “The obvious standard for success according to the education system, and the culture at LHS, is an A--or an A+ if possible. This is one way to measure success, but I think the fact that it compressed several dimensions of work into one letter cultivates hyperfixation on certain aspects of learning and constantly comparing oneself to others. This quarter I tried to use the feedback other than letter grades to assess my success. I think this goal was the hardest of any I picked this year, and I also don’t think that I fully met it. There were rough moments where I continued to feel any of my work was pointless because I got what I’ve been told to consider as a bad grade, even when trying to remind myself there are other measures of success. However, I think even trying to work on this goal was a good thing for me because it forced me to start thinking ‘if grades don’t define me, what does?’”

We have also learned throughout the process what we value and how to best support students in their paths towards their values. Our most important lesson learned is to offer support in writing measurable, attainable goals, because this process is easier when students can reference mentor texts and other resources, such as ACTFL’s (2012) Performance Descriptors for Language Learners or course-specific goals and rubrics, to guide their thinking. We would also note that, as part of the planning process, scheduled class time for students to check in with teachers and to reflect on their progress and gather evidence is essential to ensure that students make progress.

As we continue implementing this element of our grades, we acknowledge that more work is needed for student buy-in. Although our students understand our reasoning for eschewing a “participation” grade—which often prioritizes behavioral compliance or oral contributions—they are often so accustomed to receiving this kind of grade that they may forget to work toward their goal, invent some of their evidence, or write goals they don’t care about just to comply with the assignment. In addition, we recognize that it is difficult to attach a grade to what is principally a qualitative process, and that some educators may have a hard time envisioning how a growth grade could work within the confines of their department or school grading system.

However, students who faithfully complete the exercise have shared with us how it has impacted them as language students and lifelong learners. One sophomore commented: “Looking all the way back to the very first interpretive reading practice we worked on in class, I saw an even bigger difference in my comprehension and my confidence in my reading and answers. I felt successful because I had concrete evidence that I had learned something from my studying and my past mistakes.” Likewise, a graduating senior wrote: “You gave me the suggestion that I could make my project more engaging by adding some food...
for thought for the audience or even a deep question. I realized that I could implement this skill into presentations for other classes. I did just that for my recent English final presentation and I plan to do this in college and in the future whenever I’m presenting. Thank you!”

When we posted our initial documents on Twitter for feedback from the language teacher community, we were met with some praise and some skepticism. Megan Budke (2019) asked, “What if [students] were just graded on the standards & still completed this growth & reflection work each quarter? [Because] in the end, this work will ultimately benefit their academic performance.” So while our journey towards defining participation in an equitable, differentiated manner has supported students in their personal, classroom, and language journeys, we are still engaging in the conversation of what grades stand for. One camp, related to student motivation, suggests that we should grade what we value, whereas another large camp espouses that proficiency levels are grades. Whether this activity replaces a traditional participation grade or just offers a reflective activity for students on their path to proficiency, we find that it supports students to think more globally about their learning and participation in today’s world.

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Language for all: Teaching graffiti for intercultural literacy

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Abstract

This article describes how to help students connect what they learn in the language classroom to the outside world as they learn to understand, produce, and analyze spoken, written, visual, and cultural information in their second language (L2). As learners make connections between course material and the physical and virtual spaces where the L2 is used, they are introduced to the concept of “linguistic landscape” (LL), which refers to language on signs, advertisements, in graffiti, and other public venues. The examples come from a Hebrew class, where students gain deeper understanding of diverse intercultural realities in Israel and are prepared to function in authentic communicative situations. Colleagues in other languages could also use LL as a basis to explore intercultural realities of any multilingual space—from Berlin to Québec or in students’ own environments.

Keywords: classroom instruction, curriculum design, planning & program design

Introduction

As a language instructor at a large urban university, the author strives to make instructional content relevant to their students’ lives and hope they connect what they learn in the classroom to the outside world and can understand, produce, and analyze spoken, written, visual, and cultural information in their second language (L2). The course described here is based on the communicative approach, the use of authentic material, scaffolding, and inclusive pedagogy. Students are encouraged to make connections between course material and the physical and virtual spaces where the L2 is used and are therefore introduced to the concept of “linguistic landscape.” The term “linguistic landscape” (LL) was first used by Landry and Bourhis in a paper published in 1997, when they defined it as the “visibility and salience of languages on public and commercial signs in a given territory or region” (p. 24).

While the examples in this article come from a Hebrew class, where students gain deeper understanding of diverse intercultural realities in Israel and are prepared to function...
in authentic communicative situations, colleagues in other languages could also use LL as a basis to explore, for example, intercultural realities of any multilingual space, from Berlin to Québec, or in students’ own environments.

**What is a Linguistic Landscape?**

Bringing LL—which is made up of road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, shop signs, graffiti, and official government signs—into the classroom raises students’ awareness of where and how language occurs, in which cultural spaces, and what it means. Shohamy (2012) describes LL as a symbolic construction of public space that is an outcome of power struggles over space, ownership, policy, legitimacy, and ideology.

In Israel, for example, when Hebrew, Arabic, and English are placed together on signs, buildings or within graffiti, Hebrew is always placed on top, even in predominantly Arabic spaces, whereas English has a solid presence in both Jewish and Arabic locales (Ben-Rafeal, Shohamy, Amara, & Trumper-Hecht, 2006). While LL in the context of monuments, road signs, and buildings indicates one form of cultural belonging and collective identity from a top-down perspective (public signs created by the state and local government bodies), multiple other languages, signs, and images permeating this same landscape also influence peoples’ perceptions of the status of languages and social behaviors, and often encompasses bottom-up perspectives (Cenoz & Gorter, 2006). Since graffiti disrupts the official discourse through dissent within a LL, LL-based assignments help foster students’ development of multiple literacies, their abilities to read and discuss how linguistic, cultural, and social meanings are constituted in multiple modes through public uses of imagery and language.

**Integrating Graffiti into an Advanced Language Class**

Cenoz and Gorter (2008) state that public displays of language are authentic source material for language learners that could aid the development of pragmatic competence and literacy skills. In a third-year content-based course, *Voices in Israeli Society*, students analyze multilingual signs for purposes of language practice and to introduce them to diverse groups in Israeli society such as Orthodox, secular, immigrants, Mizrahi and Ashkenazi Jews, Arab-Israelis, and more. Through reading newspaper articles, short stories, poems, and watching interviews, documentaries, and movies by prominent authors, poets, artists, political, and cultural leaders, students develop their interpretive, written, and oral skills while acquiring fundamental knowledge about ethnic, religious, cultural, and social diversity in Israel. Using the course management system (Blackboard) students collaborate with each other as they discuss the material and then upload recorded videos to GoReact (2011), an interactive cloud-based platform for feedback and grading students’ video assignments. They also annotate texts through the interactive Perusall (2015) annotation software and receive feedback from the instructor and their peers.

**Why Take This Step?**

Adding a multi-day visual literacy component to the course through Israeli LL greatly expands students’ multicultural awareness and critical thinking abilities. This set of activities enables students to engage with arts and other creative products from Israeli culture and communicate with one another in presentational, interpretive, and interpersonal modes. It also appeals to different learning styles and proficiency levels, expands language pragmatics, and reinforces the 5 Cs of the World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages: Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015). Students use LL to interpret, interact with each other, present their opinions, develop their abilities to make observations and analyze
practices and perspectives, compare the LL in their own communities, and make connections between language and other disciplines. In addition, the NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements (ACTFL, 2017) help determine how students can “use the language to investigate, explain, and reflect on the relationship between the practices or products and perspectives of cultures.”

The unit is first introduced through an asynchronous pre-theme awareness-raising activity on a Padlet (2012) site, a collaborative digital board. Students are asked to upload images of Hebrew graffiti from the Internet or from their own travels to Israel. They use a set of questions that draw their attention to language and cultural patterns and write their responses (Appendix A), allowing the instructor to assess students’ interests, previous knowledge, cultural sensitivity, and abilities to interpret linguistic patterns.

Some graffiti that students upload has a political context (such as, “We say yes to peace”; “We were born to love not to hate”; “Khana [a right-wing politician] was right”). Others are based on biblical phrases (“If I forget you, O Jerusalem, let my right hand forget its skill”) with modern interpretations (for example, “If, I forget you, O Jerusalem, it’s because of Tel-Aviv or NY”), which illustrate why many secular Israelis are emigrating from Jerusalem to other urban centers within or outside of Israel because the city has become increasingly religious. Another example of graffiti combines the biblical phrase, “And you shall love others as you love yourself,” with an image of gay couple sending both an informative and symbolic message on how Israeli orthodox communities relate to LGBTQIA communities: The orthodox abide by the Biblical teaching on accepting others, even if they are different from you, while the ultraorthodox community does not accept LGBTQIA members. Only one student uploaded a neutral graffiti—“Sabba” [Cool]—and explained that she intentionally chose this one because the others seemed too emotionally loaded. The activity also provides students with a chance to observe and read each other’s graffiti posts. Therefore, they come to class with a more in-depth sense of what occupies Israeli walls, an idea of different graffiti styles, language patterns, and some initial cultural insights.

A word cloud survey using Mentimeter (2014), an online survey software, helps collect students’ perspectives on what graffiti means to them. Each student enters three words in Hebrew—for example, street art, vandalism, protest, street museum, voices for all, urban art, visible, illegal, legal at times—and watches the word cloud grow in real time. Then, the visuals and Padlet (2012) responses are explored further, and students have a chance to elaborate and ask each other questions. The instructor outlines additional information about the evolving history of graffiti in Israel. Since there is no Hebrew equivalent for the word graffiti, students choose an appropriate Hebrew word from a list suggested by the Hebrew Language Academy and eventually decide on the word “Kiyur” (a hybrid of the Hebrew word Kir= wall and Tziyur= drawing).

In the following lesson, the instructor exhibits Hebrew graffiti from various contexts on Jamboard (2017), the interactive Google whiteboard, and students group the examples into multimodal and multilingual formations, and into subcategories: politics, social justice, ethnic, religion, and literal meanings. Working in small groups, students analyze: (1) the presence of language (Hebrew, Arabic, English, or other) in the graffiti, hierarchical positions of the languages and their symbolic constructions, and (2) noticeable cultural perspectives. They then voice their opinions and compare the Israeli examples to graffiti in their own communities and languages.

