Are we there yet?

A qualitative study of ACTFL’s 3 Ps in content and instructional strategies used to develop intercultural communicative competence in the foreign language classroom.

By

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Submitted to the Department of Curriculum and Teaching and the Graduate Faculty of the University of Kansas in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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Are we there yet?
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Abstract

The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) sets cultural understanding as one of the five primary goals for foreign language study and further divides this category into 3 Ps: products, practices and perspectives. This qualitative study investigated how the 3 Ps, especially practices, are represented in course materials, what training teachers receive to develop instructional strategies and assessment in the 3 Ps, and to what degree 3 P content is presented and assessed in the foreign language classroom. Content developers of foreign language textbooks were interviewed to understand their decision making process regarding content, particularly cultural content, and their relationship to researchers and teachers. Faculty in educational institutions that provide teacher education were interviewed to determine to what degree their courses prepare teachers to cover the 3 Ps: cultural material selection, teaching strategies, and assessment of intercultural communicative competence. K-12 teachers of a variety of foreign languages were interviewed to determine the status of the 3 Ps in their classrooms: degree of integration, time spent finding culturally relevant authentic materials, instructional strategies used and weight given in the assessment of intercultural communicative competence, and the value they place on this type of content in comparison to traditional items of vocabulary and grammar. The results of this study found that the coverage of “practices”, particularly sociolinguistic information, is extremely low. Content developers have included more culture such as lifestyle practices and perspectives in supplemental videos, but teachers still spend substantial time creating their own cultural content and the majority do not assess culture in unit exams. The results of this study reveal that foreign language instruction still focuses heavily on academic language with minimal development of intercultural communicative competence. This study identifies areas of improvement to provide teachers with the tools and expertise needed for
a more thorough coverage of the 3 Ps, particularly sociolinguistic practices, an essential component to develop intercultural communicative competence.
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Chapter 1

Introduction

Individuals who have studied a foreign language for several years may find that they actually cannot communicate in a native-like manner. Although these second language (L2) learners may have sufficient vocabulary and proper grammar to formulate sentences, they may lack knowledge of the cultural factors that affect language choices. In the traditional method of language instruction, the focus of instruction is on sounds, vocabulary and grammatical structures, a model which downplays the ability to consider cultural influences on interaction and meaning. For example, Mexico has often been called “the land of mañana” because a Mexican world view is that life is meant to be enjoyed, not to go rushing about urgently and stressfully. When a Mexican says something can be done mañana ‘tomorrow’, it implies “sometime in the future, maybe tomorrow.” An English speaker learning Spanish, without appropriate cultural knowledge, will translate mañana to literally be “tomorrow”, and that expectation can lead to bad feelings about the culture and people, failed business transactions, or awkward social encounters.

Gilberte Furstenberg, in her research with the Cultura project at M.I.T. (1997) provides another example of the consequences of direct translation without cultural understanding. She conducted an experiment to enhance cultural understanding between France and the United States by pairing French and English language learners and introducing specific cultural questions. In her analysis she found that even a single word could lead to cross-cultural misunderstanding. The French have many words for friend and each one denotes the level of intimacy and closeness with the most intimate life-long friend termed ami(e) ‘friend’. Translating directly from the dictionary definition, ami(e) means “friend”, a word that Americans
use ubiquitously for best friend, coworker friend, neighbor friend and so on. The French students inferred that Americans were superficial because they referred to everyone as close, intimate relations. They felt Americans must have no real depth of feeling because no one has that many close friends. Without some additional explanation of these types of embedded meanings beyond what a dictionary may provide, cross-cultural confusion and unsuccessful interactions can occur.

**Historical Development of the Language/Culture Relationship**

Language instruction today stems from the historical foundations of anthropology, linguistics, sociology, psychology, sociolinguistics, applied linguistics, and second language acquisition theory. Reviewing the development of the language/culture relationship across fields and over time can help us understand how complex that relationship is and how we have arrived at our present situation with regards to instructional methods, classroom activities, and use of authentic materials.

The fields of anthropology and linguistics have long understood that a relationship exists between language and culture. In 1911, while studying Native American culture, the anthropologist Franz Boas declared “a command of the language is an indispensable means of obtaining accurate and thorough knowledge [of the culture that is being studied]” (as cited in Salzmann, 2004, p. 5). One might conclude that if a complete understanding of a language revealed aspects of culture, then the reverse must be true; knowing the underlying beliefs and values of a culture might explain language variance. However, this reverse application doesn’t come about until half a century later. In the 1930’s, more theories on language and culture followed such as the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, often called the principle of linguistic relativity, and Whorf’s theory of linguistic determinism which stated that linguistic usage influences cognition, or more strongly, language determines world view (Salzmann, 2004, p. 46). This
theory of language as a representation of world view appears in many fields, particularly in theories on social identity.

It was in the 1930’s that the field of linguistics diverged from the culture/language relationship. Based on Saussure’s linguistic structuralism, Bloomfield wrote *Language* in 1933, which moved semantics (and therefore sociolinguistics) out of the linguistic study of language. Linguists continued to study sounds and grammar, but semantics moved into the field of sociology (Agar, 1994, p. 56). The field of linguistics narrowed even further with Chomsky’s theory of transformational-generative grammar in the mid-1950’s. In response to this very narrow theoretical focus, the field of applied linguistics was created, drawing upon linguistics, anthropology, and psychology, sociology and education, with the aim to apply linguistic concepts into real life language problems. Research into first and second language acquisition grew out of applied linguistics, combining linguistics’ focus on phonology, morphology and syntax of a language with theories in learning. Culture and semantics remained on the fringe.

As awareness of the power implications of language grew in the 1960’s, policies such as the teaching of standardized English began to show up. An applied linguist named Charles Ferguson saw the need for sociologists and linguists to come together as a group to be able to provide research and guidance to politicians setting language policy. He convened the first committee of sociologists and linguists in 1963 – the beginning of sociolinguistics as a field (Ervin-Tripp, 1997, p. 65). This committee came to include John Gumperz, Dell Hymes and William Labov (Spolsky, 2011), all of whom produced theories that greatly influenced sociolinguistics and the field of language education today. From this point forward, there was a renewed focus on the culture/language relationship but unfortunately, even in the 1990’s language education had not caught up. Culture in the language classroom remained comprised of
external representations, “… superficially included in the forms of songs, food, and games” (Lange, 1999, p. 113). Clearly this kind of cultural information does not lead to understanding language nuances found in *mañana* and *ami(e)*. If external representations of culture do not lead to underlying values, beliefs and word choices, then what more needs to be considered? The answer can be found in theories that delve deeper into the social and cognitive factors that determine language, the representation of identity, and the inherent values and beliefs that manifest in speech events. These theories have led to multiple related and overlapping terms relevant to this study.

**The Development of Intercultural Communicative Competence**

From the 1960’s – 80’s, research from many fields contributed to our knowledge of cross-cultural communication. One of the most important concepts was to define what it means to be a competent speaker. Chomsky first raised the issue of competence when he defined linguistic competence as an innate and ideal knowledge of grammatical rules used to understand and produce language. He distinguished this from performance, how language is really used, but did not delve into why performance might differ, except to imply that non-standard performance simply meant a rule was improperly learned (Chomsky, 1964). In the next year, Hymes, based on his work with Gumperz in “The ethnography of communication” (December 1964), argued that competence was more about the knowledge of appropriate use rather than correctness or idealness. Grammar was only one aspect in his equation, with several other factors, interpreted through the target language cultural perspective, being more important. Specifically, he defined four criteria for communicative competence:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally *possible*;
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is *feasible* by virtue of the means of implementation available;

3. Whether (and to what degree) something is *appropriate* (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;

4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually *performed*, and what its doing entails (Hymes, 1972b, p. 281)

Hymes’ definition implies grammatical competence but only in the sense that whatever is said meets the four criteria of “possible, feasible, appropriate, and actually performed” rather than the perfect, ideal grammar of Chomsky’s competence. The ability to recognize and make linguistic judgments using these factors stems from sociocultural knowledge.

Communication theory gives us additional perspectives on intercultural interaction and the development of communicative competence. According to Self-categorization Theory (SCT), an individual will determine their behavior and language choices based on the context of the situation and will choose what is most salient. This begins by identifying the other person’s group category as well as our own. Harwood (2006, p. 88) stated that “Communication phenomena such as language use will raise or lower the salience of particular categorizations.”

SCT primarily aims at describing and explaining the specific nature of relationships between the self, social norms and the social context (Hornsey, 2008). As the knowledge and understanding of another culture increases, response options in a given communication event expand. Based on this aspect, cultural and communicative competency includes the motivation to expand self-categories and be more like the target group as well as having the knowledge and skills to make that accommodation.
The SCT focus is on interaction decisions based on context and categorization of the self and the other in terms of group stereotypes. We categorize the other person into a group by comparing the similarities and differences between ourselves and them. Language is a major factor in this group categorization because dialect, accent, vocabulary, grammar, and speech style all combine to identify an individual within social categories of gender, ethnicity, age, education level, and social status. A higher degree of knowledge about the other group leads to cognitive expansion of the stereotype model and a greater repertoire of appropriate responses. In other words, the more we know about another culture, the less homogeneous and stereotypical our response will be. A typical foreign language class presents limited sociolinguistic information and relies on formulaic content which can contribute to a learned stereotypical response. Students are presented with standard language practices and external representations of culture like food, music, and art. Television and media tend to portray different social groups with their most stereotyped traits. Without supplemental explanation, a foreigner viewing this type of realia may not recognize the presentation as a stereotype and may accept the content as commonplace. The result is the development of a narrow schema of the underlying behaviors, motivations, and purposes of speech events related to a social group, event, place, or activity. Communication choices are made as particular variables become relevant to the individual’s social identity, and the more narrow the schema, the more limited are the linguistic choices. Based on work from Abercrombie in 1967, Laver and Trudgill (1979) identified six markers to further classify speech production:

- Group marker – indicates membership in a group
- Individual marker – characteristics of the individual
- Affective marker – changes in affective state of speaker
- Social marker – indicates status, education, occupation, social role
- Physical marker – age, sex, physical features, health
- Psychological marker – characteristics of personality and affective state (p. 3)

As native speakers, these marker types are referenced, consciously and unconsciously, in our daily interactions with others. We must be aware of the participant identities in a speech act but there are several more factors of a speech event that have been identified. When learning a foreign language, these markers will likely need to be explicitly taught or create situations where students can implicitly deduce the importance of variations influenced by sociocultural factors.

Hymes also created a model to highlight linguistic features, expanding his theory of the four criteria regarding what is possible, feasible, appropriate and performed into an acronym “SPEAKING”. Within a speech event, Hymes identified the following factors that must be considered in order to demonstrate competence:

- S -setting and scene: time, place, and psychological setting.
- P -participants: the speaker, listener, audience, and any other participants
- E -ends: the desired or expected outcome
- A -act sequence: how form and content are derived
- K -key: the mood or spirit (serious, ironic, joking, etc.)
- I -instrumentalities: the dialect or language variety used by the speech community
- N -norms: conventions or expectations of speech community or communities
- G -genres: types of speaking performances (monologues, dialogue, discussion, etc.)

(1974, pp. 53-62)

His mnemonic model explains that during any speech act, a speaker must correctly consider the time and place. Is the conversation happening in a bar or a wedding? Is the conversation about
someone who died or a new baby born? Next, who are the interlocutors? Is the speaker talking to a boss or to a child? What is the goal of speaking? Does the speaker want the listener to take action, to be informed, to laugh? What happened before (the just previous speech event)? Is this an interruption, a response, or a change of topic? What tone of voice is the speaker using: serious, sarcastic, questioning? Are there purposeful changes in grammar or dialect to establish in-group cohesion? What is normal or expected by all participants? For example, you might be interrupting your boss, which would be unexpected in a formal situation. Finally, what is the function of the speech act (often related to the setting)? Is this a toast at a wedding, a poem, or a joke told in a bar? For any given speech act, one or more of these factors (not necessarily all at once) will be salient and almost all are culture-bound with inferred significance. Calling attention to those salient bits using the SPEAKING acronym would help learners move towards understanding the underlying belief and values that go into a communication event. As Gumperz (as cited in Hymes, 1972a, p. 37) states, “A sociolinguistic feature is a relation between a form and a sociolinguistic value.” The Hymes model provides just one more example of the kind of information that could be added to textbooks to foster a metalinguistic discussion of a dialogue or language sample.

It is this type of information along with sociolinguistic explanation that would be a useful addition in the FL classroom. There is a direct link to understanding this type of sociocultural information and the ability to produce appropriate speech. For example, in Japanese, the age, sex, and social status of the recipient is highly relevant to the level of formality in the speech produced. Noda (2007) illustrates the complexities in this example for choosing an appropriate greeting in Japanese:
• Age: The greeting people (and the audience) are very young, low teens, high teens, young adults, well-socialized adults, middle-aged, or older.

• Hierarchy: The greeting people are equal in rank, one higher than the other; the audience is of the same rank as the greeting people or higher or lower rank than one or both of the greeting people.

• Occupation: One (or both) of the greeting people is (are) a professional (e.g., teacher, medical doctor, hair stylist, politician), business person, or a non-professional.

• Group Affiliation: The greeting people belong or do not belong to the same relevant in-group at the time of greeting (p. 309)

In a Japanese language textbook, in the section for greetings, it would be essential to provide this additional type of information in order to choose the correct greeting form. Today’s textbooks usually present dialog in terms of functions (asking, expressing opinion, thanking, etc.) and will sometimes include information about setting, and the roles of the participants, providing some context but perhaps not enough. More sociolinguistic explanation within the textbooks, possibly using a framework such as the one suggested by Hymes or by Laver and Trudgill, would make the teaching and learning of this type of cultural content easier.