In order to analyze graffiti (Figure 1), students apply Glisan and Donato’s (2017) IMAGE model which requires them to choose an Image, Make observations, Analyze the image, Generate hypotheses, and Explore further and discuss cultural products, practices,
and perspectives in a communicative context. In this example, students first see questions taken from the graffiti on a Google document (Appendix B) before seeing the actual graffiti image. The questions appear in a different order than on the image and students are asked to categorize, predict the situational context for asking those questions, and voice their opinion of the questions. When the authentic graffiti is displayed, students share their observations from the questions, analyze what could be considered appropriate questions in Israel, and under which circumstances. Through the graffiti they learn about meaningful life cycle events in Israeli society. Students then choose a different contextual situation, make a list of questions appropriate for the situation in both Israeli and American cultures, and display them in a similar pattern to compare multiculturalism in Israel and globally.

Figure 1
Text graffiti in Tel Aviv (left) and Author Translation (right)

Tell me what you do? Did you study it? So did you! study it for undergraduate or graduate?
Will you do a doctorate? Where are you from?
Are you from Tel Aviv originally? Do you live alone?
Do you have a dog? A cat? A mouse?
Did you serve in the army? What did you do there?
Where did you serve? How old are you? Where your parents from? Where is your dad’s dad?
From? So what is your ethnicity? Who do you like more? Do you have siblings? Nephew and nieces?
And what do your parents do? Do you cook as well as your mom? Are you parents divorced? Do you believe in God? Do you believe in love? Do you have Instagram? Can you remind me what your name is?

Photograph by AUTHOR

Next, students consider graffiti in dialogue with one another to better understand current social discourses and perspectives in Israel. Dialogic graffiti—where someone else responds, erases, or adds a new letter or word to change the meaning—is ubiquitous in worldwide communities, including those in Israel. Guiding students to explore authentic examples of dialogic graffiti is another means of exposing students to the country’s diverse communities. Here, students can see responses from across the political spectrum, as well as religious and secular individuals who represent a larger community. One example depicts seven parliament members, each one holding a plunger. This is a metaphor for how the political situation in Israel is “stuck,” and the general assumption is that it was made by a left-wing artist. An annotator (possibly a right-wing individual) added text, stating “Only Bibi [Israel’s prime minister Benjamin Netanyahu] can solve the situation.” A third annotator erased the word “Bibi” and added the word “Messiah,” which was probably added by an orthodox individual. This example showcases how three communities exchanged their beliefs, values, and ideologies in one multimodal graffiti.

Each culture has popular sayings, phrases, and even hashtags. In Israel, graffiti based on the phrase Am Israel Chai—which means “the people of Israel are alive”—are quite popular. A few well-known popular songs also use this phrase. Versions of the original graffiti add letters, words, a question mark, or an image which changes its meaning. For example,
capitalizing a word in the phrase *AM Israel Chai?* and using a question mark suggests that the annotator is not sure about the veracity of this statement. Adding a syllable to the word *Chai* and using the word *manhig* [leader] suggests that the commenter thinks the situation is so bad that Israel needs a new leader (see Figure 2). Another example is Theodor Herzl, the Zionist visionary dressed as a doctor and checking the phrase, suggesting that the statement needs to be checked in present-day Israel (see Figure 3). Students observe all of these graffiti in *Jamboard*, comment, annotate, and also guess who the potential commentators might be and what social or political groups they could represent and why. After the *Jamboard* activity, students use the *Graffiter* (N.D.) website to create their own graffiti responses to the *Am Israel Chai* graffiti (see Figure 4).

**Figure 2**
*A Variation on Am Israel Chai*

![Photograph by AUTHOR](image)

**Figure 3**
*Theodor Herzl Checking on the “health” of the Phrase*

![Photograph by AUTHOR](image)

**Figure 4**
*Student-Created Graffiti “Am Israel is definitely alive”*

![AUTHOR’s screenshot](image)

Hebrew has always been the dominant language in Israel even though Arabic was also declared one of the two official languages in the declaration of independence of Israel in 1948. Until the late 1990s, Arabic was all but invisible in Israel’s LL, even in cities like Jaffa with large Arabic-speaking populations. To further learn about language status and diversity, the instructor asks student groups to conduct research into two Israeli language initiatives: The
first is finding information about the creation of a new script fusing Arabic and Hebrew, the second involves developing a visual Hebrew-Arabic dictionary in the country’s LL.

Designed by Liron Lavi Turkenichto (Turkenich, n.d.-a) to celebrate Israel’s linguistic diversity, the script is based on the fact that readers of Arabic rely largely on the top part of the letter, while readers of Hebrew rely on the bottom part. She created a hybrid script called Aravit, a combination of Aravit (the Hebrew word for Arabic) and Ivrit (the name used for modern Hebrew). Aravit blends the two words by using the top half of Arabic characters and the bottom half of Hebrew ones to create new letters. These hybrid words are displayed as graffiti all over Israel (see Figure 5), and the first group of students presents this project to the class.

**Figure 5**
“peace”

![Image of graffiti with the word “peace” in Aravit script](Photograph by AUTHOR)

The second group of students research an initiative developed by a social activist group called Through the Language (Turkenich, n.d.-b) who are creating a visual graffiti dictionary in the public space. This group’s agenda is that many Arabs know Hebrew, but most Jews do not speak Arabic, and they wanted to make a difference. Figure 6 contains the Hebrew and Arabic words as well as the transliteration for the Arabic word.

**Figure 6**
The word “language”

![Image of graffiti with the word “language” in Aravit script](Photograph by AUTHOR)

This segment of the course culminates with online graffiti tours in Tel Aviv and Jerusalem (Turkenich, n.d.-a), allowing students to compare graffiti in two very different Israeli
cities. Students take notes during the tours, pay attention to texts, analyze differences, and reflect on the profiles of the cities. In Jerusalem, graffiti is more often based on biblical phrases than in Tel-Aviv, which reflects a tension between various religious groups. Students then upload their comparisons as an oral recording on GoReact (2011) and peers respond on the same software.

At the conclusion of the unit, the instructor collects feedback from students. In Mentimeter (2014), students prioritize what they have learned most or least about Israel through graffiti and then use the results to have a summative discussion. Finally, the instructor asks students to take the role of a graffiti artist on Graffiter (n.d.) and create a graffiti message based on a value, belief, or thought they would like to share with a wider audience.

Conclusion

Public spaces provide rich examples of authentic written and visual communication, creating both language learning and intercultural analysis opportunities. Whether photographing graffiti when visiting target cultures or integrating virtual LL-based activities, students can develop an increased awareness of LL both in the target cultures and their immediate surroundings. Graffiti provides an accessible and intriguing view into a community and also provides meaningful opportunities to discuss and analyze how public discourses are affirmed, changed, or subverted, while connecting students to L2 communities. Graffiti can also be integrated into thematic units in novice and intermediate classes since the graffiti texts are short. For example, the author uses graffiti in their Food Habits unit for novice high class where students explore what people in diverse communities think on food practices in Israel.

References


September 2022


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**Appendix A**

?Turkenich 3. (What about the graffiti draws your attention?)
?Turkenich 4. (What have you noticed about language patterns?)
?Turkenich 5. (What messages are the graffiti trying to convey?)
?Turkenich 6. (Where do you think this graffiti is placed?)
?Turkenich 7. (What would you like to ask the graffiti artist?)

**Appendix B**

?Turkenich 1. (Do you have siblings? Do you have Instagram?)
?Turkenich 2. (Do you have a dog?)
?Turkenich 3. (Did you serve in the army?)
?Turkenich 4. (Tell me what you do.)
?Turkenich 5. (Where is your dad's dad from?)
?Turkenich 6. (Nephew and nieces?)
?Turkenich 7. (Did you study it?)
?Turkenich 8. (So did you study it for undergraduate or graduate?)
?Turkenich 9. (Where are you from?)
?Turkenich 10. (Do you believe in God?)
?Turkenich 11. (A cat? A mouse?)
?Turkenich 12. (Who do you Like more?)
?Turkenich 13. (Are your parents divorced?)
?Turkenich 14. (So what is your ethnicity?)
?Turkenich 15. (Where did you serve?)
?Turkenich 16. (Will you do a doctorate?)
?Turkenich 17. (How old are you?)
?Turkenich 18. (Where are your parents from?)
?Turkenich 19. (Are you from Tel Aviv originally?)
?Turkenich 20. (Do you live alone?)
?Turkenich 21. (What did you do there?)
?Turkenich 22. (And what do your parents do?)
?Turkenich 23. (Do you cook as well as your mom?)
?Turkenich 24. (Do you believe in love?)
?Turkenich 25. (Can you remind me what your name is?)
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Digital escape rooms for world languages

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Abstract

A digital escape room is a gamified activity in which students work collaboratively to solve a series of tasks or riddles within a certain amount of time. They are typically embedded in a story framework at the end of which students need to “escape” an imaginary scenario. Students explore the target culture while using the target language for solving puzzles with their peers. The versatility of digital escape rooms in language courses allows for implementation in online teaching, in F2F classrooms, and as homework assignments. Instructors can shape escape room tasks in many ways to help students practice relevant target language skills at all levels of instruction. Digital escape rooms are easy to set up by following the simple steps that are outlined in this article. Practical tips and student voices round out this article.

Keywords: classroom instruction, technology integration, student experiences

Introduction

Gamification in education has multiple benefits. Not only can it help increase learner motivation (Fotaris & Mastoras, 2019; Jonge & Labrador, 2020; Papadakis & Kalogiannakis, 2018; Vidergor, 2021), but it can also foster student engagement and collaboration (Kapp, 2012). Moreover, gamification can advance learning outcomes especially when reflective or debriefing activities follow the gamified task (Makri, Vlachopoulos, & Martina, 2021). In language education, gamified instruction has been shown to lead to learning outcomes that are comparable to traditional instruction (Cruaud, 2016; Rachels & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2017). Digital escape rooms have become particularly popular during the pandemic (Costa, 2021) because they not only serve to advance language and culture learning goals but they are also a great break from more traditional teaching approaches. A digital escape room is a gamified activity in which students work collaboratively to solve a series of tasks or riddles within a certain amount of time. Since online teaching and learning can be tiring and easily

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becomes monotonous, instructors have turned to gamified approaches such as digital escape rooms to liven up their online classrooms. Nonetheless, digital (and non-digital) escape rooms also work in in-person classrooms where students can work together to solve riddles as well. Escape rooms offer an engaging and interactive way for students to review and practice disciplinary content and are a great tool for combining language and cultural content at all levels of instruction.

**Digital Escape Rooms in the Language Classroom: An Example**

Digital escape rooms can have any theme that fits the context of a particular class. Escape rooms that have a framing story are most effective, rather than a series of disjointed tasks. For example, one could design an escape room about living in the Middle Ages in a European country where students solve riddles to avoid being thrown into jail, or about having lost a passport abroad and navigating bureaucracy to still make the group flight home. This section provides one brief example of a digital escape room, created in Google Forms, to give a general idea of what tasks an escape room could include. The example escape room was intended as an introduction to and exploration of a cultural topic: German communities across the world. This escape room was originally designed for an intermediate (fourth-semester) university-level German class to fit into the last unit of a course on *Germans Abroad*. The escape room can also fit into other German classes where the students’ language levels are strong enough because it does not require previous content knowledge of the topic. Similar escape rooms focusing on language communities across the world could be designed for other language courses, especially for languages that have minorities in different places. In this escape room, students learn about German communities in different parts of the world by reading short articles or watching videos online. Students use their German language skills to read and comprehend the texts to complete the tasks. They also use German to communicate with their teammates. Escape rooms could also include specific language-focused activities, such as those that require students to identify synonyms, complete fill-in-the-blank texts with correct vocabulary items, or other tasks requiring them to practice specific target language forms. This example escape room was not intended to practice specific language forms but rather to use already existing language skills to learn more about a specific topic.

The escape room starts with a general introduction (all directions and tasks are in the target language, translated for this article into English) that sets the context for the 60-minute game:

> We are in the year 2021 in a small town in Germany. The pandemic is still going on and Germany is only making slow progress with vaccinations. You are stuck in Germany where you are currently studying abroad. But you are so tired of the lockdown and want to return to your home country. Before you leave Germany, you have to prove your knowledge about Germany so you can continue to represent the German language well when you return home.

> Hurry! Your 60 minutes have begun…

After the introduction, students are led through a series of five tasks they need to complete in teams so they may leave Germany. All tasks require students to use their communicative abilities in interacting with their peers, in the target language. It requires skills of asking and responding to questions as well as skills of negotiating meaning together. The tasks also target students’ cultural competencies. Students need to show their understanding of cultural texts and media and they acquire content knowledge while solving the riddles. The five tasks are:
1. **German minorities in North America:** Students answer multiple-choice questions based on information they find on provided websites. The letters of the correct answers in order constitute the code word, which takes them to their next task (e.g., ACDBA).

2. **Location of German minorities in the world:** Students have to identify countries and places where German minorities exist based on matching flags with geographical locations (Figure 1). The code word consists of the initial letter of each country.

3. **Ethnic minorities in Europe:** Students solve a crossword puzzle; the information they need is contained on websites that are linked. The website XWords ([https://www.xwords-generator.de](https://www.xwords-generator.de)) was used to generate the crossword. This is a German crossword puzzle generator (language can be switched to English). Alternatives include LearningApps ([https://learningapps.org](https://learningapps.org)) or Crossword Labs ([https://crosswordlabs](https://crosswordlabs)). The code word is the crossword puzzle keyword.

4. **German in the world:** Students complete a jigsaw puzzle (Figure 2, next page) that reveals the code word when all pieces are in place (Figure 3). The jigsaw puzzle was created using Jigsaw Explorer ([https://www.jigsawexplorer.com](https://www.jigsawexplorer.com)). This task is always a nice cognitive break for students as it does not require them to read a text or watch a video. It’s a quick task that students generally enjoy.

5. **German speaking minorities on a map:** Consolidating everything students have gathered and learned throughout the escape room, in this final task students identify countries on a map where no German minorities exist. Each country is numbered on the map (Figure 4, next page) and the code word consists of the numbers of those countries where there is no German minority community. The map was created in Google Maps and includes numbered markers with many locations but not all of them correspond to a place with a German community.
Figure 2
Task 4: Jigsaw Puzzle Scrambled

Figure 3
Task 4: Jigsaw Puzzle Completed

Figure 4
Task 5: Map of German Communities
After each task is completed successfully, students see a motivational image and progress update such as, “Well done, you will be able to return home soon,” before moving on to the next task. After completing the last task successfully, they see an image of an airplane with the message: “Congratulations! You know a lot about German communities in the world! Please come back soon and, in the meantime, continue to speak a lot of German in the world.”

Designing a Digital Escape Room Using Google Forms

The first step in designing an engaging and fun digital escape room in Google Forms is to define the language and/or content focus, using backward design principles (Wiggins & McTighe, 1998). What are your objectives? What do you want your students to learn and be able to do and/or know after completing the escape room? Next, develop your storyline. This should be interesting and relevant to your students’ lives. You will then design the tasks and create any visuals or activities associated with the tasks.

Once your storyline and task elements are done, create your Google Form. There are many other ways to create digital escape rooms (e.g., proprietary resources, Google Slides), but we found Google Forms to be easy and effective. Step-by-step instructions can be found in the Appendix.

Practical Tips and Student Voices

Escape rooms lend themselves well to an exploration of a cultural topic as well as for review of certain language forms. They are an ideal way to combine cultural content with language practice and can be used as an introduction to a new cultural unit or as the final session on a topic. By designing 3-5 tasks that all explore one cultural theme, students can learn more about the topic in an engaging, playful way. Further class sessions can then build on what students investigated through the escape room. For example, students can be assigned one community they found especially interesting which they can present to the class in more detail. This would target the presentational mode of communication. Alternatively, students could research other communities that were not included in the digital escape room and could prepare a poster on this group. Class discussions should round out the unit focusing back on the interpersonal and interpretive modes to give students an opportunity to share their opinions on the learning experience and the content that was acquired.

Teams of three work especially well for digital escape rooms. In teams of four or more, sometimes not everyone gets to contribute, and teams of two tend to take longer, which may frustrate students if the escape room is set up as a competition. Larger groups are not advisable.

How do students experience digital escape rooms? Student feedback on digital escape rooms collected by the authors has been overwhelmingly positive, which echoes general feedback summarized in research on digital escape rooms (Healy, 2019). Students describe the experience as fun, engaging, challenging, and motivating (Jonge & Labrador, 2020), and they appreciate the opportunity to use the target language in a less stressful environment (Costa, 2021). Students have also reported to be more actively involved in the language learning process through escape rooms and found that the approach leads to self-appreciation and more autonomous learning (Mudure-Iacob, 2021). In our own courses, students voiced similarly positive feedback. One student said:

The escape rooms were a really engaging way to delve into the topic material. I found that researching the topics to find clues and guess the answers was very helpful in getting me to recall things later on, as I was able to associate them with the escape room clues. Also working out the clues and getting them right was very satisfying.
and rewarding. Maybe the only downside is that after a point you can skip ahead and guess the final answer once you have enough of the clues, but it was a very enjoyable experience.

Another added:

I really enjoyed the two digital escape rooms and was very impressed by how they were organized. It was probably one of the most interactive Zoom activities I’ve done since moving online. I really enjoyed the crossword activity, and the tidbits about the place that the “room” was in created the feeling like it wasn’t all actually online. Some of the activities were a bit difficult without [the teacher’s] help, but I think that’s also because of the time limit. While the point of escape rooms is to complete the activities in the allotted time, I feel like there was an unnecessary time crunch. Overall, I felt excited when we had the escape room activity scheduled for class, and working together in small breakout rooms made it fun.

The overall enjoyment of the escape room activities is also seen in the comment by a third student, who explained:

Doing a digital escape room in a language class was a fun learning experience that allowed me to put my language skills into practice without me even noticing. I liked the fact that this exercise was made into a fun group activity, and was a great way to learn, especially over Zoom. All students in my group remained engaged as we worked together to solve each puzzle through different games, videos, and other activities. I would definitely love to do another digital escape room again.

Escape room activities are especially effective as a break from routine class learning. One student explained that “college classes can get kind of stuffy, and the escape rooms added a levity and silliness that I really appreciated.” She also added that she “learned a lot from the escape rooms and they were really good at enforcing key concepts and themes from the course.”

Digital escape rooms are an excellent way for students to work collaboratively on tasks that give them many opportunities to explore culture together while using the target language for solving puzzles. They allow students to practice specific language skills, targeting both interpretive and interpersonal modes of communication, while follow-up activities can focus on presentational skills.

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DIGITAL ESCAPE ROOMS FOR WORLD LANGUAGES


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**Appendix: Step-by-Step Guide for Creating a Digital Escape Room**

This guide uses Google Forms for the digital escape room. It was adapted from Meredith Dobbs’s (2019) website, which also includes screen shots and is an invaluable resource for designing a digital escape room.

**Content/Language Focus**

1. Choose a content focus or a particular language skill focus (culture topics, short stories, videos/reading comprehension, listening comprehension, etc.).

2. Come up with a story in which to embed the content (as is often done in traditional escape rooms).

3. Create 3–5 activities in which students explore the content focus or work specifically on the language skill focus. (Note: When choosing a content focus, you can choose any number of language skill areas to work on.)
4. The 3-5 activities should target the skills you want students to practice and should be different to hold students’ attention. Examples include:
   a. Quiz questions (students have to find the right answer to questions in a text they read, a website they review, or a video they watch)
   b. A cloze text (students complete missing words; can be based on a text they read, audio they listen to, or from their own knowledge depending on objectives)
   c. Ordering paragraphs/bringing into correct order based on a text/video/website
   d. Matching activities
   e. A jigsaw puzzle based on a photo (that displays a code word/sentence at the end; https://www.jigsawexplorer.com)
   f. A crossword puzzle with keyword (https://puzzlemaker.discoveryeducation.com/hidden-message)

5. For each activity choose a key or code word that students will need to proceed from one activity to the next.
   a. For example, for a multiple-choice quiz activity with multiple questions, the key could simply be the letters of the correct choices (e.g., acdb, 1432).
   b. For a jigsaw puzzle, a code word or phrase could be displayed once the puzzle is finished (see Figure 3).
   c. For a paragraph ordering activity, the key could be the numbers of the paragraphs in correct order (e.g., 15243).
   d. Note: It is important to give clear instructions about what the key/code word is (if there are capitalized letters, spaces, etc.) to avoid frustration.