One more measure of competence is more related to mental and emotional responses. The communication accommodation theory (CAT) by Howard Giles (2008) argues that “when people interact they adjust their speech, their vocal patterns and their gestures, to accommodate to others.” The degree to which an individual is able and willing to accommodate by converging or becoming similar to the other speaker demonstrates a measure of competency. To become truly competent in another language, foreign language speakers must expand beyond their own cultural roots, to learn of other perspectives. While emotional response may be a bit beyond the
standard FL classroom, it seems self-evident that at least providing information about a culture’s underlying assumptions, values, and beliefs would be helpful to move toward this accommodation, a necessary step for appropriate interaction. As Durocher (2007, p. 145) states, “language cannot be separated from thought and thought is based on assumptions, values, and beliefs.” Allami and Naeimi (2011) investigated Iranian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners’ ability to produce American style refusals and their results indicate that the ability to perform certain speech functions in another language “requires the acquisition of the sociocultural values of the target language” (p. 385). The Iranian EFL learners were hindered by their native underlying values into producing more polite refusal forms than a native English speaker would use. They concluded “it is crucial for second language teachers to help learners enhance their knowledge or competence of appropriate use of speech acts in the target language and make them aware of L2 sociocultural constraints on the speech acts in order to be pragmatically competent” (pg. 400). In order to get past the native language cultural restrictions, opportunities for practicing culturally based variations is necessary to be able to produce the culturally appropriate forms in the foreign language.

Canale and Swain (1980) take the definition of communicative competence one step further. They incorporated grammatical competence (the learning of vocabulary and grammatical structure) and Hymes competence stemming from sociolinguistic understanding. Then they added a third area called strategic competence – the ability to use communication strategies to overcome breakdowns in communication such as gesturing, restatement, asking for clarification, and substitution (p. 27). Their definition also includes the ability to negotiate an interaction when the roles and status of the interlocutors are not yet clear. Canale and Swain define communicative competence as:
“[starting] with the relationship and interaction between grammatical competence, or knowledge of the rules of grammar, and sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of the rules of language use” (p. 6)

We can subdivide sociolinguistic competence further into “Sociocultural frameworks including values, beliefs, presuppositions, assumptions, norms, conventions, expectations, behaviors” (Jia, 2007, p. 43) and pragmatics - the ability to understand another speaker's intended meaning. Pragmatics interacts with “phonological, sociocultural, and world knowledge – with language users combining elements from all of these to achieve communicative goals” (Kasper, 1992, p. 29). Kasper and Rose (2002) call this interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) and state that “As the study of second language use, interlanguage pragmatics examines how nonnative speakers comprehend and produce action in a target language (p. 5). To develop communicative competence, language instruction must include grammar, vocabulary, and sociolinguistic information to foster the ability for students to perform that knowledge in communicative events.

Being able to successfully interact and communicate with other cultures is based on understanding and applying knowledge of the target language’s cultural norms. Bobda (September 2009) investigated how cultural knowledge can help in understanding language. He explains “…a word, even when considered monosemic, generally has a cluster of meanings depending on the mental representation of the referent by the speaker… (375). Beyond gaining the knowledge of how words are mentally represented, a language learner must also be able to perform – to produce the correct intended meaning in its cultural context. "It is not enough to acquire a cognitive knowledge of behavioral culture. The learner should know how to behave in the second culture; that is, he should develop a performative knowledge of its behavior patterns.” (Hammerly, 1982, pp. 514-515). In her research on how study abroad impacts the development
of cultural knowledge, Noda (2007, p. 299) humorously illustrates this point of mental representation of a single word with an example of “cricket”.

![Image of cricket examples from United States, China, and Thailand](image)

*Figure 1. Example of Performative Knowledge. This figure illustrates how mental representations of the same word may vary by culture.*

She states that “performance is considered to be a demonstration of cultural knowledge development” (p. 297). Beyond the simple mental representation, there are underlying values that become cultural reference points. One could go even further with Noda’s example and add that in England, cricket is a sport and they use an expression “that’s just not cricket” to mean something is unsportsmanlike. Swann, Deumert, Mesthrie, and Lillis (2004) define this type of knowledge as “a cognitive structure – a stereotypical representation of an object or an event, built up on the basis of people’s cultural knowledge and experiences” (p. 270). Words have meanings and implications beyond the standard dictionary definitions, meaning that without cultural knowledge, just selecting the right word can be a challenge.

To broadly encompass the idea that foreign language learners need to learn sociolinguistic knowledge and need to be able to product this appropriately, this study will use the term “intercultural communicative competence” (ICC). Fantini and Tirmizi (2006) define this as “a complex of abilities needed to perform effectively and appropriately when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself” (p. 12). This concept, ICC, includes the abilities to communicate, collaborate and maintain relationships as well as the
knowledge, positive attitude, skill and awareness needed to develop intercultural communicative competence (Fantini, 2005, p. 2). Assessment of performance is a significant part of this model. This term and the inclusion of assessment ties in to ACTFL standards and goals and is at the heart of this study.

ACTFL states that “while grammar and vocabulary are essential tools for communication, it is the acquisition of the ability to communicate in meaningful and appropriate ways with users of other languages that is the ultimate goal of today’s foreign language classroom” (2010, p. 3). To develop intercultural communicative competence, the speaker needs to understand the underlying beliefs and customs of the target language, how those beliefs determine linguistic choices, and be able to produce them where appropriate. In other words, some instruction in sociolinguistic practices and how they relate to cultural values is required as a part of the development of intercultural communicative competence. ACTFL has divided cultural content into 3 Ps: products, practices, and perspectives.

- **Products**—“Both Tangible and Intangible”
  
  Items required or justified by the underlying beliefs and values of that culture. Examples include books, arts and crafts, tools, foods, laws, dress, types of dwellings, music, dances, and games

- **Practices**—“What to Do When and Where”
  
  Patterns of social interactions or behaviors accepted by a society, such as rites of passage, use of forms of discourse, social “pecking order,” and use of space

- **Perspectives**—“Underlying beliefs and values”
  
  Representing that culture’s view of the world, including meanings, attitudes, values and ideas (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010, p. 33). Perspectives drive practices and products. While products such as art, music, food, and famous places have been well-covered in foreign language textbooks, the
books do not cover the underlying values of those products (Young, 1999). Sociolinguistic practices are possibly the least covered of the 3 Ps (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Pfingsthorn, 2012). When we broadly consider the various theories and definitions, two relevant points for language instruction are revealed. In order to accommodate, to form identities, to recognize and interpret situations, to appropriately choose the words and mannerisms required to approach in-group status – all of these concepts require the learner to know something about the underlying beliefs, values, and cultural norms of the target culture. Second, each of these concepts stem from the function of talking about the language at a metalinguistic level in order to truly develop understanding. Traditional language instruction, having its foundations in second language acquisition and by extension, linguistics, has concentrated on vocabulary and grammar and has not typically included metalinguistic explanations about what is possible, feasible, appropriate and performed (sociolinguistics).

**Foreign Language Instruction Today**

After WWII, the United States government realized there was a significant lack of proficient FL speakers and created the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) to measure current expertise in government employees and to develop more proficient speakers. This group created a 6-level scale (which includes cultural competence called “intercultural communication) and they also developed the standardized interview process still used today by ILR and ACTFL (Herzog, 2013). In the 1980’s, ACTFL developed its own Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) for academic purposes, based on the ILR. This internationally recognized tool measures speaking (performance and interactional), scoring on content, context, accuracy, text type, function and sociolinguistics, measurements that refer to vocabulary range, grammatical accuracy, a variety
of genres, registers, and appropriateness. The diagram below illustrates how the ACTFL levels are conceptualized (ACTFL, 2009).

**Figure 2. ACTFL Proficiency Scale**

One may question why these standards have been adopted in the K-12 system, but the reality is they have been widely accepted. ACTFL reports that in district curriculums “Only 2 states with standards created them without visible alignment to the Five Cs” (Phillips & Abbott, 2011, p. 8) and in a study of the Oral Proficiency Test (OPI), van Lier states that it generates so many suggestions for teaching methodology and classroom practices that it has provided the impetus for a clutch of pedagogical recommendations” (1989, pp. 490-491). Ten years later, Yoffe (Sept. 1997) made a similar statement that “the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines have a strong effect on the content and the teaching methodology of many foreign language courses. The guidelines are used to evaluate foreign language proficiency of secondary teachers in a number of states, and have been accepted as a standard measure” (p. 2). Because they have been so broadly accepted, it is important to delve into how well we are meeting these standards.

Despite two decades of explicit focus on bringing culture back into language curriculum, research continues to identify serious issues in implementation. In the history of language instruction, vocabulary and grammar, along with standardized, formulaic sentences have been
the primary focus of instruction with little to no time spent on how cultural and social norms and the underlying belief systems affect sociolinguistic choices and behaviors. In a recent report, ACTFL found that is still true, stating that “79% of the classroom focus is on Communication, and 22% on Culture” (Phillips & Abbott, 2011, p. 12). In addition, assessment of cultural knowledge continues to pose difficulties. Schulz (2007), researching assessment of culture in a FL, explains the difficulty in moving from the theoretical understanding of what is needed for cultural and sociolinguistic content to the selection, implementation and assessment in the class. She stated that “there is no agreement on how culture should be defined operationally in the context of the foreign language curriculum in terms of concrete instructional objectives, and there is even less consensus on whether or how it should be formally assessed” (p. 9). The problem of consensus stems from an assumption that there is some universal cultural view that every teacher of a particular language will be using. One German teacher, voicing most of his colleagues’ sentiments, said “I think [people] expect too much from the foreign language teacher, assuming a cultural knowledge and an ability to overlook the teacher’s own native attitudes that may not actually be present (Byram & Kramsch, Winter, 2008, p. 21).

There are also many concerns with the cultural content in the textbooks. In a pilot study, I observed a Japanese language class (Marrs, 2009) and conducted informal interviews of several foreign language teachers, and found that this area of foreign language methodology remains underdeveloped. The textbooks have insufficient materials, so teachers self-select cultural and sociolinguistic items that seem most critical or relevant at the time. Teachers expressed a desire to add more culture and sociolinguistic material, indicating that supplemental materials must be found to do so, making it more difficult to implement and increasing variability from classroom to classroom. Other issues with course content include type of cultural content addressed,
authenticity issues, and simply not having enough cultural content included in the published course materials. Recently, textbooks have made attempts to include some sociolinguistic information such as setting and social context, but perhaps not to the extent needed. In terms of Canale and Swain’s definition of communicative competence, textbooks seem to be adequately covering the grammatical competence and some of the strategic competence (by organizing content based on speech functions), but they do not take the next step to fully explain the sociolinguistic factors - which linguistic features found in the dialog are affected by the nature of the situation and participant identities, what dialogic changes occur as these factors change.

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) in their chapter “Adapting textbooks for teaching pragmatics” extensively document the shortcomings of current textbooks and state “L2 textbooks can be insufficient both in their sampling of pragmatics, as well as in the quality of the treatment of pragmatics even when it is included” (p. 148). In an in-depth study of ESL/EFL textbooks, Vellenga (September 2004) found “there is a dearth of metalinguistic and metapragmatic information related to ways of speaking in textbooks… even when metapragmatic information is included, it is frequently limited in the range of options for expression presented to students” (p. 150).

In an analysis of Japanese textbooks, Mori (2005) identified areas where the typical short model dialogs lack the sociolinguistic explanations that could lead to better acquisition and the development of intercultural communicative competence, such as metalinguistic information regarding specific linguistic forms in longer exchanges, the social identities of the participants, and the appropriate tones needed (279-280). The problem found in the textbooks was eloquently summarized by Pfingsthorn (2012), who stated:
Taking into consideration how prolific research in the field of interlanguage pragmatics has been over the last three decades, the relative lack of practical application of the insights gathered in empirical studies is astounding. Not only do many available textbooks lack examples of activities that teach or assess pragmatic skills…but guidelines how to create effective learning environments that promote the development of pragmatic competence are practically non-existing (p. 538).

This leaves teachers stuck providing verbal explanations based on personal knowledge and trying to find needed examples on their own in order to meet state and national standards found in AP exams and ACTFL. This is time-consuming and leads to wide variations in student experiences from instructor to instructor. The result is inadequate and variable sociolinguistic instruction in the foreign language classroom and perhaps lower numbers of high-achieving students on national exams. Even though the sociolinguistic content that is “required” for a specific language remains undefined, the general competencies and outcomes have been described by ACTFL and generally accepted into foreign language curriculum.