Technology

Now put your activities into Google Forms (https://forms.google.com/ – a Gmail account is required).

1. Add a new form.
2. Title your form (change “Untitled form” to title of your escape room – the Google Form title will also change).
3. In the “Form description” box, provide the story you have come up with for your escape room.
   a. Under “Untitled question” you may want to ask for the students’ names so you know who completed the activity (short answer – see below).
4. You are now ready to enter your first activity – we will start with an open-ended question.
   a. Click the “equal” sign on the bottom right to create a new section for your first activity.
   b. Change “Untitled Section” to the topic of the activity or simply something like “Activity/Task 1.”
   c. Add a “Description” to provide more context about the activity (optional).
   d. Under “Untitled Question” type the open-ended question students have to answer.
   e. In the drop-down menu on the right, select “short answer” or “paragraph” as applicable.
   f. On the bottom, toggle “Required” to the right so it is on. This ensures students have to complete the activity before the next activity is displayed.
   g. Click the three dots on the bottom right and select “Response validation.”
i. Change the first drop-down menu to “Text” (or whatever your key is), second drop-down “contains,” then type your key or code word in the “Text” field.

ii. You can also add a “Custom error text” such as “Try again” or “Almost there” or even provide a hint for students’ second attempt.

h. Under the three dots, you can also check “Description” and type more information where your students can find the answer.

i. You have just created your first activity!

5. Click the “equal” sign on the bottom right to create the next section and enter your next activity.

6. Other activity types:
   a. Multiple choice – asks students to select one of multiple answer choices
   b. Checkboxes – allows students to select more than one correct answer choice (probably not used in escape rooms)
   c. Dropdown – a multiple choice activity that displays the options in a drop-down rather than with radio buttons
   d. For other activity types like the jigsaw puzzle or an ordering activity, you will create a short answer question and link to a jigsaw or upload an image with accompanying directions.

7. Other features in Google Forms:
   a. You can insert links to websites in any of the text fields by typing/pasting the link.
   b. + icon on the right adds a new question/activity (should you want to display more than one in one section – unusual for an escape room).
   c. Image icon on the right lets you insert an image – this is useful between sections or if you want students to refer to an image as they solve an activity.
      i. Add images between sections/after an activity to provide a motivational phrase for students such as “Almost there” or “One more activity!” etc. or other information that ties back to your story.
      ii. At the end of all activities, add an image that shows students they have completed the escape room and have “escaped” (or found the diamond, or caught the thief, or anything else that works with the story you created).
   d. Video icon on the right lets you insert a video via YouTube search or by URL.
   e. Preview your escape room by clicking on the eye icon on the top right (opens in new tab).
   f. You can add a header, change the theme and background colors, and change the font by clicking on the pallet icon on the top right.

8. Share your escape room with your students.
   a. Click the “Send” button on the top right.
   b. Click on the hyperlink icon (next to envelope icon) and copy your link (you can shorten it as well).
   c. Paste the link in your Learning Management System or email it to your students.
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Re-thinking the Italian curriculum: Sustainability issues in the Italian classroom and beyond

Chiara Trebiocchi, Harvard University

Abstract

Post-communicative methodologies nowadays provide instructors with multiple curricular models to reimagine their syllabi, design creative assignments, and prepare their lessons. Yet, challenging topics are still often avoided, fearing students' limited language proficiency. Conversely, compelling content—carefully presented and pedagogically suitable to the students' level—is a pivotal tool to enhance language learning while increasing students' interest and critical thinking. In this article, the author will discuss how environmental, cultural, and social issues of sustainability became an important tool in developing new curricula in the Italian language program at Harvard University. She will present ways to raise cultural awareness and engage upper level-students in critical linguistic exchanges in a fourth-semester course, entirely designed following an interdisciplinary teaching approach to sustainability. Addressing these timely issues, relevant to the Italian discourse and on a global scale, can attract and empower students in the world classroom while providing the opportunity for meaningful language acquisition.

Keywords: curriculum design, classroom instruction, planning & program design

Introduction

For her doctoral dissertation, the author worked on the pedagogical ideas of Franco Fortini. Better known as a poet and political essayist, Fortini was also a professor, first at the high school level and then at the University of Siena (Trebiocchi, 2021). In her thesis, she argues that Fortini's teaching experience is the key to understanding much of his literary production and political reflection. The questions raised by this research had a profound impact on the way the author thinks about her role as a language teacher and educator: How can we foster a community of peers among students? How can we enhance our diverse backgrounds and stories to learn more from each other? How should we respond to the challenges of modernity in the educational realm? Keeping in mind these questions,
she works to offer courses in Italian that invite students to connect what is learned in the classroom with the world around them.

A clear example of this has been the redesign of a fourth-semester Italian course (Upper-Level Italian: Italian 30) as *Italiano in Verde* [Green Italian]. *Sustainability Issues in the Italian Classroom*. This course—divided into five modules—refines speaking and writing skills, and advances critical linguistic exchanges through the discussion of environmental, cultural, economic, and social issues of sustainability. Through the interpretation of different kinds of authentic Italian texts and interviews with various activists (such as Yvan Sagnet who will be discussed below), students are empowered to discuss such topics, relevant both for Italian discourse and on a global scale, while revisiting and expanding vocabulary and reviewing grammar in context. Acknowledging the Modern Language Association’s report (MLA Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages, 2007) on the importance of translingual and transcultural competencies, as well as of symbolic competence as defined in second language acquisition (SLA) post-communicative research (Kramsch, 2006; 2011; Kramsch & Whiteside, 2008), and to create a collaborative and engaging learning community, classes are meant to encourage critical thinking and the analysis and discussion of current topics (i.e., climate change, migration, environmental justice, sustainable tourism), in a way that is pedagogically suitable to the students’ proficiency level.

Current trends in SLA curriculum development are pushing educators to offer courses “that engage students in solving problems in their schools, communities, and the larger world” (Santone, 2018, p. i). In this sense, sustainability is recognized as one of the most relevant, meaningful, and compelling topics of our time, at the crossroads with the other important big questions: globalization, migration, new diseases, human rights, and social justice, just to name a few. Recent publications, such as the Association of Departments of Foreign Languages (ADFL) Bulletin section dedicated to *Integrative Thinking: Foreign Languages, Environmental Humanities, and Stem* (Melin, 2021), or the collection of essays edited by de la Fuente (2021), underlined the importance of also discussing these themes in our language classrooms, both for their motivational impact and because they are “challenges in areas where language expertise pertains” (Melin, 2021, p. 9). For this reason, the author wanted to address and think about the role that Italian language courses can play in promoting a space for critical engagement and the discussion of “big ideas.” Her intention in these pages is not to describe a ready-made model, but primarily to show how sustainability became a catalyst for reimagining the Italian language fourth-semester curriculum. It is also relevant to mention that for this ongoing project the author was very much inspired by the work and presentations on curriculum development of her colleagues in the Romance Languages and Literatures Department (in particular, by Jorge Méndez Seijas and María Luisa Parra). This was also a team effort with one of the current Italian graduate students at Harvard University, Valentina Frasisti. Our desire was to offer a new perspective on traditional topics, ever-present in the Italian language courses (i.e. Italian food culture), but too often approached in a superficial or stereotypical way (especially with the increase of immigration and thus the importance of new food cultures and traditions in Italy).

Giuseppe Formato has recently published two interesting essays addressing this matter, almost as a “call to action for educators of Italian” (Formato, 2018, p. 1117). In his work, Formato (2020) suggests, for example, that “by drawing upon images of the Arte Povera movement, concepts of eco-justice and eco-pedagogy can occur through paradigms of art-based education to not only discuss the impact of the climate crisis in Italy, but also achieve Italian-language acquisition critically” (p. 1501). Spanish curriculum makeovers across the
country, for example, are proving to be successful in responding to this new challenge that we must confront as educators (at Harvard University see Méndez Seijas & Parra, 2022). Addressing these timely issues can offer innovative ways to update our curricula, providing the opportunity for meaningful and effective language acquisition in the Italian classroom as well. Conversely, while some Italian language textbooks might now include a unit on sustainability, a more structured and comprehensive presence and use of such topics in the Italian language curriculum is still missing.3 Expanding to various topics and texts, this was then the author’s goal in redesigning the fourth-semester of Italian. Keeping in mind the “understanding by design” approach (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005) and their backward design steps, she first started by identifying desired results, goals and objectives of the course and then planning assignments and lessons. Below are the course goals, shared at the beginning of the syllabus and during the first-class meeting:

- Demonstrate critical understanding and engage effectively in conversations and debates on contemporary issues, such as climate change, the slow food movement, environmental justice, sustainable tourism, migration, and activism.
- Narrate, describe, imagine, negotiate meaning, express opinions, make hypotheses, and share and evaluate points of view constructively with openness and curiosity.
- Articulate thesis, use quotes to support ideas and interpretations and clarify statements, and draw coherent conclusions, in written and oral accounts.
- Identify, analyze, and compare different sustainability practices by activist groups, governments, and average citizens through authentic Italian materials (videos, documentaries, texts, articles, etc.).
- Reflect on and explain the relationship between human beings and the earth through close reading and analysis of authentic Italian texts, while considering how you may wish to nurture this relationship.
- Describe and demonstrate critical understanding of the impact of our daily decisions on the environment in Italian.
- Discover non mainstream Italian communities and projects (both local and abroad) committed to deepening connections to the environment.
- Identify, investigate, and reflect on the main sustainability challenges Italy is facing in the fashion, food, and touristic industries.
- Compare and discuss the Italian and American responses to the sustainable challenges of our times and the UN Sustainable goals.
- Be an agent of change for your communities.

The course is divided into five modules, and includes a diversity of activities, multimedia assignments, and texts of various genres, from more literary pieces to music, films, podcasts, essays, and graphic novels. The author also wanted to render content meaningful beyond the classroom, pushing students to explore the community around them. For this reason, at the end of each biweekly module, students are asked to put into practice what was discussed in class with a “practical assignment” (“i compiti pratici”) that assesses their understanding of specific Italian structures while guiding them to think more in depth about the environmental, cultural, economic, and social issues of sustainability discussed in that module. Each unit is designed to “integrate context-based instruction of language and culture/content, encourage the use of interpretative, interpersonal, and presentational communication, and guide students toward a critical understanding of its “big ideas” (Katz Bourns, Kruger, & Mills, 2020, p. 242). In the table below, the practical assignments and the five class modules are briefly summarized:4
**Table 1**

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<th>Module 1: <em>Inquinamento, riciclaggio and sostenibilità</em> [Pollution, recycling, and sustainability]</th>
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<td><strong>Grammar in context</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Sample of class activities and Assignments</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Practical assignment</strong></td>
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<th>Module 2: <em>Tra città e natura, ecosistemi da proteggere</em> [Between city and nature, ecosystems to be protected]</th>
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<td><strong>Grammar in context</strong></td>
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<th>Module 3: <em>Turismo e moda sostenibile</em> [Sustainable tourism and fashion]</th>
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<td><strong>Practical assignment</strong></td>
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Module 4: A tavola senza sprechi [Eating without waste]

Grammar in context
Narrating: past times
Imperfetto e passato prossimo; Passato remoto e trapassato (prossimo e remoto). Combinazione tempi passati

Sample of class activities and Assignments
- Focus on tomatoes: history and production; the caporalato system in Italy
- Video and articles on “GAS. Gruppi di acquisto solidale” [Solidarity Purchasing Groups] and Italian permaculture
- the Mediterranean diet and Italian “antispreco” [anti food waste] recipes

Practical assignment
Find a recipe you would like to try and make sure the ingredients you need are seasonal and that you are able to purchase/find them avoiding plastic packaging. You could then record a video where you describe your choices, and the difficulties of finding ingredients without plastic packaging and the decisions or compromises you took. Finally, try to make the recipe and share your result! Make sure to narrate what you have done using all the Italian past tenses used in class. If you can do so, you can also record yourself while you go through the cooking process and/or share a picture of your creation.

Module 5: Migrazioni e cambiamenti climatici [Migration and climate change]

Grammar in context
Expressing opinions, emotions, and ideas
Il condizionale; Indicativo vs. congiuntivo; i tempi del congiuntivo

Sample of class activities and Assignments
- Documentary The Climate Limbo
- Focus on Lampedusa: Alessandro Leogrande, La frontiera; Emanuele Crialese, Terraferma

Practical assignment
Option 1: Observe a spot in your environment for at least an hour or for a shorter time throughout the week (for a total of an hour at least). Stay still. Look. Notice the change in the colors, the temperature, the sounds, your emotions. Don’t take notes. After the hour has passed, at a time of your convenience (don’t feel pressured to do it immediately after your observation) write a poem, a song, a short tale, a journal entry where you talk about your experience and what it means to be - or not - connected with our environment/surroundings. Try to connect your reflection to the concept of permaculture discussed in class.

Option 2: Inspired by the discussions over the semester, take a photo, record a short video, or make a drawing/painting meant to capture what you learned during the course and what you want to make your audience aware of. Post your creation on Canvas Discussion (without explanation). Comment on at least two of your classmates’ posts. Present your work in class explaining the process behind your creation.

In addition to the practical assignments, the final project is also meant to push students to go outside of the classroom and to be in touch with Italian activists in the fields. The instructor provided a list of names and contacts, facilitating students’ introduction via email. The Fall 2021 and Spring 2022 final project was then called “i fattori del cambiamento” (factors/farmers of change; this is a word pun, since in Italian fattori can mean both factors and farmers) and was conceived with the instructor who was teaching the course in the Fall semester, Valentina Frasisti, since she had a personal connection with some of them. We prepared students in advance (also using asynchronous activities on
Canvas and VoiceThread), and asked them to interview one Italian farmer of their choice in a 30 minute zoom session. We shared information and contacts of farmers who grow their products paying close attention to their environmental impact. These farmers and activists are also dedicated to organizing cultural activities and educational projects, experiencing forms of community life. Obviously, they gave us their availability and support for this project in advance, as well as their permission to record students’ interviews. Topics such as permaculture, biodiversity, sustainable farming, and food justice had already been discussed as part of the curriculum during the semester. Students had already acquired the linguistic and communicative skills necessary to prepare the interview questions and carry out a meaningful conversation. After the oral interview, students had to write a report, including a personal reflection of this experience, and finally present their work to the class. The final project provided opportunities to use the language in meaningful interactions, both engaging in interpersonal, authentic, and spontaneous conversations, as well as in self-expression in the interpersonal and presentational modes of communication. The final grade was based on both the written report and the oral activities (the interview and the final presentation). In this way, it was a full-rounded assignment in which we could evaluate their linguistic and communicative progress as well as their reflection on the “big ideas” discussed in the course. In addition, while the author had not designed the final project keeping in mind the Community Engaged Learning (CEL) framework, this activity also reflected some of its key principles. In fact, for the final project we combined our diverse expertise in the classroom before carrying out the individual interviews; we were in touch (even if virtually) with members of the agricultural community in Italy; students were pushed to continue exploring and researching on their own, based on their interest (there were options to interview farmers, honey producers, people in the viniculture world, permaculture experts etc.). The project also included a “structured, documented critical reflection,” so the final project responded to many CEL criteria (described, for example, by the Center for Community Engagement at Cornell University [https://oei.cornell.edu/resources/community-engaged-learning/]). Our goal is to expand the community engagement model in future iterations of this final project, hopefully creating more and more partnerships in Italy, and in response to students’ interest, activism, and positive comments on this specific activity.

While developing the course, the author was also inspired by research on intercultural competence (for a definition see Deardorff, 2006, p. 254). For example, throughout the semester, she wanted to challenge students’ assumptions and trigger cognitive dissonance about their idea of the Bel Paese and its current reality. In the words of Aski & Weintritt (2022)–who are advocating and showing how we can use intercultural learning in the Italian curricula to respond to falling enrollments–she tried to achieve those goals “by embedding intercultural competence modules on understanding the difference between stereotypes and generalizations, the diversity of perspectives on issues of importance and how this impacts team approaches to problem-solving” (p. 145). For this reason, besides the final project, various activities in the course involved talking with native speakers or people who fluently speak the language on Zoom, always followed by class discussion, personal reflection essays and practical assignments. For example, during the Fall 2021 semester, we had the great honor to listen to Yvan Sagnet, a Cameroonian activist working in Italy to end modern-day slavery in the Italian agricultural industry (the so-called caporalato). His participation came at the end of our module on food and social justice where all the above-mentioned topics were already introduced and presented. In Spring 2022, another guest speaker was invited–Giorgia Palmirani–to talk about sustainable fashion in Italy and
her work on Instagram sharing useful tips on how to dress more ethically and sustainably. Her presentation happened at the end of the module dedicated to eco-tourism and eco-fashion, with a focus on the language of social media. In both cases, students were prepared to ask their own questions and to have a deep understanding of the criticalities of the Italian agricultural and fashion system and the hidden reality of the exploitation of workers, especially migrants. Preparatory activities to facilitate their presentations, as well as expansion activities, were also assigned to deepen students’ understanding of these topics and their own reflections. These two presentations—and all the work connected to them—proved to be among the most successful in inspiring and empowering students to take a more active and sustainable approach in their life, as demonstrated in various comments in the final course evaluations:

I learned so much from this course! The main thing I took away was that for everything I consume (food, clothing, anything!) it is so important to know where it came from and who made it (and whether or not they were treated fairly!). It’s also important to have a plan for disposing of things responsibly and reusing them whenever possible. Whenever I go grocery shopping now I think so much of Yvan Sagnet and il caporalato when I’m looking in the produce section and I am now trying to buy ethically harvested and organic produce (when possible). I also learned so much about the migrant crisis and real environmental justice issues in Italy. It made me want to be more active in these issues!

Prior to this course, I did not know much about sustainability. I think I learned a lot about a topic that was relatively unknown to me before, as well as improved tremendously my Italian language skills. I specifically liked the modules about food and fashion, as these are two things that I am confronted with daily in my life and I am very familiar with them. Seeing them from a new, sustainable perspective, gave me more insight about better choices I could make that I probably would not have thought about on my own.

The author’s plan is to continue empowering students to discuss such topics, relevant both to Italian culture and on a global scale. As another student wrote in her final evaluation, “this course impacted the way I live my life and made me more sustainable.” For me, this was the greatest achievement we could have hoped for: the essential goal of any teaching should be to have an impact on students’ current and future life outside the classroom. The approach and choices made in the fourth-semester of Italian can also be applied to all the language sequence, from elementary to advanced. Obviously, it will require a careful choice and presentation of the texts, as well as scaffolding activities to provide students with the necessary linguistic tools to appreciate them, and effective transitions to present materials in a logical and coherent way. Sustainability issues—in lessons that are built around authentic texts and big ideas that give students ample opportunity to engage with their instructors and peers, to use mistakes as learning opportunities, to discuss respectfully any topic, even when in disagreement, and to give and accept constructive criticism and feedback—proved to be an important and relevant tool to use to update the Italian language program curriculum in the upper-level course. The author’s hope is to continue expanding this curriculum makeover at all levels of instruction, to update all the Italian syllabi as well as to attract and retain students to the program. In fact, the range of topics presented in this article—from sustainable fashion to the migrant crisis in Europe—proved to be particularly appealing for students, motivating them to continue learning the language in advanced classes as well as in study abroad programs in Italy. In the final course evaluations,
all students expressed how the content and authentic texts discussed in class provided an effective way to learn the language as well as to feel more knowledgeable and conscious about such relevant topics. The majority of the students also stated how the course inspired them to adopt a more sustainable way of life, in the USA and abroad, and to continue learning about these themes:

I want to be a more sustainable traveler! I am more aware of the sustainable practices that I can adopt while traveling to other countries like Italy, and while I’m at home and even at school. The hope is that a little goes a long way.