Not only have ACTFL standards become part of most schools district curriculums, it has also be incorporated into AP exam scoring. The ACTFL measurements have been used to develop the national Advanced Placement (AP) exam, which in turn has influenced AP course curriculum for each language (CollegeBoard, 2012b). Below is a chart of the oral standards for the AP exam:

**Table 1**
AP 2010 Interpersonal Scoring Guide  (CollegeBoard, 2012a, p. 2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCORE</th>
<th>TASK COMPLETION</th>
<th>TOPIC DEVELOPMENT</th>
<th>LANGUAGE USE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Demonstrates excellence</td>
<td>• Fully addresses and completes the task.</td>
<td>• Relevant, thorough treatment of all or almost complex structures;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Writing Quality</td>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 4     | Demonstrates command | • Appropriately addresses and completes the task.  
• Responds appropriately to all or almost all of the parts/prompts of the conversation.  
• Relevant, well-developed treatment of the elements of the thread of the conversation.  
• Well-organized, generally cohesive responses.  
• Generally accurate social and/or cultural references included. | • Use of complex structures, but may contain more than a few errors.  
• Very good vocabulary.  
• Very good fluency.  
• Very good pronunciation.  
• Register is generally appropriate. | | |
| 3     | Demonstrates competence | • Addresses and completes the task.  
• Responds adequately to most parts/prompts of the conversation.  
• Relevant treatment of the elements of the thread of the conversation.  
• Organized responses with adequate cohesiveness.  
• Generally appropriate social and/or cultural references included. | • Control of simple structures, with few errors; may use complex structures with little or no control.  
• Good range of vocabulary, but may have occasional interference from another language.  
• Good fluency, with occasional hesitance; some successful self-correction.  
• Good pronunciation.  
• Register is generally appropriate. | | |
As this table shows, a score of 5 means the speaker demonstrated “accurate social and cultural references” and “register is highly appropriate”. The performance indictors provide description of cultural and linguistic capabilities to set targets for K-12 language instruction but fail to define what “accurate social and/or cultural references” means in terms of a particular language items or behaviors. According to the president of ACTFL, Dr. Swender, in an e-newsletter to the ACTFL community, reported that the initial correlation studies indicate the AP scores 3, 4, and 5 for spoken proficiency, shown above, most closely correspond to ACTFL OPI levels Intermediate-low, -mid, and -high, possibly up to the Advanced-low level although she notes that more correlational studies need to be done to verify precise levels (November 30, 2010). In the ACTFL standards guide, at the intermediate level, ACTFL performance indicators describe the speaker’s level of cultural knowledge as “recognizes and uses some culturally appropriate vocabulary, expressions and gestures when participating in everyday interactions” (ACTFL, 2012b, p. 2) while advanced low speakers can “contribute to the conversation with sufficient accuracy, clarity, and precision to convey their intended message without misrepresentation or confusion” (ACTFL, 2012a, p. 6).

The highest level, far beyond the expected K-12 experience, is someone who can communicate “with accuracy, efficiency, and effectiveness…in a culturally appropriate manner” and “tailor language to a variety of audiences by adapting their speech and register in ways that are culturally authentic” (ACTFL, 2012a, p. 4). The distinguishing feature for speakers who reach intermediate levels and beyond versus those who with lower scores is the cultural and social appropriateness and their ability to communicate without misunderstandings – a measure of intercultural communicative competence.
These standards provide a general picture of what we want foreign language learners to achieve and yet, based on the latest AP exam scores, typically less than 15% of students receive a 5 on the AP exams (ACTFL intermediate level). The May 2012 AP results indicated the following level 5 results: German 12.3%, Italian 11%, French 12.9%, Spanish 13.7%, Japanese 19.5%, and Chinese 28.7% (CollegeBoard, 2012c). The higher results in Japanese and Chinese were due to the high level of heritage speaking students, 50% in the Japanese classes and 80% in the Chinese classes (TotalRegistration, 2012). What can account for the low success rate of students demonstrating intercultural communicative competence?

Research into the instructional methods, assessment, second language acquisition and the development of intercultural communicative competence serve as the foundation for teacher training, curriculum development and classroom practice. In developing intercultural communicative competence, ACTFL culture seems most relevant, particularly any coverage of practices and perspectives. These two areas give students the most insight into how to make appropriate language choices. However, there is some question about how the 3 Ps may be addressed by the three groups most directly involved with FL instruction: higher education institutions that provide training, publishers that develop course materials, and instructors who put these resources into practice. Based on that conceptualization, teachers, publishers, and educational institutions were interviewed as part of this study in order to examine how they relate to each other, to the foundation of research and how they each approach the 3 Ps. The following model demonstrates the potential interaction of these groups.
Figure 3. Illustration of factors impacting the inclusion of development of ICC in the foreign language classroom
Understanding how researchers, content developers, teacher trainers, and instructors have approached the implementation of the 3 Ps, perhaps we can begin filling in the missing components needed to assist teachers in developing competent speakers and reveal where more work can be done to improve teacher training, content creation, and guide future curriculum planning decisions toward the goal of creating competent FL speakers.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative study is to investigate how teacher educators, content developers and classroom instructors respond to the call for more of ACTFL’s 3 Ps (products, practices, and perspectives) in order to develop intercultural communicative competence.

Research on second language acquisition, content creation, teacher education, and classroom
practice are intertwined theoretically, but the full extent and nature of those relationships in practice is unclear. By learning more about how each group approaches the need for more sociolinguistic content and strategies for teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence, we may reveal where more work can be done to improve teacher education, content creation, classroom instruction and guide future curriculum planning decisions.

Research Questions

This dissertation addresses the following research questions:

1. **Status of instruction in the 3 Ps in the classroom:** How do teachers go about selecting which products, practices and perspectives will be covered in the course of a semester? What strategies do they use to teach each of these? What weight do they give them in the curriculum? How do they assess knowledge of the 3 Ps and the development of intercultural communicative competence?

2. **Teacher education programs:** How have foreign language teacher preparation programs equipped teachers with the tools and knowledge they need to incorporate sociolinguistic explanations and expanded cultural content, based on the 3 Ps? What strategies for instruction for the 3 Ps and the assessment of intercultural communicative competence are included as part of training curriculum?

3. **Content development/Publishers:** How have shifts in methods and desired content been articulated to publishing companies, in particular, the 3 Ps? How have they responded to the need for more content to cover products, practices and perspectives? What weight do they give each category? Do publishing companies face any constraints to be able to respond to requests for new directions? If so, what are they?
4. Do any discrepancies in approach to the 3 Ps among the three groups negatively impact the ability to teach and learn intercultural communicative competence in the FL classroom?

**Significance**

Teachers are still struggling with implementation, assessment and finding sufficient authentic materials to develop more culture content in the foreign language classroom and help their students achieve intercultural communicative competence. By identifying and understanding any existing gaps between research and practice, I hope to create awareness for researchers, teacher educators, content developers, and the teachers themselves about the process required to move research into common instructional practice without placing an undue burden on the teacher to implement research without an underlying support of related systems. Through this awareness, teacher education programs may find areas of improvement, content developers may discover new ways of presenting all aspects of culture, and teachers may have more tools for instruction and assessment to help students develop intercultural communicative competence.
Chapter 2

Literature Review

This chapter reviews the historical development of second language acquisition theories, their associated methodologies, and their impact on our current strategies for teaching communicative competence in the classroom. In addition, existing research on national standards for competency, implementation issues, textbook deficiencies and best practices will provide further details on the progress that has been made and the areas that need further development. By taking a historical view, we can see to what extent theory and practice in research has found its way into teacher training, classroom practice, and published course content.

National Standards for Intercultural Communicative Competence

The path for language learners to move toward accommodation, to understand social identities and group markers, begins with the development of understanding the belief systems and values of the target cultures. National professional organizations on language instruction such as the Modern Language Association (MLA) and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL) have incorporated this concept into the national standards for instruction. MLA recommends that a student majoring in foreign language should have “translingual and transcultural competence”, meaning that the student learns to “reflect on the world and themselves through another language and culture” (Byram & Kramsch, Winter, 2008, p. 20; MLA, 2007). The goal is for the speaker to move between both language s and cultures fluidly, to develop multiple literacies, to “fit” within either environment in terms of language and culture. In order to perceive the world through the other group, a level of understanding must be reached that simultaneously decreases generic stereotyping and the perceived intergroup distance. Knutson suggests that we should aim for “cross-cultural awareness” rather than the
study of another culture (June 2006). Investigating our own culture (c1) and comparing it to the target culture (c2) leads to a better understanding of values. As Knutson points out, studying about a culture represents the target culture as “other” (p. 592) which maintains group boundaries. Kramsch proposes that conducting cross-cultural side-by-side comparisons leads to a third perspective, an intercultural in-group/out-group blending (1993, p. 210) or as Brown (2007, p. 153) calls it, a “cross-cultural mind”.

The pedagogy of foreign language instruction explicitly supports the MLA reference to “transcultural competence” by including culture as a discrete instructional area and references how culture is tied to other language focus areas. ACTFL (2010) produced the National Standards in Foreign Language Education and organized the focus areas into five “C’s”: communication, cultures, connections, comparisons, communities. In addition to communication, two more of the five “C’s” directly refer to cultural elements that determine communicative competence:

- **COMMUNICATION**: Communicate in languages other than English
  Standard 1.2: Understand and interpret written and spoken language on a variety of topics
- **CULTURES**: Gain knowledge and understanding of other cultures
  Standard 2.1: Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the practices and perspectives of the culture studied
  Standard 2.2: Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the products and perspectives of the culture studied
- **COMPARISONS**: Develop insight into the nature of language and culture
  Standard 4.2: Students demonstrate understanding of the concept of culture through comparisons of the cultures studied and their own. (ACTFL, 2000)
For standard 1.2, by grade 12, students should “demonstrate an increasing understanding of the cultural nuances of meanings…in formal and informal settings” (p. 5). They have described the “Cultures” category (standards 2.1 and 2.2) as having three components: products, practices and perspectives. Perspectives are the underlying values, beliefs, and traditional ideas that underpin the entire culture. Products are the physical representations of those underlying beliefs “(e.g., a painting, a piece of literature, a pair of chopsticks) or intangible (e.g., an oral tale, a dance, a sacred ritual, a system of education based on perspectives” (p. 6). Practices refer to the non-verbal behaviors that accompany speech such as a bow, eye contact, or the physical distance between speakers and the linguistic choices made during a speech event.

Durocher (2007) makes a similar distinction by dividing cultural content into two categories. Objective culture includes information on the history, politics, family, marriage, art, music, and religion of the target culture. This objective cultural content is factual and easy to assess. Standard foreign language textbooks typically have sidebars for cultural products although some attempts have been made in the last 10 years to include more content on practices and perspectives. Subjective culture includes “an invisible component (assumptions, values, and beliefs) and a visible component (behaviors)” (p. 145), corresponding to ACTFL’s perspectives and practices. Perhaps because practices and perspectives are viewed as subjective, they are less often included in the curriculum, even though those components are essential to the development of intercultural communicative competence. As stated in the introduction, current high school AP exams now measure the level of awareness of target language social and cultural references and the use of appropriate register in production in order to receive a top score of “5”. In an interview conducted as part of my pilot study, one foreign language instructor said “it is nearly impossible to score a 5 on the AP exam unless the student has spent time in the target language...
country”. The current curriculum for language learning includes grammar, reading, writing, speaking, listening, along with some objective cultural items (products) and a small degree of subjective culture (practices and perspectives). When practices, especially sociolinguistic practices are covered, the greater share of the burden of choosing source material and creating assessments has fallen on the individual instructor.

**Second Language Acquisition and the Teaching of Communicative Competence**

Methodologies for teaching foreign languages developed and changed as the fields of linguistics and psychology evolved over time. Interestingly, features of many early methods were at one point discarded and have subsequently resurfaced in today’s methodologies. Therefore it is informative to review the theoretical underpinnings of various methodologies and how they may be applied today.

The earliest method, grammar-translation, was intended for scholarly reading and writing, where there was no need for oral production. It focused explicitly on grammar, and included direct language comparison. Despite its intentionally limited focus, it was highly criticized for not developing fluent speakers and was replaced with the Direct Method whose entire focus was on oral production with no grammar instruction or native language (L1) allowed. Yet the notion of language comparison is part of today’s ACTFL 5 C’s and grammatical competence has been clearly established as part of communicative competence for language learners. The audio-lingual method came next and was based on Bloomfield’s structural linguistics and Skinner’s behaviorist theory of learning. Still focused on oral production, grammar was reintroduced but in formulaic patterns of grammar and sentence structures which could be memorized through repetition. Errors were immediately corrected (Casco, 2009).

Although several features of this method would not survive, oral production remains a primary
goal for nearly all future methods that develop. Finally, of the earliest methods, the notional-functional syllabus was developed in response to objections to the audio-lingual method of organizing by grammatical structures. The functional syllabus provided more accessible and immediate language interaction possibilities rather than focusing on learning based on a verb tense, for example. Initially presented as a way to organize content, it was established as an approach by Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) in their book *The Functional Notional Approach* and is still used today in the communicative language teaching method.

Chomsky’s ideas on transformational-generative grammar changed the direction of language learning from that point forward. No longer was language viewed as a set of patterns and structures that could be memorized. Language was seen as ever evolving, with an infinite number of new formations possible. In that same decade, cognitivism and a humanistic approach replaced behaviorism as the dominant learning model. Language was now seen as a creative mental process, where focused attention and practice would lead to automaticity. Moreover, anything that interfered with mental processing, such as an individual’s motivation or anxiety level needed to be addressed. The cognitive code learning method was developed, emphasizing the practice of grammar structures but in a meaningful way rather than through repetition. The belief was that language learning was a conscious process (Larsen-Freeman, 2007) and therefore purposeful activities engaged the mind and were more motivating. The Total Physical Response (TPR) method developed by James Asher in the 1960’s was an attempt to reduce anxiety by eliminating the need for immediate oral production. It is based on the idea that children learn their first language (L1) by listening and acting rather than speaking first. In learning a foreign language, students mimic the L1 process by listening to commands from the teacher who is using the target language and students guess at what action is required (Krashen, December 1998).
Appropriate timing is a component of today’s notion of communicative competence and requires the learner to develop some automatic processing. This method is still occasionally used today and helps increase mental processing/response time.