I learned a lot about Italy that I wasn’t aware of before, and overall took away that it is possible to live more sustainably. We only have one planet and we all live here; we have to take care of it and each other.

The direction and the choices made in this course have been in line with recent SLA frameworks and the fundamental principles of effective world language pedagogy in the twenty-first century (see Katz Bourns, Kruger, & Mills, 2020). As stated by Melin and Broner (2019, p. 292): “Students can be engaged in and excited about foreign languages when the endeavor is tied to a genuine need to communicate with others about big questions.” Addressing these timely issues not only offers innovative ways to update our curricula, providing the occasion for meaningful and effective language acquisition; but it also helps us empower students in the world language classroom, motivate them to explore beyond the course assignments, and ultimately guide them to become multilingual selves and informed citizens of the world. In the course presented in this article, students formed a collaborative and engaging learning community in which they were also “able to observe their progress and see how their knowledge can have meaningful real-world applications,” hence feeling “a sense of profound motivation” (Bourns, Kruger, & Mills, 2020, p. 60) toward their language acquisition journey. For these reasons, not only is the author's goal in the fourth-semester of Italian, and all the Italian courses, to replace “the two-tiered language-literature structure with a broader and more coherent curriculum in which language, culture, and literature are taught as a continuous whole” (MLA 2007, p. 237), but also to make sure this continuity happens across the curriculum and the extra-curriculum, inside and outside the classroom, where students can continue to explore and engage in a meaningful way with the course material. The positive impact of such choices will be evident not only in students’ Italian language learning, but in their lifelong education to become independent learners, citizens able to question others and themselves on the rightness of their actions. As written by Melin (2021, p. 10):

Ten years from now, what will our students remember about the time they spent in our classes? If the answer turns out to be that we inspired them to create a cascade of hopeful action—if, indeed, we witness them growing to become intellectually curious, truly global citizens who surpass us in their ability to integrate humanities and STEM perspectives—we will have done much more than bridge the two-cultures divide.

One of the greater purposes of a world language education course in our times should be to guide students in becoming aware of their conscience and in assuming values in real life, with autonomy and coherence. The author hopes that the course and materials here presented showed how SLA research-based practices can be—and should be—implemented in the Italian language curriculum in responding to the most urgent and relevant issues of today, encouraging critical thinking and the analysis of current topics, relevant both for Italian discourse and on a global scale, in a way that is pedagogically suitable to the students’ linguistic level.
Notes

1. In this course, sustainability is more broadly intended in relation to the 17 United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). They define a new model of society, according to criteria of greater responsibility in social, environmental, and economic terms, aimed at avoiding the collapse of our ecosystem. For more information about the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development see https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/.

2. Borrowing the definition from Wiggins & McTighe (2005): “the meaningful patterns that enable one to connect the dots of otherwise fragmented knowledge [and] serve as the focal point of curricula, instruction, and assessment [and] are transferable beyond the scope of a particular unit”) (p. 338–339).

3. There are also other pedagogical reasons to justify the decision to create in-house materials and avoid the adoption of language textbooks. On the open education movement and the rise of teaching-learning ecology in the world language classroom, see Blyth & Thoms (2021). In relation to the content of the course presented in this article, see Méndez Seijas & Parra (2022).

4. All the assignments and instructions in the course are provided in Italian. The author is providing here a shorter version of the practical assignments’ prompts.

5. The author wishes to thank them here: Evan Welking and Federica Faggioni of Borgo Basino; Enrico Grandis of La Capreria; Gianluca Burani of Trebiolche Permacultura; Lucia Frigo of Antica Apicoltura Kaberlaba; Anna Pacchiarotti of La Valdanzosa.

6. Case in point, one of the students enrolled in the Fall 2021 decided to spend the summer in Italy with Borgo Basino internship program.

7. For example, after the semester ended, a student of the course from Washington, DC went to an exhibition on sustainability in the Italian design world at the Italian Embassy. She shared pictures, comments, and her personal pieces from the exhibition in an email written in magnificent Italian.

References


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Motivating speaking in the world language classroom and beyond

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**Abstract**

Target language speaking competence is a skill both students and world language teachers desire to develop, yet it is often one of the weakest areas observed in secondary classrooms (Thompson & Mutton, 2022). To help improve student willingness to speak, educators should understand what intrinsically and extrinsically motivates learners. The proceeding literature review explores how studies on second language speaking motivation can inform instructional practices that foster student interpersonal skills. Pedagogy that empowers students to exercise control over their learning seems to motivate student speech. For example, providing choices in speaking topics, having readily accessible speaking scaffolds or resources, and guiding students through metacognitive tasks are methods instructors across disciplines can integrate that engage students in discourse. These student-centered strategies may cognitively prepare students to speak because they have opportunities to discuss familiar topics, practice, and receive feedback, which could reduce anxiety and increase speech fluency.

*Keywords: classroom instruction, curriculum design*

**Introduction**

Despite the importance of speaking competence in natural social interaction, there are many elements that affect world language students' willingness and ability to speak in the target language. Immersing oneself in the language of another culture can be intimidating, especially learning to recognize and orally produce new phonemes of a second language (L2). Authentic interpersonal communication requires an individual to listen and respond to questions and comments from others. Individual perceived competence, language anxiety, motivation, age, and gender seem to impact one's ability to communicate (MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Donovan, 2003). A person's motivation, defined as goal-directed behavior, may lead them to exert more effort and persistence to achieve objectives in the face of challenges than an unmotivated individual (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003, p. 173). Consequently, world language educators should explore the scholarly work on speaking motivation if their goal is...
to prepare students to use language effectively in various contexts. The following literature review presents recent findings in the learning sciences concerning student motivation to communicate in a world language, and then examines how this research can inform pedagogical strategies to potentially increase student discourse in common and less commonly taught languages in the United States, as well as other disciplines. Since there is limited current research on motivating L2 speaking in American classrooms, the research presented also includes applications from studies conducted in a variety of countries and languages.

**Motivation and Second Language Oral Communication**

This first section explores intrinsic and extrinsic components that influence a person's motivation to speak when learning another language. To begin, motivation impacts a learner's ability to produce language in the world language classroom. In a meta-analysis of 75 independent samples conducted by Masgoret and Gardner (2003), researchers found that there is a higher correlation between motivation and second language achievement than learning situation, integrativeness (how open an individual is to identifying with a different language community), integrative orientation (how interested a person is in interacting with a different language community), or instructional orientation. Therefore, educators should understand how internal and external motivational factors work to positively increase student outcomes.

**Intrinsic Motivational Factors**

Self-determination theory offers insight into how humans are motivated by an inherent inner need for self-growth. This desire stems from the psychological need to feel competent, independent, and connected as they manage their personal well-being throughout their lives (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Viewing intrinsic motivation for communicating in an L2 from the self-determination perspective, a motivated student could be interested in learning the linguistic elements of the language itself and interacting with other speakers of the language (Łockiewicz, 2019). Someone who is intrinsically motivated may feel prepared to speak and take pleasure in communicating, whether or not they have the knowledge to effectively use the other language. Researchers have considered learner motivation connected to what is called the process model and the motivational self-system. The process model argues that a student's motivation changes at different learning stages, from goal-setting at the start of the lesson to reflecting at the end, depending on feedback from their environment. The motivational self system is related to a person's drive to achieve a desired future multilingual self (Goodridge, 2017). Thus, intrinsic motivation can affect self-identity as someone works towards who they want to become. Goodridge (2017) also suggested future research to examine if this desire to work towards the ideal L2 self could possibly be related to someone's motivation to be integrated in another cultural group or even teacher motivation, the educator's desire to teach and self-efficacy that they can effectively teach.

There are several internal factors that contribute to a person's willingness to communicate (WTC). Nematizadeh and Wood (2019) conducted a study that measured the WTC of four Canadian university students whose first language was Farsi and L2 was English. The researchers gave participants, who were aged 30-35, a picture task with questions in which they had one minute to plan and then two minutes to record a video response. Immediately after their speech was recorded, participants reviewed their video and rated their WTC at each part, and then verbally explained in Farsi why they rated certain moments with higher or lower WTC. The data analysis revealed WTC shifted based on several cognitive considerations: student perception of their speech fluency, self-monitoring, and vocabulary retrieval. Participants’ cognitive load increased when they perceived dysfluency, worried
about grammatical accuracy, and struggled with word retrieval, resulting in lower WTC. Based on these findings, interventions to support student speech should build learner confidence with vocabulary and familiar topics of conversation to decrease cognitive load and hopefully augment speech fluency. Moreover, another study (Pyun, Kim, Cho, & Lee, 2014) found that risk-taking—the willingness of a learner to try and improve their use of a novel linguistic structure—correlated with a student’s oral performance. The scholars analyzed questionnaire responses from 104 First-Year Korean students whose first language is English at an American public university, and discovered learners who engaged in risk-taking behavior, such as not hesitating to use new communicative structures, were more likely to actively speak in the L2. Pyun and colleagues suggested these risk-takers spoke in the target language more because the constant practice helped them recognize their oral challenges and then use the feedback in future attempts, developing speech proficiency.

**Extrinsic Motivational Factors**

Furthermore, environmental factors interact with internal factors to affect an individual's motivation to speak a world language. When a student is extrinsically motivated, they may rely on the guidance of mentors in their immediate community to encourage them, and even see L2 learning as a path to meet a school requirement or future professional goal (Łockiewicz, 2019). According to Syed and colleagues (Syed, Memon, Chacar, Zameer, & Shah, 2021), scholars continue to explore how learner agency, or how a person creates their own optimal learning conditions, determines one's motivation to use the 2. In other words, a student's L2 development and WTC changes during the duration of a lesson due to continuous variations in individual cognitive factors and the learning environment. For example, learners assess surrounding resources and then determine if they want to use the language or wait for a more comfortable time to join the conversation. MacIntyre et al. (2003) conducted a study at a public junior high school in Nova Scotia, Canada, where English and French are the co-national languages. Although English is the primary language in Nova Scotia, students can enroll in French as a First Language Program, or one of several French as Second Language programs. Students are required to take Core French from grade 4-9 and have the option to enroll in a French immersion program either in primary school or in grade 7. If available in their community, a student can elect to take Mi’kmaq or Gaelic to replace the French requirement (Government of Nova Scotia). The scholars found in a study of 268 Canadian French immersion students, aged 11-16 and across grades 7, 8, and 9, that the older students were more willing to communicate, felt more competent, and communicated more in the L2 than the younger students, but there was a decrease in L2 motivation from grades 7 to 8. Moreover, females reported an increase in WTC and reduction in anxiety from grades 8 to 9, while males’ WTC and anxiety was constant across the three grades. Researchers speculated these differences could be the result of both human development—such as that females might overall feel less self-conscious in later adolescence because they entered puberty earlier—as well as language teachers treating girls more favorably. Nonetheless, the researchers did not consider how student gender identity, socioeconomic status, or Nova Scotia public school regulations could have impacted their results. Future studies should investigate the extent to which these factors might affect learner WTC in the classroom. The complex relationship between internal and environmental factors suggests educators should implement strategies that create a supportive environment if they want to increase student motivation to speak the target language. Building on this scholarly analysis of speaking motivation, the next section examines pedagogy that could motivate learners and considers how educators could enhance the teaching of metacognition.
Strategies to Support Intrinsic Motivation

Based on classroom motivation research, teachers can alter their pedagogy to optimize student desire to communicate in the world language. Since student self-perceived competence in L2 is related to speech fluency and motivation, learners need to experience success speaking. In a study by Bernales (2016), the researcher conducted a study involving 16 third semester German students at a research university in the Midwest. The data from surveys given to the entire class, observations, and interviews with four students, aged 18-21, found that habituation to specific speaking tasks promoted student confidence and use of the target language. For example, the students emphasized the speaking task that their professor had them do at the start of each class—where students spoke with classmates and the teacher in German for ten minutes about any topic they wanted—contributed to their increased confidence in their L2 abilities. Bernales reasoned that because the students became accustomed to an activity that had established L2 use norms, they developed the L2 oral skills necessary to participate and grew comfortable communicating in German on topics that interested them. Moreover, the activity served to build positive relationships with peers and the professor. The results also supported the theory that students’ L2 motivation can be connected to the realization of several factors: their ideal L2 selves (the person someone wants to become by learning L2 and using this desire as a self-guide), ought-to L2 selves based on teacher expectations (the characteristics someone thinks they need to have to avoid negative consequences), and immediate learning environment (Dörnyei, 2005). For instance, Bernales found during the student interviews that motivated individuals developed confidence in using German and seeing themselves as a proficient L2 speaker because of the course’s strategies. The interconnectedness of identity and environment means educators could motivate L2 oral production by setting clear expectations when to use L2 and providing structures, such as sentence starters and well-known content, to scaffold speaking tasks. During a unit where the objective is for learners to use different forms of the past tense, students could engage in speed-dating activities where they ask classmates about their childhood activities and present slides or a poster about what they used to do when they were younger in small groups. Students should use graphic organizers to record their peers’ responses and draft their speeches to feel prepared.

Strategies to Support Extrinsic Motivation

Scholars continue to examine how teachers can design a classroom environment conducive to engaging students in speech. Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) had 200 English teachers in Hungary rate the perceived importance and the frequency with which they use a variety of motivational strategies. The top three strategies based on rank order were: teacher motivation that models effective effort and acceptance, positive classroom climate, and clear task presentation. The educators recognized how teacher preparedness and ability to ensure a nonjudgmental environment can foster a safe space where students feel comfortable making mistakes and practicing a non-native language. In addition, Christie’s (2016) study of two French classes of 31 and 12 students, aged 11-16, in a secondary school in London also revealed techniques that maximize oral production. Target language management where the instructor rewards L2 use, incorporates visuals to accompany written language, and provides resources that help students ask for needed words can lead to more spontaneous L2 use. The scholar also argued that competition and student-directed activities facilitated spoken language. For instance, the current author has transformed familiar games with speaking scaffolds, such as Guess Who to practice descriptions, Battleship to support using
verb conjugations, and the Price is Right to engage students with comparison adjectives. Through student-centered instruction, learners might be more willing to speak because they have opportunities to collaborate with peers and develop confidence to ask for classmate or instructor assistance when they are unsure how to approach an oral prompt.

**Strategies To Support Metacognition**

Furthermore, improving student use of metacognitive strategies may support target language use. Forbes and Fisher (2015) conducted an action research study with five students, aged 16-17, enrolled in Advanced Level French at a secondary school in England who struggled with speaking the language. As an intervention, the researchers taught students to recognize strategies to prepare, monitor, and evaluate their speaking during tasks. The results indicated that increased awareness and use of metacognitive strategies did augment student confidence, perception, and proficiency of their oral abilities. Teaching students to employ metacognitive strategies, such as organizing ideas before speaking, self-correcting, reflecting, using feedback, and how to change strategies for different tasks can positively impact student confidence and speech proficiency. After students participate in a speaking task, the current author requires that learners rate how useful the activity was to practice speaking, explain why it was useful or not useful, and elaborate about steps they need to take to improve their speaking. The goal of this metacognitive strategy is to activate student background knowledge and reflection skills to make discourse memorable.

In addition, Thompson and Mutton (2022) did a study with 148 pupils, aged 11-15, investigating how classroom-based intervention could change attitudes towards speaking French at an all-boys secondary school in England. Instructing learners to use a variety of memory, cognitive, communicative, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies did lead to more positive attitudes and improved self-efficacy about speaking. After practicing the strategies, pupils received a “Strategy Island Map” handout for future speaking activities to facilitate self-monitoring of their before-, during-, and after-speaking strategies (p. 6-7). The results support prior findings that engaging students in self-reflection and providing multiple structures for oral communication can improve L2 speaking confidence. Moreover, Gilead (2019) highlighted the importance of allowing learners to engage in what Vygotsky (1934/1987) calls inner and private speech as a tool in language development. Gilead found in a study of 10 Modern Hebrew beginner students at a major Australian university that even though learners may not be vocal during a whole-class discussion, they may be actively and silently utilizing L2 for their personal use. Gilead recommended educators realize how inner and private speech helps students prepare public speech for partner and small group work, and require students to not only self-reflect on the strategies they used, but also share with their classmates. The subsequent section proposes potential applications of these speech interventions in other disciplines.

**Implications**

The pedagogical techniques that could increase student WTC in a world language may also have positive effects on student discourse in general secondary courses as well. Bower (2019) analyzed data from three different English secondary schools concerning how the pedagogical approach of content and language integrated learning (learning a content subject in a non-native language) affected pupil motivation. The researcher highlighted how stimulating content, providing the needed scaffolds to make content accessible, and developing tasks where students could expect success contributed to student motivation. The integration of relevant content increased student enjoyment of learning and speaking in the target language because the pupils understood how to use the target language in
real world contexts and felt pride in their achievements. When teachers make connections between the curriculum and relevant student experiences, students seem to be more confident and willing to discuss their perspectives in class. Non-language teachers who want to increase on-task student discourse could consider implementing projects or other tasks that guide students through how content experts approach a problem with scaffolds like check-ins and curated research appropriate for their reading level.

Other methods of student-centered pedagogy may foster student WTC across disciplines. Zarrinabadi, Ketabi, and Abdi (2014) collected interview data from adolescent male English learners in Iran about how various instructional techniques shifted their situational WTC, and discovered how providing flexibility in conversation topics and small group work tends to increase student participation. When learners take charge of their learning, such as determining what they want to discuss or how to approach solving a problem with a group, they develop confidence to share their viewpoint and knowledge. Similar to Dörnyei and Csizér’s (1998) findings, Zarrinabadi et al. emphasized how a relaxed classroom atmosphere promotes opportunities for student speech because learners feel accepted and know how to reduce their anxiety. Students should recognize that making errors is part of the learning process, and educators can provide feedback in a way that makes students less anxious. For example, Zarrinabadi et al. recommended teachers use delayed corrective feedback so a student does not feel singled out for correction and direct questions to the class to answer before giving a definitive answer. These tactics could motivate students in any subject to speak during class because they might feel less anxious and recognize their contributions to discussion are valued.

Conclusions

Motivation affects student speech production and attitudes towards coursework. As MacIntyre and Blackie (2012) note, student hesitation in an L2 highly correlates with their perceived communication competence, WTC, and language anxiety, and can be self-reinforcing and cause avoidance. They further explain that learners with positive attitudes towards French are more likely to continue with the language. Consequently, World Language Departments in secondary schools concerned about maintaining enrollment in higher levels beyond state-mandated language requirements should consider how to encourage students to appreciate the challenge of learning another language. To improve student engagement with discourse, educators should ensure learners experience success. Student-centered instructional strategies, such as working in partners or small groups, language scaffolds, as well as tasks which prepare students for conversation in realistic situations can promote a classroom atmosphere where students feel comfortable taking intellectual risks and sharing their knowledge. Furthermore, building student metacognitive skills can help develop their ability to self-reflect and take ownership of their learning. These practices can also apply to other disciplines to foster deeper connections with not only content, but also interactions with others.

Future studies should further explore the ways in which motivation, communication, and identity development intersect. Researchers can design studies to understand the extent to which the desire for peer acceptance and identity exploration during adolescence affects student speech in secondary schools. While studies found adolescent motivation to learn and speak a world language may change as they age, there is less definitive research concerning why this shift occurs. Scholars should investigate why and how the interaction
between internal and external motivational factors shifts a learner's WTC in a classroom. By recognizing the causes of motivational changes throughout a lesson, a teacher can utilize strategies that maximize student opportunities for meaningful and authentic discourse.

In summary, current motivation and WTC research can inform pedagogy to support student interpersonal communication, especially in novice world language classrooms. Educators should create an atmosphere in which students feel comfortable sharing their viewpoints and making mistakes. To achieve this, teachers should incorporate intriguing conversational topics in which students have prior knowledge. As educators design and implement speaking interventions, they should also incorporate chances for students to collaborate and provide differentiated scaffolds depending on their communication level. Adolescent learners will be more likely to speak if they feel their classmates and instructor will not judge them for mispronunciation or grammatical errors, and therefore educators can model how to use and give constructive feedback that allows an individual to grow their oral skills. Perhaps most importantly, students will have a deeper understanding of why certain strategies help their ability to converse when given the chance to self-reflect. Engagement in metacognition empowers pupils to connect their behavior with their learning, teaching them how to approach future problems.