Theories on the social nature of learning also influenced today’s language teaching methodologies. Vygotsky’s zones of proximal development theory was the basis of the social model of learning (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006), and from this theory, several classroom strategies evolved including collaborative learning, modeling, scaffolding and role-playing. Shaftel and Shaftel (1981)’s model for role-play is widely used today in the practice and assessment of intercultural communicative competence. Vygotsky’s theory of social learning helped form the basis of today’s communicative methodology.

From a cognitive perspective, Michael Long developed the interaction hypothesis in which he proposed that second language acquisition (SLA) improved during interaction between a native speaker (NS) and a non-native speaker (NNS). As the NNS becomes aware of gaps in meaning, and uses communication strategies to negotiate those gaps, then more learning occurs. He developed a model to explain how this might work (1983, p. 214):

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 4. Illustration of negotiated meaning leading to language acquisition**

In this model, the successful negotiation of meaning between interlocutors is the key for improved SLA. When the NNS asks for clarification, for example, and the NS modifies and
restates in a manner that allows the interaction to continue forward, then the NNS’s comprehension improves. Pica (1994) explains that the three factors involved during the negotiation are the “learners' comprehension of L2 input, their production of modified output, and their attention to L2 form” (p. 500). In an earlier study, T. Pica and Doughty (1985, p. 119) researched the effect of communication strategies commonly used to negotiate meaning in normal conversation such as self-repetition, comprehension check, completion, correction, clarification request, and confirmation check. They found that language learners who negotiated meaning using these strategies learned more and recommended these strategies be explicitly taught in the language classroom. In Canale and Swain’s definition of communicative competence (1980), this falls under the strategic competence category.

Coinciding with theories on learning through social interaction, the sociolinguistic field was developing theories on social factors influencing speech act, resulting in today’s definition of communicative competence. Influences from these two fields, sociolinguistics and the social learning approach would lead to the development of the communicative language teaching model (CLT). This method has several features that relate to developing communicative competence. Teachers use as much authentic material as possible. Through these materials, some discussion of social context and sociolinguistic features can be included as well as explicit instruction on communication strategies like asking for clarification or asking a speaker to slow down. The teacher becomes more of a facilitator in helping students negotiate meaning rather than leading the class in the rote memorization of modeled sentences.

Perhaps the biggest criticism of CLT, with direct negative impact on developing communicative competence, is its perceived lack of direct grammar instruction. The model places an emphasis on interaction with the stated goal of gaining communicative competence
through spoken and written practice. The CLT method strongly focuses on the acquisition of vocabulary and the ability to perform linguistic functions, without being too concerned about linguistic form (Savignon, 2002). In 1987, Spada tested the effects of adding a grammar focus to the communicative approach (Lightbown & Spada, 1993, p. 99). The students were tested in the areas of listening, reading, speaking, grammar, writing and sociolinguistics in a pre and post proficiency test. The students who were given more grammatical instruction outperformed the other groups in all areas except oral proficiency. Long (1991) developed a method called “focus on form” that proposed calling attention to linguistic forms as they arise naturally during a communicative event or practice. The primary goal is still communication but the episodic focus on form concept unites explicit grammar discussion as it arises situationally with the CLT method to correct the shortcomings of CLT. Lightbown and Spada implemented this method in a study in Quebec and additionally reviewed other similar experiments (1993, pp. 100-102). All the experiments, including theirs, demonstrated significantly higher post test scores for students receiving grammar instruction along with a communicative approach.

The Task-based language teaching (TBLT) method was popularized by Prabhu (1990) in 1987 to formally incorporate grammar instruction back into teaching methodology. This method originates from CLT and retains similar features such as having no single instructional “method”, specific syllabus or content. TBLT however, explicitly utilizes tasks as activities and includes a focus on form. The goal is to develop communication strategies to negotiate meaning, to accomplish a task with a clear outcome while allowing the teacher to call attention to specific grammatical corrections along the way. Prabhu (1990) defines a task as "an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process" (p. 24). Klapper (2003)
further defines TBLT activities as “meaning-based activities closely related to learners’ actual communicative needs and with some real-world relationship, in which learners have to achieve a genuine outcome” (p. 35). Success is based on whether the task was accomplished. In CLT, the interactive activity can be meaningful but may not have a specific task to accomplish as an outcome. The second difference is the change in focus on grammatical structures. Klapper distinguishes the two methods by stating that TBLT “…crucially insists that acquisition needs to be supported by instruction that ensures a certain attention to linguistic form, that initial fluency work should lead gradually to accuracy-focused activities (p. 35). CLT remains focused on meaning, without regard or correction to grammar during the exchange. Michael Long explains that TBLT does not want to return to the discrete-point grammar focus…working on isolated linguistic structures…but rather shifting learners’ attention to the linguistic code features as problems occur in the context of an otherwise meaning-focused lesson (1985, p. 179). Ellis (2009) clarifies the features of the method – it has an emphasis on meaning (semantic and pragmatic), but the ability to dip in to focus on form as the task progresses; the use of the target language to accomplish something meaningful makes it more salient and motivating; and although learner-centered, this approach does allow for moments of more teacher control. As with any method to date, this one has some issues. I would argue that in a FL setting, finding situations of “actual communicative need” is a tough goal for any teacher. Also, it is questionable whether all relevant language needed to develop communicative competence can be covered in task-based activities.

Both of these methods have been criticized for being a bit vague on methodology. Brandl (2008) acknowledges that the challenge for CLT instructors is two-fold. The choices of material, activities, and focus are based on "what it means to ‘know’ a language, to be proficient in a
language, and what communicative abilities entail” (p. 21) and yet the current standards provided by ACTFL proficiency guidelines remain broad. ACTFL does not explicitly define “what it means to know a language”. On the other hand, Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011, p. 115) state that this eclectic approach is exactly what has made the method successful and sustainable over 30 years to be able to respond to the unique needs of each class environment. However, that also means that class by class there is a great deal of variability in instruction since it is up to the teacher to construct the learning experiences, mainly with the goal of maximizing target language production. Actually, pattern of utilizing multiple methods has become the norm and the desired state. In 2006, the editor of TESOL Quarterly, Suresh Canagarajah, reviewed the 40 year history of language instruction. He reflected, as have others (Prabhu, 1990), that we are in a “post-method” era (p. 20) where teachers can select the best methods based on individual needs rather than being locked into one methodological orientation. Previously, as our understanding of language learning and acquisition grew, there was often wholesale replacement of an outdated method for a new method, to the detriment of the profession. Even today we value language comparison as one strategy toward language learning – a technique that began far back with grammar translation method. Over the years, each new method has added valuable strategies that are useful in developing communicative competence. Teaching outside the boundaries of any specific methodology means we can draw upon the best strategies and techniques to fit the unique needs of the individual classroom.

One point of concern for T. Pica and Doughty (1985) was whether having non-native speakers interacting with each other (rather than an interaction with a native speaker) would really lead to communicative competence. They investigated the theory of interaction further by studying the small group interactions that occur in ESL classrooms. They found that the
interactions between teacher and student were more grammatical and more often used modified inputs and other communication strategies (clarification, restatement, etc.) between the teacher and the student, even though there were few opportunities for a single student to interaction with the teacher directly. When non-native speakers worked together in small groups, opportunities for practice in the target language increased but grammatical production and communicative strategies decreased (p. 132). Increasing interaction with native speakers would improve the outcomes, in terms of more grammatical examples and negotiated meaning, but in the FL setting, it is difficult to provide enough native-speaker (NS) interaction. Study abroad programs are considered one avenue of providing intensive and authentic NS interactions.

There is a firm belief that study and travel abroad will automatically increase fluency and communicative competence. Certainly, the opportunity to practice daily can lead to some automatic functioning and the learning of standard (oft-repeated) phrases. But the expectations for gains go beyond this. This solution is predicated on the belief that students notice differences in native speaker production compared to their own, or notice new speech acts and are able to analyze and apply them. As Schmidt (1995) stated, he uses “‘noticing’ to mean conscious registration of the occurrence of some event, whereas ‘understanding’…implies recognition of a general principle, rule, or pattern” (p. 29). What are the implications for course content? Instruction that includes techniques in increasing awareness to notice and metalinguistic techniques to analyze samples and develop a rule (which can then be tested “in action”) will result in higher levels of proficiency. However, a review of study abroad programs indicates students are not employing these techniques and thus they come back with better vocabulary and automaticity but not necessarily improved sociolinguistic competence.
Thompson (2007), an instructor of Japanese, described a conversation with an American student who had recently returned from a study abroad program in Japan. Despite spending a semester in Japan, the student’s body language and mannerisms were all American – no bow, hands in pockets – and the word choices and phrasing matched the American informal speech style used with peers as well as superiors. Although they were both American and back in the United States, the teacher had a relationship with his students to be as authentic as possible when conversing in Japanese. He said there was an “informal custom in our program of sticking to Japanese linguistic and cultural conventions as much as possible even outside of class” (p. 316). Despite this custom between student and teacher, after a study abroad, the student did not demonstrate additional authenticity. As Thompson reflected, the student’s language production was more fluent but it just wasn’t “native-like” (p. 318) and the lack of cultural development after the study abroad surprised him. From analyzing study abroad programs, Thompson found the same lack of focus on culture and sociolinguistics in study abroad programs as were found in FL classrooms in the U.S. Namely, students did not demonstrate much more development of communicative competence and they did not know how to take advantage of the experience abroad from a sociolinguistic perspective. In his report to the Association of Teachers of Japanese (ATJ), he stated there seemed to be “little or no instruction pertaining to the practical and theoretical issues associated with the pragmatic, contextual, and paralinguistic dimensions of Japanese communication” (p. 320) neither in the FL language classroom before the semester abroad, nor in the language classroom in Japan. Students were not able to perceive and interpret the authentic examples presented in daily life and therefore did not acquire them. Kasper and Rose (2002), in their book *Pragmatic Development in a Second Language*, assert that “pragmatic functions and relevant contextual factors are often not salient to learners and so not likely to be
noticed despite prolonged exposure” (p. 237) and therefore some sociolinguistic instruction that builds awareness is required in the foreign language classroom.

**Best Practices in Sociolinguistic Instruction and Assessment of Intercultural Communicative Competence**

Given the plethora of techniques that have stemmed from the history of foreign language teaching methodologies, which are the most critical to developing intercultural communicative competence? In the last 10 years, several research studies have been conducted in language classrooms, targeting the acquisition of discrete pragmatic features and these experiments have helped to identify some best practices. In an intermediate Spanish class, Koike and Pearson (2005) experimented with providing explicit versus implicit instruction and feedback to determine which method increased pragmatic production. Referring to sociolinguistic content as “pragmatic elements”, they taught the elements that are “used to convey varying degrees of force and politeness in suggestions and responses to suggestions (p. 483). For the explicit instruction, they provided language samples in advance and as a class discussed the variations and usage before doing exercises. Below is one example of information provided to students at the beginning of a lesson about variations on making a suggestion in Spanish:

| Tienes que (hablar) | You have to (speak) | More direct |
| Sugiero que (hables) | I suggest (you speak) |
| Me gustaría que (hablaras) | I would like (you to speak) |
| Sería mejor si (fueras) | It would be better if (you go) |
| ¿Por qué no (vas)? | Why don’t (you go)? |
| ¿Qué tal si (vas)? | How about if (you go)? |
| ¿No quieres (ir)? | Don’t you want (to go)? |

**Figure 5:** Pre-instruction information about Spanish suggestions. (p.486)
Students were given scenarios such as one friend telling another they needed to quit smoking. Various forms for making suggestions were presented in a sample dialogue and analyzed before students did their own exercises and language production. For the implicit instruction and feedback, students were given the forms but with no accompanying discussion and the teacher used the technique of negotiating meaning during the exercise exchanges to guide students to the appropriate form. The results of the six week modified instruction resulted in statistically significant improvement in test scores (p=.003) for the explicit group compared to the control group that received no instruction in pragmatic elements. The implicit group also scored higher than the control group and did slightly better on producing appropriate forms in speech than (p.489) than the explicit group. Over time, once the special instruction stopped, the improvements dropped off. This led Koike and Pearson to conclude that “…explicit instruction and feedback are effective in helping learners understand pragmatic elements and contexts by calling their attention to pragmatic form”. But implicit instruction, and especially the implicit feedback in the form of question recasts, may help learners produce appropriate pragmatic utterances” (p. 495). This technique relates back to Long (1991) who recommends a focus on form in language pedagogy and Pica (1994; 1998) who explains how negotiated language can lead to increased intercultural communicative competence and second language acquisition.

Takahashi (2005) conducted a similar experiment with Japanese learners of advanced English learning request forms. The teacher used a version of the explicit/implicit framework to teach students bi-clausal requests such as “(a) I wonder if you could VP (verb phrase); (b) Would it be (or is it) possible to VP? (c) Do you think you could VP?” (p. 439). Up until this lesson, the class had learned direct modal requests such as “Would you/could you + VP” and they also had a preconception that English speakers were more direct so a direct form was most appropriate. In
this experiment, the form-comparison group (FC) compared their own responses to those of native speakers (NS) and discussed differences. They noticed the softened form and its implications for lessening the imposition created by making a request. The form-search group (FS) compared NS responses to non-native speaker (NNS) responses. The NNS responses tended to use more direct modals rather than bi-clausal modals but the FS group perceived this to be appropriate and failed to notice the implications of the bi-clausal structure.

Takahashi’s results indicated that the more explicit method of comparison led to more noticing and the noticing led to more accurate production (p. 442-445). In both these experiments it should be noted that increased awareness and understanding did not automatically result in complete acquisition. Rather both studies showed improved rates of production/acquisition when these techniques are used. In a similar study of Spanish learners of EFL learning requests, where the instructor employed explicit and implicit techniques, Alcón Soler (2005) was led to conclude “a planned pedagogical action seems likely to be implemented in the foreign language context by providing learners with authentic audiovisual input, opportunities to become aware of language use and feedback about language norms in particular settings” (p.430). It seems clear that instructor-led use of noticing and metalinguistic analysis improves the development of intercultural communicative competence.

One method that can provide terminology and a framework for analysis of discourse comes from conversational analysis (CA). Kasper (2006) lists essential components of interactional competence which include proper sequencing and transitioning of discursive activities, turn taking, repair (of failed speech acts), constructing social identities and co-constructing conversation (negotiating meaning). The framework provided by CA techniques can allow language learners a basis for metalinguistic analysis and class discussion.
Barraja-Rohan (2011) experimented with a group of long-term Asian immigrants to Australia who had failed to learn the necessary L2 sociolinguistic features to demonstrate intercultural communicative competence, especially turn-taking. She taught students relevant CA terminology so that as a class they could conduct metalinguistic and linguistic analysis of conversations. She concludes, “It is apparent that the L2 students who participated in the two groups gained much knowledge about interaction, language and intercultural communication as well as confidence in speaking English (p. 498). By providing the terminology and methods of CA to the students, Barraja-Rojan gave her students the tools they needed to conduct explicit analysis and enhance their understanding of the pragmatic elements. Based on Barraja-Rojan’s work, Huth and Taleghani-Nikazm (2006) provide practical guidelines for using CA-based materials into FL instruction. They list several benefit: CA materials are authentic conversation examples, they provide task-based exercises during analysis phase, and use a communicative approach during practice. This “enable(s) students to anticipate, interpret and produce the target language sequences underlying particular verbal activities so that they may act socio-pragmatically appropriately” (p. 65). Takimoto (2009) investigated other types of input-based instruction. He used structured input-based tasks and problem-solving tasks that called attention to pragmalinguistic–sociopragmatic features related to making requests in English. All three experimental groups resulted in significantly better (p=.000) in discourse completion, role-playing, and listening, nearly doubling their scores from pretest to posttest, whereas the control group had little change. Interestingly, the one group that received instructor-led explicit instruction was the only group that did not retain improvement over time. The two groups that used problem-solving on the structured input material had longer-term gains.
Kumaravadivelu (2006, p. 69), in a 25th anniversary review of the TESOL field, summarizes ten macro strategies that should be part of the language classroom:

They are (a) maximize learning opportunities, (b) facilitate negotiated interaction, (c) minimize perceptual mismatches, (d) activate intuitive heuristics, (e) foster language awareness, (f) contextualize linguistic input, (g) integrate language skills, (h) promote learner autonomy, (i) ensure social relevance, and (j) raise cultural consciousness.

Relating these macro-strategies to specific classroom procedures and content, the language classroom that hopes to maximize pragmatic learning, should include:

- Focus on form
- Structured input and explicit/implicit instruction to enhance noticing
- Language comparison, culture comparison
- Expert input on cultural norms of the target language to develop understanding of products, practices and perspectives
- Student-centered communicative tasks and role-playing
- The basics of CA, terminology and techniques, with opportunities to observe and analyze authentic language and social interactions
- Instruction in communicative strategies that can be employed to negotiate meaning
- Opportunities for native speaker interaction and authentic examples/situations

These strategies should be embedded in the framework that ACTFL provides for meeting the 3 Ps. Cultural instruction should be an integral part of every language lesson. The Annenberg Learner website Rooted in Culture provides training that helps teachers develop these strategies and build a lesson framework, starting with product, linking to practice, and then perspective,
using authentic materials, focusing on language features, and finally assessing both language and cultural knowledge.

As the experimental studies indicated, using these techniques led to improvement in pragmatic learning, not necessarily perfect acquisition. In *Context and Culture in Language Teaching* (1993), Kramsch gives us a clear picture of how complex it can be to guide students toward intercultural communicative competence and an understanding of underlying values. Even with the best techniques and expert knowledge, it is a difficult task to help a student be able to “think” in the target language’s underlying culture. She gives one example of the complexity of the problem. In a second year German class, students were asked to pick a poem and present it to the class, explaining the meaning and any lexical items that the class would need to understand. One student picked a poem that had significant underlying historical and cultural meanings. To her, the poem represented “challenge” and she presented the word “herausforderungen” to the class (p. 18). The problem with her interpretation is that in German culture “challenge” is not a word used in the setting and situation provided in the poem. Moreover, “challenge” in this sense the student, Amy, used it, is not part of the German world view/culture. She interpreted the poem based on her identity as an American in which individualism and rising to challenges are admired, “raising the problem of wanting to express one world view through the language normally used to express another society’s world view” (p. 20). How do instructors help their students step from their own identity, history, and culture, and learn or adopt another framework from which to view the world and to understand spoken and written communications?
Beyond noticing, analyzing, and instruction on culture, at some level, students may need to expand their own social identities to be able to think beyond the framework of their native culture. Kramsch concludes that instructors need to create the situations where these points can come to the surface and then provide the additional input to help language learners understand them. She calls this a “dialogic pedagogy” where advanced learners can come to “recognize the social and political implications of linguistic choices and the way cultural reality is constructed through language” (p. 30). In “Can pragmatic competence be taught?” Kasper (1997) provides some direction and specific examples that fit into Kramsch’s concept. She divides pragmatic tasks into two types: the first to raise awareness and the second to create tasks where pragmatic features can be practiced. So in an ESL classroom, a teacher might assign students to go out and watch how native speakers show appreciation like saying thank you. In a FL setting, students could observe video exchanges from textbook websites or youtube, or if time zones allow, actually connect with students from the target language through products like Skype or video conferencing. Students would need to record the sociopragmatic aspect (what is the setting and event occurring) as well as the pragmalinguistic aspect (what are all the heard forms that indicate gratitude). By helping students become aware of variations and then creating activities where the variations can be practiced, the teacher can help students develop more competence.

**Issues in Integrating Pragmatics into the Classroom**

There are three areas that may make the teaching of sociolinguistic content problematic for the language instructor. First, there is an assumption that foreign language teachers have the expertise to teach culture, as outlined by ACTFL’s national standards for FL teachers (ACTFL, 2002). Instructors that meet the ACTFL standards demonstrate an understanding of the relationship among the perspectives, practices, and products of a culture that comprise the
cultural framework for foreign language standards. The scope of cultural knowledge extends to daily living patterns and societal structures and to geography, history, religious and political systems, literature, fine arts, media, and a variety of cultural products.

However, in a survey conducted by the U.S. Department of Education in 1999, out of 1,566 respondents, only 30% felt competent to teach about culture beyond a superficial treatment of practices and products (Schulz, 2007, p. 12). Schulz explained it further by stating “most teachers lack sufficient background knowledge and experience to determine the relationships between those practices and products and the cultural perspectives that gave (or give) rise to them” (p. 10). In 2009, Tchoutezo (2010) conducted in-depth interviews and classroom observations of five ESL instructors. These instructors employed many of the strategies mentioned above, including role-play, dialog completion, and direct instruction on social and cultural factors. They reported difficulties such as how to create “real-life” situations that would elicit desired pragmatic choices, and the problem that American students don’t know their own grammar well enough to perform language comparisons. They also felt their students struggled to go beyond their own native culture in order to understand the target culture. Tchoutezo did not explore the teachers’ feelings of expertise or to what degree their background education provided training specifically in sociolinguistic instruction. Some teachers’ responses indicated unclear concepts between pragmatic elements and the functional categories provided in the textbook (making requests, apologizing, etc.). This suggests that not all language teachers are clear on pragmatics as an area of instruction, despite ACTFL’s standards of knowledge. As a profession, we must rely on educational institutions, workshops and in-service opportunities to provide the necessary training for teachers to feel confident and competent to instruct on the relationships between language options and culture.
Secondly, there are issues with assessing intercultural communicative competence objectively and quantitatively. Kramsch (1986, p. 370) argued that current standard tests of proficiency are not testing “interactional competence”, the ability to understand and adapt to “intent” versus form. Tests focus on accuracy, structure, and function, not a speaker’s ability to adapt their output to different situational stimuli. As the discussion on methods exemplified, there is ample research on best practices for teaching and for assessment of intercultural communicative competence. Moving that research into common practices and into the instructor’s comfort zone is another matter. ACTFL states that cultural and pragmatic competency should be assessed but doesn’t say how, or how much.

Beyond the vague guidelines, some researchers have developed methods for assessing ICC. Schulz (2007, p. 17) analyzed recommendations from Bartz and Vermette (1996), who suggest several possible assessment formats, but he also criticizes the additional complexity their methods add to assessment practices. Some of their suggestions include “solving cross-cultural conflict situations…simulated interactions…examining the cultural significance of underlined words…describing a photo or drawing of a culture-specific situation” and other similar opportunities where students demonstrate competence by analyzing sociolinguistic features (Bartz & Vermette, 1996, pp. 76-83). Schulz supports the use of a portfolio (p. 23) and journal as a better form of assessment. Students record their observations, interactions, learned materials and samples of their language production and over time develop a greater awareness and understanding of the target culture and its related language features. He provided a very detailed portfolio method, complete with five general objectives and specific tasks to achieve each. The five objectives are:
1. An awareness that geographic, historical, economic, social/religious, and political factors can have an impact on language use and styles of communication.

2. Awareness that situational variables (e.g., context and role expectations, including power differentials, and social variables such as age, gender, social class, religion, ethnicity, and place of residence) shape communication interaction.

3. Recognize stereotypes about the home and target cultures.

4. Develop and demonstrate an awareness that each language and culture has culture-conditioned images and culture-specific connotations of some words, phrases…gestures.

5. Develop and demonstrate an awareness of some types of causes…for cultural misunderstanding (p. 24-26).

In a workshop on assessing cultural learning, Norris (March 2008) had very similar recommendations. Some of the suggested assessments included having students maintain a journal, create a portfolio, and respond to written or spoken scenarios. Fukai, Nazikian, and Sato (2008) recommend using blog portfolios and adding in peer assessment. The blogs provide additional student-created scenarios that can be analyzed. Because “appropriateness” can be a subjective assessment based on personal culture and experience, standardized tests are not going to be of much use in assessing this pragmatic knowledge. In order to be as objective as possible, the instructor might create a rubric with the specific sociolinguistic features that have been addressed in their class and a rating 1-4 of novice to advanced level for each item. A novice might recognize the feature but not be able to explain it. An advanced level of competence could be shown through recognition, explanation, and appropriate use in spoken and written communication. Or, through the use of blogs and journaling, the teacher can assess the student’s demonstrated growth over time described within the student’s personal reflections.
Role-play and the use of scenarios are very common, both for practice and for assessment. Ishihara (2009) takes the standard scenario exchange and overlays a sociolinguistic framework. This framework, developed for EFL students in Japan, compels the speaker to consider the meaning he/she wants to convey, the underlying tone and the response they might expect to receive based on their choices. After first marking the intentions, students then provide the response and a reflection on how it will be received. The responses are graded on how well they follow cultural norms, and whether their intended message matches how the response will likely be interpreted (p. 470). Grabowski (2008, p. 161) provides a rubric for scoring communicative competence in role-plays:

![Figure 6. Rubric for measuring communicative competence](image)

It is possible to measure intercultural communicative competence but not quite as easily as the multiple choice (MC) exam on grammar, vocabulary and sentence construction outside of any social context although an attempt has been made at MC testing. Itomitsu (2009) created an
assessment for intercultural communicative competence where students were presented with a
scenario and chose the most appropriate response from four options, presented in writing and
audio clips. This does bring the assessment squarely into objective, quantitative measures but if
we use Hymes SPEAKING acronym, the test suffers the same scarcity of sociolinguistic
information as do textbooks. Here is a sample question: “Ms. Noguchi, an employee, is talking
with her coworker about the DVD player. What would Ms. Noguchi probably say to her
coworker?” (p. 202). With the addition of a bit more context, this experimental exam would be a
great addition to the assessment toolbox and could even be produced by publishers. The most
common methods for assessment currently are student reflections on observed interactions, self-
assessment, role play and various types of discourse completion activities (Tchoutezo, 2010, p.
126) and the research mentioned above provides a great deal more assessment options for
instructors. Research has provided rubrics and several successful assessment strategies but they
were all developed outside of the provided course materials and it is unknown to what degree
this information has reached the classroom. So, there are demonstrated best practices in the
teaching of pragmatics. Why does a dichotomy exist between teacher’s available options and
their perceived self-efficacy? Reports from the Modern language association (MLA, 2007) and
from the Longview Foundation (2008) both call for improvements in teacher education in higher
education. This study will explore more deeply into the views of the trainers and those receiving
the training to see what changes are being made to respond to the ACTFL guidelines.