References


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The power to choose: Engaging students and assessing proficiency

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Abstract

How can teachers create opportunities for student choice while using the Integrated Performance Assessment framework? Differentiation of assessment allows students to have greater agency over their learning and bolster their proficiency journey. Additionally, by utilizing a framework for student engagement in a personalized learning model, participants will investigate how building classroom relationships and creating choices within assessments yield opportunities for meaningful learning experiences. Differentiation enables students to select topics for assessment by choosing a variety of tasks to demonstrate proficiency. Teachers can meet the diverse needs, abilities, cultural backgrounds, and proficiency goals of students through differentiated choice opportunities. Using this model, teachers become the guide on the side as students become agents of demonstrating their proficiency through a variety of meaningful, communicative tasks.

Keywords: assessment & feedback, technology integration, student experiences

Over the past few years, educators have worked tirelessly to shift their teaching and learning practices to meet the demands of in-person, remote, and hybrid learning models. As world language educators, we see the benefits of using a variety of platforms and applications for in-person and remote learning to create authentic learning experiences during these unique educational times. Building on the momentum of adapting strategies to meet learners where they are, we suggest continuing the practices of pandemic times that allow students to develop linguistic and cultural competency. Teachers who create space for personalized learning build student agency and allow students to advance on the proficiency continuum.

One approach to this personalized learning is what we call the Modified Integrated Performance Assessment (IPA) Choice Board approach: a teaching tool that hooks students into the thematic context of a unit of study through interpretive, interpersonal, presentational, and investigative tasks (Figure 1).
### Sample Choice Board: Novice Low-Novice Mid

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interactive Task</th>
<th>Investigative Task</th>
<th>Presentational Task</th>
<th>Interpersonal Task</th>
<th>Interpretive Task</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interactive Scenario: Interview a chef and report what you have learned</td>
<td>Investigative Task: Identify foods that might be consumed at different times of day</td>
<td>Presentational Speaking: Inquiry presentation on food</td>
<td>Interpersonal Speaking: Preferences</td>
<td>Interpretive Reading: Menu and pick what you would order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactive Scenario: Identify favorite dishes in an area/region and report</td>
<td>Investigative Task: Look up ingredients specific to a region</td>
<td>Presentation: Write an opinion piece about preferences</td>
<td>Interpersonal Speaking/Writing: Debatin what to order in person</td>
<td>Interpretive Listening: Preferences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactive Scenario:</td>
<td></td>
<td>Word Doc/Google Doc</td>
<td></td>
<td>Go Formative</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>FlipGrid</td>
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#### Figure 1
Sample Modified IPA Choice Board
Utilizing the framework presented by Doubet and Carbaugh (2020), the Modified IPA Choice Board strives to “hook” students into the learning context, allows for exploration of new content, sharpens modal skills, creates space for formative assessment by the teacher, and allows students to interact and process ideas together. This approach allows for students to execute these ideas in both face-to-face and asynchronous learning. Continuing to use the tools we have gained over the course of the pandemic to leverage our work we are creating an approach where more students will enhance their skills in creative and renewed ways.

The Modified IPA Choice Board approach allows students to self-select language tasks that they feel most comfortable with during a particular unit of study. A core component that allows students to “level up” in this paradigm is the ongoing scaffolding of content and structure related to the thematic units of study. Each task compels a student to dive deeper into language usage with an increased demand in the complexity of the output within each proficiency level. These tasks ask students to interpret meaning and have a purpose beyond the simple use of linguistic competency (VanPatten, 2017). Accordingly, these tasks permit teachers to garner student interest from the start of the lesson while creating opportunity for individualized and creative expression. This approach challenges students to use the target language and culture while engaged in a thematic, authentic task to process ideas with their classmates in a multi-modal manner. As a result, students essentially create an e-portfolio where they choose how to demonstrate their proficiency over a unit of study.

At the beginning of the pandemic, especially with the push towards more asynchronous and independent work, homework choice boards became a popular option to keep students engaged and striving towards proficiency. These choice boards create different challenges and tasks for students and accommodate students with differing access to materials than others, as explored in “The Disparities in Remote Learning Under Coronavirus” (Herold, 2020). Students appreciate the opportunity to demonstrate their proficiency through a wide variety of options, and their feedback was overwhelmingly supportive and positive. Students are also more likely than before to complete their work, and their effort seems to increase due to the choice of activities. Through choice, students feel a sense of ownership for their work that they may not have previously experienced (Kiser, 2020).

As we entered the first full school year of pandemic teaching, many teachers began to examine how to assess students in a way that would evaluate their proficiency. Rather than relying on traditional assessments, teachers had to look for innovative ways to assess students, especially with many students in hybrid situations with some in the classroom and others remote. Drawing from the previous success of homework choice boards, the authors decided to rethink traditional IPA. Using the traditional IPA as a model, we decided to combine the best practices of allowing opportunity for student choice and voice in communicative tasks that demonstrate the ACTFL (2012) Proficiency Guidelines, including interpretive tasks, interpersonal tasks, presentational tasks, investigative tasks, and interactive tasks as columns where students could choose which tasks they wanted to complete to demonstrate their proficiency. We reimagined the IPA as a choice board providing student choice of tasks. For these tasks, we included both low-tech and high-tech options to accommodate students who may not have access to or the ability to do higher tech activities, and provided a range of options to demonstrate proficiency, as explained in “10 Ways to Incorporate Student Choice in Your Classroom” (Spencer, 2016).

For interpretive tasks, we offered several ways to offer opportunities to demonstrate proficiency. Students could have a choice addressing a cultural theme through interpretive reading, interpretive listening, or interpretive viewing. Students performing the same proficiency task could demonstrate their proficiency in different ways. For example,
students could all watch a video in the target language about a topic. Then, students would demonstrate their interpretive skills through drawing or creating a series of cartoons captioned in the target language about the action of the video, writing what they learned in the video and what questions they might want to know in their primary language, writing a different ending to what happened in the video, creating an infographic based on the video, recreating the scene in the video, and so on.

A specific example incorporated choices based on a novella in a Latin 2 class (Novice High-Intermediate Low). Students read the novella, and then they demonstrated their interpretive skills and understanding of the text in several different ways. Some students created a Smashdoodle, an activity where students drew or created ten illustrations and picked out ten descriptive phrases in the target language that demonstrated the action of the text. Other students chose to draw or create six captioned comics in the target language. Some students chose to write fan fiction in their primary language, writing an alternate ending while drawing from examples within the text as an interpretive exercise that demonstrates their understanding of the text. The final option was for students to act out a scene in person or in a video that preceded the narrative of the novella, which could include people, puppets, or—as in one particularly memorable video—stop motion Lego™ figurines with target language voice overs and/or subtitles.

For interpersonal tasks, students have a choice of interpersonal speaking or interpersonal (extemporaneous) writing. These tasks are based around the same cultural theme, but the purpose is to demonstrate either the students’ extemporaneous speaking (and listening) or writing (and reading) skills. The exchanges for interpersonal tasks are typically the same prompts that might be used in a normal year. However, with masks, social distancing, and students learning on video, interpersonal exchanges became difficult. The best option was to give students a choice about how their interpersonal skills could be assessed. Students in person would sometimes choose to do a traditional interpersonal exchange with another student in person, or they could record an exchange with another remote student over Zoom or Meet. As long as the students were speaking extemporaneously and could communicate effectively, this recorded approach was helpful in determining growth areas and proficiency. Surprisingly, many students who did not speak as much in class thrived with the option to do extemporaneous exchanges in the target language using discussion questions on Google Classroom or using the chat feature on Zoom or Google Meet. These exchanges closely resembled an exchange that students might have via email, text, or on an app such as WhatsApp, and students felt that this task demonstrated proficiency in an authentic way because so many people communicate through the medium of text.

For presentational tasks, students have the choice of live presentational speaking, recorded presentational speaking, or presentational writing. Many students who were not as comfortable speaking in front of their peers—particularly in a hybrid learning environment—enjoyed being able to use tech tools such as FlipGrid, Loom, or Screencastify to share their videos with the class. In class, students would perform a rough draft of their presentations for the teacher during station rotations, and when the rotations were completed, the class would watch their completed videos and live presentations. Students learning from home appreciated this flexibility of choice, and students who worked better from prepared videos rather than live performance were able to demonstrate proficiency without the added fear of stage fright.

Ultimately, as seen in “Differentiating by Offering Choices,” students have a better chance of demonstrating their learning effectively when they have choice about how they demonstrate their learning (Usher, 2019). Some of the benefits of this type of assessment
include students having ownership over their work and being more engaged when they pick how they are being assessed. However, we do realize that there can be potential drawbacks. For example, students could choose one type of communicative task to assess themselves rather than engaging with each communicative task. To prevent this, students are encouraged to pick one option from each column for each type of communicative task, so they would complete one interpretive, one interpersonal, and one presentational task. Additionally, students could be limited to which type of communicative task they could pick for each Modified IPA Choice Board. For example, if a student chose to create a cartoon for the interpretive task on their first IPA, they would then have to choose a different option for the next IPA.

Despite the challenges of assessment during the hybrid learning model these past few years, the Modified IPA Choice Boards proved to be a great option for students to demonstrate their proficiency on their own terms. Students use the products created in these Modified IPA Choice Boards as e-portfolios that demonstrate their proficiency in a variety of communicative tasks. In the article “EPortfolios: Using technology to enhance and assess student learning,” e-portfolios are shown as invaluable as tools for continuation in language because they can be shared with other instructors for valuable insight into each student’s personal learning experience (Wickersham-Fish & Chambers, 2006). As we reflect on our practice of the past few years, this different approach allows us to think about how, and in what ways, we assess our students with the end result of increasing proficiency and cultural competency.

References


VanPatten, B. (2017). While we're on the topic: BVP on language, acquisition, and classroom practice. ACTFL.


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