The third difficulty for instructors, even when they feel competent to teach and assess
pragmatics, is that they are often faced with the need to supplement the limited content found in
the published materials when time is already scarce. Teachers do their best, not only to meet
ACTFL guidelines but also to peak student interest. Research demonstrates that students desire
more cultural content in language classrooms. Matsumoto (2007) surveyed 130 American students learning Japanese to discover what activities resulted in the most favorable language learning and retention. The results of the surveys were inductively analyzed to discover recurring themes among the responses and then used to make recommendations on curriculum changes. The highest rated activity by the students (57.8%) were opportunities to speak with native speakers – authentic intergroup interactions. This kind of activity may not be locally possible without the use of distance technologies followed by 55.5% of the respondents asking for authentic materials in class. Matsumoto, reflecting on Japanese, suggests that all skill areas of language teaching can be infused with a focus on cultural. “Many authentic Japanese language materials are very rich in cultural insights and effective for fostering cultural understanding among American college and university students” (p. 204). This inclusion of authentic materials combined with an instructional focus on culture is rated very highly by students as facilitating their language learning and it is perhaps more doable in the FL classroom than bringing in native speakers. A similar conclusion was found by Ya (2008) regarding developing sociolinguistic competence. While finding a native speaker may not be possible, it is certainly possible and desirable for the foreign language teacher to bring sociolinguistic features to the students’ attention and explain appropriate use along with grammar – a task made easier when it is part of the standard curriculum and contained within the textbook.

In pursuit of improving the development of intercultural communicative competence, researchers have analyzed textbooks from many languages for cultural and sociolinguistic representations. In general, textbooks do an outstanding job covering standard vocabulary, grammar, standard usage, and products of culture. Practices may be mentioned but insufficiently represented. In a small study where twelve teachers evaluated two language textbooks, a
recurring theme was demonstrated – the books covered vocabulary and grammar very well and provided a framework for the curriculum, but the teachers were dissatisfied with the lack of cultural content and meaningful oral exercises for students (Allen, 2008) and relied more on their own knowledge of culture to provide in-depth explanations and create tasks. In another textbook analysis, Ishida (2009) conducted a study on teaching the difference in usage of Japanese plain (casual) forms and desu/masu (formal) for word endings, for example a greeting of *Ohayoo* ‘morning’ versus *Ohayoo gozaimasu* ‘good morning’ (more polite), to beginning Japanese language learners. From a review of four popular Japanese language textbooks, all the textbooks provided only the *desu/masu* ‘to be’ versions at the beginning level with some idea that being more polite was better than risking offence. Only one book mentioned the plain forms and he notes that over-politeness can create unnecessary distance between interlocutors. When looking closely at his analysis of how the four books presented the information, it is encouraging that all four books mention the existence of the two options and also provide a bit of sociolinguistic explanation – a mention of setting and that the forms are based on social relations. More critically, no explanation is given when one form is used instead of the other in the sample dialogues and none of the books provide exercises to practice plain forms. This lack of metalinguistic explanation makes it difficult for learners to distinguish when one form is more appropriate than another.

In her investigation to develop sociopragmatic competence for German addresses in beginning level students, Lemmerich (2010) referenced two reviews examining twelve German textbooks. These reviews found that only a limited number of address forms were provided, well below the options frequently used by NSs. She argued that “oversimplification can prevent learners from developing sensitivity towards sociolinguistic variation….In order to become more
sensitized, students must be made aware of variation patterns” (p. 6) which means the textbooks need to expand upon possible variations and explain usage options. In order to conduct her experiment, Lemmerich had to create her own website of supplemental materials which included videos, 90 NS responses to various social interactions, and assessment activities such as role-play and discourse completion. As in other studies referenced in this paper, the additional content and metalinguistic instruction led to an increased ability for students to use appropriate and varied addresses in German. Pablos-Ortega (2011) conducted an even larger study of how “thanking” was covered by Spanish textbooks. He reviewed 64 textbooks and compared the results with 100 NS responses to the sample situations and found that they “do not widely, or accurately, reflect the sociocultural reality of the Spanish language and its culture with regards to the SA [speech act] of thanking, as shown in the responses of the questionnaire provided by Spanish native speakers” (p. 2424) but he felt it was possible for textbooks to include more information on social relationships, power, and situations that affect which form of thanking was used.

In addition to providing insufficient sociolinguistic explanations and a limited sampling of linguistic forms, it seems that FL textbooks may also provide un-authentic dialogues. Jones and Ono (2005) analyzed eight Japanese textbooks and determined that the “textbook dialogues generally fail to accurately reflect naturally occurring conversation, and that in some cases, the differences actually make textbook dialogues more difficult to understand and reproduce (p. 239).” It must be noted that there have been great improvements in textbook dialogues. Jones and Ono provide an example of a greeting exchange from at 1970’s textbook (p. 241):

J: Ohayoo gozaimasu. 'Good morning.'
Y: *Ohayoo gozaimasu. Watashi wa Yamakawa desu. Anata wagakusei desu ka.*

'Good morning. I am Yamakawa. Are you a student?'

J: *Hai, watashi wa gakusei desu. Watashi wa Jonson desu.*

'Yes, I am a student. I am Johnson.'

A speaker of Japanese would recognize several problems immediately. For example, pronouns such as *watashi* ‘I’ and *anata* ‘you’ are rarely used. So this sample dialogue from 1970 is actually a direct English-Japanese translation rather than an example of natural conversation. In their review of more recent textbooks, they acknowledge that these types of errors have been corrected. However, the new dialogues still suffer from an effort to maximize the introduction of new material. There is little repetition, restatements or other conversational devices for negotiated meaning. Every sentence packs in new vocabulary. In addition the dialogues are almost always short exchanges in pairs of people with few longer exchanges or exchanges among group of people (Jones & Ono, 2005, p. 243). The language examples do not convey “real” conversations.

The studies referenced in this literature review make it clear that specific pragmatic and sociolinguistic items from many languages have been extensively researched and textbooks have been analyzed for their coverage of these features. Given the demonstrated criticisms, the questions regarding course content remain: how does research find its way into published materials and do the content producers face any constraints that can explain this lack of cultural content that has been identified as essential and critical to language learning? Ishihara and Cohen (2010) place the burden on the teacher, stating that “the time has come for teachers to make even greater strides than they now do to extend their teaching beyond the presentation of decontextualized language forms” (p.319). After reviewing many studies on the lack of
pragmatic content in textbooks, these authors urge teachers to adapt the materials (develop their own additional content), find supplemental authentic examples, and be critically selective when choosing textbooks for instruction (p. 156). I question whether the burden should fall solely on the instructor, given the lack of autonomy and spare time facing most K-12 instructors. It seems more reasonable to urge a systemic change, starting with teacher education programs, the content developers, the district curriculums and the teachers’ classroom practices.
Chapter 3

Method

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative study is to investigate how teacher trainers, publishers and classroom instructors respond to the call for more of ACTFL’s 3 Ps (products, practices, and perspectives) and their perceptions regarding the development of intercultural communicative competence. Research on second language acquisition, content creation, teacher training, and classroom practice are intertwined theoretically, but the full extent and nature of those relationships in practice is unclear. By learning more about how each group approaches the need for more cultural and sociolinguistic content and strategies for teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence, we may reveal where more work can be done to improve teacher training, content creation, and guide future curriculum planning decisions.

Research Questions

This dissertation will address the following research questions:

1. **Status of instruction in the 3 Ps in the classroom:** How do teachers go about selecting which products, practices and perspectives will be covered in the course of a semester? What strategies do they use to teach each of these? What weight do they give them in the curriculum? How do they assess knowledge of the 3 Ps and the development of intercultural communicative competence?

2. **Teacher education programs:** How have foreign language teacher preparation programs equipped teachers with the tools and knowledge they need to incorporate sociolinguistic explanations and expanded cultural content, based on the 3 Ps? What strategies for
instruction for the 3 Ps and the assessment of intercultural communicative competence are included as part of training curriculum?

3. **Content development/Publishers:** How have shifts in methods and desired content been articulated to publishing companies, in particular, the 3 Ps? How have they responded to the need for more content to cover products, practices and perspectives? What weight do they give each category? Do publishing companies face any constraints to be able to respond to requests for new directions? If so, what are they?

4. Do any discrepancies in approach to the 3 Ps among the three groups negatively impact the ability to teach and learn pragmatics in the FL classroom?

**Conceptual Framework**

This research is based on the assumption that each of the groups of stakeholders in the foreign language teaching/learning enterprise – represented below as publishers, university teacher trainers, and teachers – has significant impact on the outcomes for learners’ pragmatic development. Further, because each group of stakeholders has so much potential to impact on the other groups, I am proposing that the exchange of information and cooperation between them should be maximized. There is evidence that some exchange does occur between the groups but that the exchange is somehow incomplete. For example, textbooks have evolved to include more culture, mostly product, but also some sociolinguistic references, although as noted in the literature review, the sociolinguistic components are often incomplete. The cultural additions would indicate that content developers/publishers have somehow gotten the message that more cultural content is needed, yet there is a gap between what research reveals as necessary explanation and what the textbooks have included (Mori, 2005; Pfingsthorn, 2012; Vellenga, September 2004). As noted in the literature review, in the early 2000’s, teachers expressed doubt
about their own self-efficacy, the ability for their professions to determine uniform teachable pragmatic items, and concerns for the subjectiveness of cultural assessment (Schulz, 2007; Tchoutezo, 2010). More recently, my small pilot study revealed that teachers are seeking to improve cultural instruction, desire more authentic material, and do not yet include intercultural communicative competence as a regular component of the curriculum and assessment. Once again, there is an apparent gap between the degree of implementation and research recommendations.

By studying how each group has implemented the 3 Ps, we gain insight into how each group responds to the volume of research regarding the need for more culture and sociolinguistic instruction to foster the development of intercultural communicative competence. Presumably, publishers are interested in providing the most up-to-date resources and therefore want to respond to current demand while keeping an eye on future needs. And, of course, given that a teachers’ time is limited, what is provided sometimes dictates what is presented in the classroom. This research endeavors to examine and define the extent of interactions and knowledge transfer among the groups, to uncover possible reasons why, after more than twenty years of research and classroom practice, teachers are still looking at what more can be done to improve this particular area of instruction, textbooks appear to have only reached a shallow treatment of pragmatics, and our student success rate to develop advanced communicated competence is, on the average, below 15% (CollegeBoard, 2012c). It is hoped that an analysis of variations in response to ACTFL’s 3 Ps may provide direction for improvement.

Overview of Current Study

In this study, the research group is seen as the primary source of new directions. It is from research that new concepts, theories of learning, and methods of instructions are tested for
viability and validity. Based on that conceptualization, the other three stakeholder groups – teachers, teacher trainers, and content developers - were interviewed in order to examine how they relate to each other and to the body of research that presumably informs their practice, using their treatment of the 3 Ps as a focal point. (1) I conducted in-depth interviews with twenty teachers regarding their perceptions of teaching pragmatics, the strategies they use for instruction and assessment of pragmatics, and their educational history and feelings of preparedness and success. (2) I interviewed content developers from five top foreign language textbooks to learn more about how content is selected for foreign language textbooks, what communication they have with teachers and researchers, and if any constraints exist for including pragmatic content to the degree recommended by research. (3) I interviewed faculty from higher education institutions providing teacher education to determine to what degree their curriculum includes ACTFL standards and the 3 Ps, and training on instructional and assessment strategies in the area of pragmatics.

**Research Design**

In this study, a deeper understanding of the individual perspectives and multiple world views are needed in order to understand the decision making involved in selecting content, selecting strategies to teach, and in assessment measures. Out of the many cultural and sociolinguistic options, only some will be selected. It will be important to determine the “why and how” reasoning that determines the “what”. Qualitative research is based on an “inquiry process of understanding” (Creswell, 1998, p. 15) and in-depth interviews provide a method for understanding the various perspectives of the three groups. In comparing data collection methods, Marshall and Rossman (2006) illustrate how interviews are best suited when the individual’s perspective is needed, when the data involve describing complex social interactions.
and thought processes, and when context and the ability to follow up are desired (p. 133). These criteria correspond closely to the aims of this study. The qualitative research design of this study, primarily interviews, represents the major aspects of data collection and analysis. In addition, a review of lessons plans and syllabi serve to corroborate the teachers’ stories, a review of their formal materials (those materials purchased for the school district from a publisher) were analyzed in relation to the textbook publishers’ stated product goals, and descriptions of higher education course curriculum were reviewed to provide supporting evidence of ACTFL and the 3 Ps included in the degree. These documents provide supporting data for the in-depth interviews of the three groups.

**Participants**

**Teachers.** I interviewed twenty K-12 foreign language teachers located in the region. Over the years, as an ESL instructor and then a teacher trainer, I have developed numerous personal and professional contacts and utilized these contacts to help spread the word about the study in addition to requesting district curriculum coordinators to distribute emails about the study so teachers could volunteer. Participation was voluntary and teachers received a stipend for their time. I sought participation from teachers with varying years of experience to determine if patterns could be found in training experience based on when a degree was conferred. I was able to get participation from teachers of various languages in order to determine broad spectrum issues in the teaching of pragmatics rather than delving into pragmatic issues specific to any one language.

An email seeking volunteers was broadcast to seven school districts in the region allowing teachers to volunteer for the study. Two interviewees were from the Confucius Institute, an organization teaching K-12 Chinese across the state. In the design, it was hoped that
this method of selection would result in a diverse group of interviewees and for the most part, that was achieved. However, two interviewees reported that their peers “selected” them as being the teacher who best taught culture and should therefore represent them. The majority of interviewees teach in grades 9-12, but there were also two middle school teachers and one elementary teacher. The teacher interviews were conducted outside of the school day and were done at a location of their choosing, which included at their school, a coffee shop, library, or home. A semi-structured interview form was used and can be found in Appendix A.

**Educational institutions.** There are at least eight higher education institutions offering master’s degrees in teaching and in foreign language in the metropolitan area. Three faculty from three of these institutions were interviewed for an in-depth understanding of the training and education teachers receive. I approached the program director or department chair to seek voluntary participation. In each case, it was the master’s level methods teacher in the foreign language program that had the most relevant curriculum for the interviews.

**Content developers.** The first criterion for selecting publishers was to solicit those publishers who provide the books used by the school districts of my interviewed teachers. The plan was to interview a minimum of 3 most popular foreign language textbook publishers to better understand the decision making involved in content selection. Participation was voluntary. For the most part, the publishing companies directed me to the authors. Four authors and one book editor volunteered to be interviewed.

**Instruments, Data Collection, and Procedures**

**Teacher interview form (Appendix A).** This semi-structured form provided a common question set of 14 questions that were used across multiple interviewees. The questions served as starting points or prompts for an in-depth interview while providing some uniform structure and
similarity across the twenty interviews. The first section of the interview form gathered demographic data about the teacher’s background in the FL, their history and experience in teaching, and the source(s) of formal education. In the final data analysis and reporting, the names of the interviewees and their institutions were converted to number codes so that anonymity could be preserved. Questions 1 -5 were designed to get a clear picture of the role that the 3 Ps plays in the classroom - the value the teacher places on cultural content within the curriculum and the methods they use in practice. This section also included a review of three lesson plans the teacher has selected in advance and a syllabus, providing documented support of their interview statements. Questions 6-7 allowed the teacher an opportunity to describe how well the textbook covers the 3 Ps, provide examples, and discuss other measures they may go to for supplemental materials. Questions 8-9 allow the teacher to elaborate on any training they had received in the area of the 3 Ps. This could include formal education, in-service, workshops, or conferences that have contributed to their toolbox. Questions 10-13 provided a general profile of the students in the class, their goals and purposes for studying the FL, and their level of success in intercultural communicative competence. The concluding question allowed the teacher to make additional comments or ask any questions.

**Procedure for teacher interviews.** All interviews were on a volunteer basis. Eight school districts were contacted and asked to broadcast an email to all foreign language teachers with a request to participate. Teachers then contacted the researcher if they were interested. This process of selection resulted in a diverse interview population of varying years of experience and many languages. Interviews were conducted in person, recorded and transcribed. In addition to demographic data, teachers were asked three categories of questions: training and education, a review of course materials and time spent finding additional content, and an in depth discussion
of three lesson plans. Where possible, teachers also provided the lesson plans and course and/or district curriculum guides.

School districts that were contacted all reside within the geographical region. Upon receiving IRB approval, I contacted each high school district’s research and curriculum coordinator for permission to conduct research by interviewing their teachers. I followed the procedures set by the district coordinator and send notifications to the principals of each school with a summary of the research purpose and time commitment for their teachers. Teachers received a request to participate via email that included a summary of the purpose of the interview, how the data will be used, the time commitment, and who they could contact for further information. Teachers who agreed to participate received the interview form and information statement in advance and I scheduled the interview time and place at the convenience of the interviewee. Data collection for all interviews started February 2013 and concluded in November of the same year. The semi-structured in-depth interviews were approximately 1 hour and were recorded with permission. Each interview began with a self-introduction, relating my background in ESL and EFL teaching, my experiences as a language learner, and my interest in the current study. I informed the teachers that 1), the results would be anonymous, names and schools will be numerically coded, and 2), the teacher received and had the option to approve or correct the transcripts, and 3) they can contact me anytime if they have questions or concerns. As they answered the questions, I asked them to elaborate, explain “why”, and probed for deeper understanding of the responses. The interviews, if recorded, were transcribed without fillers. Because interviews are “highly contextualized” and the act of transcription strips away tone, pauses, and body language (Scheurich, 1995, pp. 240-241), I followed each interview with reflective notes to summarize and capture my perceptions of the
interview and the interviewee’s feelings. The notes were written as soon after the interview as possible.

**Educational institution questionnaire (Appendix B).** The first six questions of this semi-structured interview are tied directly to ACTFL’s standards for teachers. For each question, they were asked to identify the course or courses that cover the specific knowledge areas and provide syllabi where possible. Questions 1 and 2 sought information on the training teachers receive to be able to provide linguistic, sociolinguistic and metalinguistic explanations. Question 3 asked identifies what information teachers learn about the 3 Ps, how to select items to be included, and what strategies they learn to teach 3 P content. Question 4 delved into the philosophy of the program regarding cultural content. They were asked to describe how ACTFL’s 5 C’s and 3 Ps are presented to teachers in terms of levels of integrations and weight given into the curriculum of a class. Question 6 revealed how the school views the assessment of intercultural communicative competence as well as strategies teachers learn to conduct assessments. Many institutions have filled out a “Program Report for the preparation of Foreign Language Teachers” (ACTFL/NCATE, 2005) as part of their accreditation status (NCATE – National council for accreditation of teacher education). I also asked if they had an NCATE form and if it was publicly available. This form ties teacher assessments to ACTFL standards but not to specific courses. Question 8 inquired about any post-graduate training the institution may be involved in for teachers in the field. Question 9 allowed the institution to make any additional statements about their teacher preparation curriculum.

**Procedure for educational institution interview.** Starting with the institution’s website for contact information, I made initial contact by phone to identify a point person. In each case, I was directed to the methods instructor. I then contacted that instructor directly by email to
request an interview. If the institution/person agreed to participate, they received the interview questions and information statement in advance and then I met them in person. Each interview was approximately one hour and was recorded with permission. The interviews were transcribed and the instructor had the opportunity to approve and/or correct any statements in the report before it is used in the study. As noted in the introduction, the interviews for each group were conducted in parallel, so the timeline here is the same February – November 2013. As soon as IRB approval was received, I began making contact and scheduling interviews. The anticipated timeline was from late February through June 2013 but in actuality extended through November of that year.

**Publisher interview form (Appendix C).** The primary focus of the publisher form was to gather data about the decision making process and sources of content that comprise a foreign language textbook. Question 1 asked how content is selected and what limitations they may have in selecting content. Questions 2-3 asked the interviewee to describe the type and quantity of cultural content in a typical foreign language textbook, how FL textbooks are generally organized, and to what extent they relate to ACTFL standards, particularly the 3 Ps. Question 4 sought information about the publishing company’s relationship and communication with researchers and how new research drives changes in book content. Question 5 asked about communication with teachers and how the company responds to requests for changes. Question 6 checked for any other influences in the decision making process and question 7 asked about upcoming innovations (and what/who is driving them). The final question allowed the company to provide any additional relevant information and ask questions.

**Procedure for publisher interview.** After fifteen of the twenty teacher interviews had been conducted, I was able to identify recurring book choices in the school districts and thus the
publishers to contact. In August, I began contacting each publishing company by phone to identify a point person. Once I had been directed to a point person, usually an editor, I emailed the information statement and interview questions in advance. In all but one case, this email was forwarded on to the authors of the books, who then had the option to volunteer for a phone interview or to answer the questions by email. The timeline spanned from August through October 2013.

**Informed consent.** Each participant received an Information Statement (Appendix E) along with the interview form in advance of any interview. Participation was voluntary and confidentiality will be maintained by numerically coding all participants and institutions.

**Data Analysis**

In this study, the semi-structured interviews provided a common set of data that could be compared, while the open-ended questions also allowed for more explanation and a richer picture of each teacher’s experiences. The qualitative data were analyzed utilizing the data analysis procedures outlined by Marshall and Rossman (2006, pp. 156-161) which include organizing and comparing the data to generate themes and then identifying patterns by categorizing types of data, coding the responses and providing a descriptive interpretation of the results. Inductive analysis was used to compare categories and reveal “patterns of meaningful data so that general statements about phenomena under investigation can be made” (Hatch, 2002, p. 161). There is some triangulation of data within groups and between groups. District curriculums and lesson plans provide documentation of teacher’s statements, content creators’ statements regarding textbook content were compared against teachers’ reports of the textbooks they use and my own review of three popular textbooks, and interviews regarding curriculum of teacher education programs were corroborated by the teacher’s statements about the training they received.
The results of the teacher interviews were used to answer research question 1 regarding the status of instruction in the 3 Ps in the classroom. The teacher interview was designed to elicit the world view of the instructor regarding the inclusion of culture and how that view relates to classroom practice. Each lesson, plus additional information that came up during the interview, was analyzed for evidence of best practices including whether the cultural lesson was integrated with language learning, coverage of the 3 Ps, and whether ICC was assessed in homework and exams. A description of each lesson and the analysis per instructor can be found in Appendix F. Between the review of lesson plans and the interview, a rich description of how the 3 Ps are addressed in the classroom emerged.

Research question 2 is answered primarily with the educational institution interview data but also cross-referenced with the teacher interview responses concerning training. Teachers were asked to describe the training they had in each skill area, and these descriptions corresponded closely to the areas the institutions reported. Information gathered about individual courses and the content they cover provided evidence of the degree to which the program’s covered ACTFL guidelines.

Research question 3 is answered by the content developer interview form. In all but one case, authors/editors chose to answer in writing and these responses were analyzed to understand the author and publishing companies’ perspectives and their level of incorporation of the 3 Ps and 5 C’s. Their responses regarding cultural content were compared to with the teacher’s opinions and comments about the textbooks and course materials they use in classroom. In addition three books used by the teachers were reviewed for evidence of 3P content.

The final research question brings us to the heart of the study - how have the three groups separately and together affected the treatment of 3 P information in the classroom? Are there any
common elements that support the goal of developing intercultural communicative competence? The analysis and data collected in the first three questions were used to answer this final question. The composite review of each teacher’s evidence of best practices was used to compare against all other factors, in order to find new patterns and themes that impact the outcome of ICC development. Finally, all data captured were related back to the research, to the best practices detailed in the literature review section to determine the degree to which those best practices correlate with data captured from teachers, teacher trainers, and textbook content. The interviews and supporting documents, the found patterns and themes, provided a rich, descriptive view of the current status of cultural instruction in the foreign language classroom.

**Researcher Assumptions and Experience**

I received my masters in TESL degree in the early ‘90’s and this area of language acquisition was not yet included in teacher education. My linguistics class was focused on Chomsky’s grammatical analyses and the history of form and structure. Culture and sociolinguistics was never part of the discussion. During eight years of ESL and one and a half years of EFL teaching, I intuitively sought authentic language examples. This was much easier in an ESL setting because often students would come in with their own examples, requesting explanations for speech acts they heard which did not match the standard classroom content. This incidental treatment of sociolinguistics was common in my ESL classroom. I also observed that some of my most advanced students sounded nearly “American” (they often had developed more friendships with native speakers) while others spoke very well, but in a non-native like manner, typically more formally and with word selections that were correct technically but not typically used. During the time I taught in Japan, there were fewer authentic examples or English to be found and in any case, Standard English needed to be learned for exams, not native-like
speech production or communicative competence. The goal of those classes in Japan was to learn academic English. Nevertheless, my students often found this sociolinguistic content to be of the most interest so I tried to include it when possible. I sympathize with the difficulties a foreign language teacher faces both in the time needed to find authentic examples and decisions they face on their own about how much to include and how/whether to assess culture.

I have also been a second language learner myself, studying French, then Spanish, and finally Japanese. What I learned of Spanish and Japanese by living in Bolivia and Japan was certainly different than what I had learned while studying them in the foreign language classroom. Based on my experiences as a language teacher and a language learner, I feel strongly that more pragmatic content needs to be included; not just authentic examples, but an analysis and explanation of why a native speaker is making one choice instead of another. The metalinguistic analysis of observed speech is what leads to a deeper understanding and the ability to respond appropriately in new situations. Given the plethora of research in theories of language learning and teaching, the need for authentic examples, and the experiments in instruction and assessment of pragmatics since the 1990’s, it is truly baffling that we have not progressed further. My hope is that this study will shed some light on why progress has been slow.

Limitations

This study is geographically bound to the Midwest region for teachers and teacher training. Conceivably there are institutions in other regions that have different approaches to the 3 Ps and the development of intercultural communicative competence. It would be interesting to repeat the study in other regions to determine similarities and differences across the nation but that is beyond the scope of this study. In addition, recognizing the lack of formal materials demonstrating sociolinguistic features, non-commercial websites are springing up, language by
language, along with other internet resources such as YouTube as sources of realia. If this becomes a widespread trend, it may negate the need for publishing companies to do more, even though this solution brings us short of ACTFL’s vision of full cultural and sociolinguistic integration in every lesson.
Chapter 4

Results

This chapter details the results of the study into the inclusion of the 3 Ps into the foreign language classroom and how course materials and training may impact classroom practice. Twenty teachers from eight school districts were interviewed to learn how they approached the instruction and assessment of products, practices, and perspectives of culture, forming the primary basis for analysis for this study. Three university instructors in foreign language teacher education programs and five authors/editors of foreign language textbooks were also interviewed to provide triangulation of data for the teacher interviews and to provide additional perspectives on efforts to increase the level of cultural information and instruction in the classroom.

Research objectives were to better understand the following:

1. **Status of instruction in the 3 Ps in the classroom**: How do teachers go about selecting which products, practices and perspectives will be covered in the course of a semester? What strategies do they use to teach each of these? What weight do they give them in the curriculum? How do they assess knowledge of the 3 Ps and the development of intercultural communicative competence?

2. **Teacher education programs**: How have foreign language teacher preparation programs equipped teachers with the tools and knowledge they need to incorporate sociolinguistic explanations and expanded cultural content, based on the 3 Ps? What strategies for instruction for the 3 Ps and the assessment of intercultural communicative competence are included as part of training curriculum?
3. **Content development/Publishers**: How have shifts in methods and desired content been articulated to publishing companies, in particular, the 3 Ps? How have they responded to the need for more content to cover products, practices and perspectives? What weight do they give each category? Do publishing companies face any constraints to be able to respond to requests for new directions? If so, what are they?

4. Do any gaps in approach to the 3 Ps among the three groups negatively impact the ability to teach and learn intercultural communicative competence in the FL classroom?

This chapter is organized into six sections. The first three sections detail the responses to the first three research question areas and provide rich detail into current classroom practices, teacher training and instructional materials. Section 4 responds to the final question by analyzing the responses of all groups and identifying patterns within the data, searching for gaps in the coverage of the 3 Ps. Section 5 discusses a surprising finding concerning AP exams. Section 6 reviews and summarizes the results.

**Teacher Demographics**

The majority of interviewees teach in grades 9-12, but there were also two middle school teachers and one elementary teacher. Of the twenty teachers there was a broad range of years of experience, languages taught, and levels of language taught. Four teachers had more than fifteen years of experience while five teachers had less than five years of experience, with the rest falling in between. Spanish was the most common language taught, but there were also French, German, Chinese, Japanese, and Arabic teachers included. Of the twenty teachers, seven teachers taught language levels 1-2 (beginning), four teachers taught up through level 3 (intermediate) and nine teachers taught up through 4, 5, and AP (advanced). Thirteen of the twenty teachers were native English speakers, three were bilingual, one was a native Spanish speaker and three
were native Chinese speakers. Of the thirteen native English speakers, all either majored or minored in their language for their undergraduate education except one, who got his masters in the language. Nineteen of the twenty teachers had master’s degrees, although only four had master’s degrees that related to language instruction. The majority received their masters in curriculum and instruction, teaching, or education. Most also had various endorsements or certifications for teaching in K-12. It was very typical for an instructor to have a Bachelor’s in Spanish education, or in Spanish language, a Master’s in education, and then a Spanish endorsement or certification. Six teachers also had either a degree or an endorsement in ESL. Beyond formal education, twelve teachers had attended professional conferences or trainings which included their state World Language Association conference, ACTFL conference, training from the Bureau of Education & Research, SOPI, AP, and/or IPA training. See Appendix E for detailed demographic data.

**Status of Instruction in 3 Ps in the Classroom**

Teachers were asked to provide three lesson plans that had some cultural aspect. Teachers received the interview questions in advance, which included a definition of the 3 Ps, but I did not emphasize any particular kind of culture, just that the lesson include something cultural. Teachers chose what they felt was the most interesting, most relevant cultural lesson examples that they wanted to share. As part of the interview, they were also asked about nine specific techniques, identified in the literature review, that are useful for developing intercultural communicative competence.

**Content selection.** Teachers were asked how they selected cultural content. Overwhelmingly, content came from supplemental sources (which included the textbook’s
supplemental videos) and from personal experience rather than from the textbook or the district curriculum.

In most districts, year 1 and 2 of a language curriculum is fairly locked down, leaving only a small amount of time for supplemental content. Some districts have recently redesigned their language curriculum to follow ACTFL’s 5 C’s. Of all the interviewees, two districts had a single Chinese teacher, one district had a single Arabic teacher, and only these instances did not have a curriculum built on the 5 C’s, perhaps because there was no need for a district-wide effort. In these guides, each language objective, benchmark, suggested technique and assessment is tied to each of the 5 C standards. For example, in a beginning level class, standard 1: communication-interpersonal includes “greetings”. Suggested strategies to teach and practice greetings include role play and partner work. Resources for this content are identified. Several choices for assessment are suggested. In this guide, all the standard 1: communication goals for the semester are listed. This is repeated for each of the remaining 5 C’s (connection, comparison, culture, community) following ACTFL’s format of separating each C. The result is that standard 4: culture has its own table, resulting in a conceptual representation of culture as separate.

Unfortunately, because some teachers treat culture as separate and secondary to the communication (grammar and vocabulary) focus and when time becomes an issue, the content selected gets narrowed down to essentials. One teacher shared that they had six snow days and said, “I guess what has to get punted sometimes is the fun culture stuff…we have to get direct object pronouns covered by the end, by the time of the exam. We have district wide final exams in levels 1 and 2” (B3, interview, April 4, 2013). Also, the culture items in the district curriculum guides are most often product-based at these lower levels. In the curriculum guides I reviewed, formal versus informal register was the only sociolinguistic item specifically
mentioned. One district curriculum coordinator mentioned that teachers in that district, working as a team to develop their language area curriculum, could not agree on what cultural items to select so specific topics were not included in the curriculum guide and therefore were also not assessed in unit exams (B4, interview, June 14, 2013).

As one teacher said, “especially with our textbook, it would tell us what the standards were for that page, and of course they stretch it. They could mention Mexico once in an example sentence and they’d say this was a culture standard” (B4, interview, June 14, 2013). Another teacher showed me the Cultura ‘culture’ section in her Spanish book (C2, interview, April 11, 2013). The three pages asked questions like T/F “Spain is in Europe”, and “There are many cars in Spain.” All three pages were factual information about the country, architecture, the name of an artist, the name of a type of poem. This may be one reason why teachers seek more cultural information outside of the textbook in an effort to do more on perspectives and practices.

Teacher E1 (Chinese, interview, May 2, 2013) reported, “I usually do culture completely separately from the book” after describing objectionable stereotyped representations in the book. In fact, nearly all the lesson examples that teachers provided to me portraying culture were not from their textbooks. No two lessons were the same and the search for supplemental resources always meant more time preparation.

Regarding sociolinguistic items, other than register (formal versus informal) and manners of greeting (shake, kiss, bow, etc.), sociolinguistic practices were not specified in the curriculum although there were a few examples of lifestyle practices such as removing shoes at the door or taking a siesta during the work day. The textbook, especially in lower levels, is the main source of course content, as identified in the curriculum guide. Two interviewees provided the rubric used for textbook selection (B4, interview, June, 14, 2013; C4, interview, April 23, 2013). Using
the rubric, the textbook committee scored new books on the following: alignment to district curriculum, accurate content, communication activities covering a range of authentic contexts and purposes, authentic applications, all four language skills, use of technology, differentiated instruction, reading strategies, and a variety of assessment formats. One rubric evaluated 3 Ps only indirectly through “authentic content and contexts” and the other had a line for cultural content, but the review was more about cultural product. Sociolinguistic variation is not mentioned. A teacher from a third district said much the same thing about their textbook selection. The main criteria was how well the book met their existing curriculum (C1, March 19, 2013, French). The second point of appeal was that it incorporated AP test type strategies in lower levels. Coverage of practices and perspectives was not part of the selection process in any of the examples provided by the interviewees.

Despite this lack of detail in practices and perspectives, often teachers would use the cultural inset or “factoid” as some teachers called it, as a jumping off point that they could build upon, if preparation time and class time allowed. For example, the books included small sections on factual culture – Valentine’s Day in Germany, Day of the Dead in Mexico, Picasso in Spain, a daily school schedule in Jordan and China. From these points, some teachers branched off and created or found supplemental activities that expanded on practices and perspectives. For example, while the students learned Chinese for time, school subjects, and school related vocabulary, they also learned about the Chinese value of education and compared the lifestyle practice of daily school life in China with their own. The teacher (H2, interview, November 5, 2013) asked students to discuss how they prepared for ACT or SAT exams and what it meant for their future and then the teacher related what the end of high school exam meant for Chinese high school students so the American students could appreciate more fully the values and beliefs
about education in China. She explained to the students how these values impacted even how Chinese teachers talk to Chinese parents, and then modeled what would be said to Chinese parents.

Teachers also drew supplemental material from personal experience from their own travels and study abroad, from YouTube, from district shared resources, and from other websites that provide collections of resources for language instruction. Some school districts have a central server site where teachers of the same foreign language can all upload their own creations and share with other teachers in their district (A1, interview, April, 2013; C4, April 23, 2013). When there is only one teacher of a language within a school district, and the language is less common, it can be tough and time consuming to find supplemental materials. The teacher of Arabic reported she spent half of her lesson preparation time trying to find supplemental materials. In these cases, shared forums online, such as was developed by the University of Missouri Kansas City for German, gives teachers from across many districts a place to share lessons. One German teacher interviewed talked about how useful that shared website was in providing a place for German teachers spread across the state to share content (E2, interview, June 3, 2013).

3 Ps content. Regarding the three types of cultural content, products were well covered, perspectives covered by many, and practices were the least covered. Everyone mentioned food. Art and music were mentioned frequently. There were many examples of study of art, history, food, holidays, money and sports and these are the primary cultural topics provided in the textbooks. Beyond the textbook, teachers found materials online or through the textbooks’ supplemental videos, and in many cases, a cultural product provided an avenue to discuss practices and perspectives. For example, instructor B4 (interview, June 14, 2013) talked about a
lesson that started with a song from YouTube called *El Amar y el Querer* ‘Love and Desire’ by José José [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2HJt4r_r7HY](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2HJt4r_r7HY). From the textbook, students might be studying expressing emotion with a grammatical focus on how to conjugate –ar and –er verbs. But this song also allows students to explore two Spanish words for love, *amar* and *querer* ‘to love’, from a sociolinguistic view and compare with words in English that express a range of affection, like a desire for pizza or love for parents. Being a relatively simple and slow song, the lyrics were accessible even at beginning level Spanish. Instructor B2 (interview, March 14, 2013) provided a song example for higher levels. Starting with another YouTube song called “Pobre Juan” by Maná [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=I8FBWa6WYzc](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=I8FBWa6WYzc) students watched the music video and then discussed, in Spanish, about illegal immigration and the reasons people choose to come to cross the border illegally. Then students were sent out to interview an immigrant about his/her motivation for coming to America and what that person found strange about American culture. Finally, students wrote in Spanish about their interview and shared in class some point that surprised them. This lesson included product (music), perspective (reasons for immigration) and often the interviews revealed lifestyle practices as cultures were compared. This lesson also met traditional FL criteria such as integrating multiple skill areas including listening, speaking and writing and all 5 C’s – communication, connection, community, culture, and comparison.

During the interviews, there were many examples of practices, but these examples were most often about daily life and behaviors, not tied to communication. For this study into the development of ICC, and based on the examples given in the interviews regarding practices, I found it necessary to divide practices into two categories: sociolinguistic practices and lifestyle practices. Lifestyle practices are very useful if the student goes for a study abroad. They will
know whether to take off the shoes at the door, how people behave at a bull fight, whether taking a *siesta* ‘nap’ in the afternoon is expected, etc. On the other hand, knowing sociolinguistic practices leads more to appropriate and meaningful communication in a conversation. This study was particularly interested in discovering what sociolinguistic information teachers are providing to help students develop ICC. Out of sixty lessons analyzed, thirty-one lessons had some lifestyle practice. Examples include wedding practices, practices related to national holidays, restaurant behavior, whether to bargain while shopping, and practices related to home life. There were very few sociolinguistic practice examples. Although several teachers gave “incidental” examples of sociolinguistic content (not part of a lesson plan), only six lessons were specifically intended for sociolinguistic practice. In one such example, a German teacher (E2, interview, June 3, 2013) taught many communication gestures while covering the unit on body parts. When someone says good luck, they also press their thumbs down whereas Americans might cross their fingers, so while her students are learning the words for fingers and thumbs in German, they are also learning how to say good luck and use the appropriate gestures while speaking. With additional prompting, eleven teachers provided over twenty examples of sociolinguistic content they knew had come up in class incidentally. For example, instructor B4 (interview, March 14, 2013) told about a fun nonverbal communication – mouth pointing. Apparently in Mexico, instead of pointing with a finger, people may use their mouth to point in the general direction of something they want you to see. An Arabic teacher (B5, interview, October 30, 2013) taught about the use of “ok, mama” to acknowledge something an older woman might say, regardless of actual relationship between the speakers.

The most common sociolinguistic feature addressed was register, formal and informal personal pronouns, used in French and Spanish (register is in the textbooks and district
curriculums), but four teachers also mentioned teaching metalinguistic techniques like negotiating for meaning, restating, and stalling. One teacher (B1, interview, March 13, 2013), whose degree was in second language acquisition, also mentioned guiding students to notice linguistic changes. Overall, sociolinguistic practices tended to be covered more “as they came up” rather than planned and were almost never assessed on unit exams.

Perspectives were well covered though it was interesting to see how often they were held separate from language instruction rather than integrating culture into learning the target language. There were several examples of activities for perspective that were designed to help students understand there were other perspectives. One such example would be a card game called Baranga used by teacher B1 (interview, 3/13/13) where students rotate from one table to another. As a student sat down at a new table, he or she had their mindset of the rules of the game, unaware that each table has its own rules of card play (which could not be communicated explicitly but learned implicitly by the negative reactions of the players who “knew” the rules of their table). Although done entirely in English, this kind of activity helped her students understand that different perspectives exist and language learners may not always know the rules. This primed their minds to more discussion on the target country’s culture and underlying rules. One student said “it never occurred to me that we could be playing by different rules, so I didn’t really listen to others or what they were trying to communicate to me. I feel like the entire U.S. has this mindset when it comes to immigrants or anybody different.”

Nine teachers also talked about the difficulty of doing perspectives in the target language. They wanted to do more on perspectives but were restricted by the current standard of conducting the class in the target language as much as possible. Once into the language lesson, particularly at the lower levels, talking about “why” was often considered to be too complex to
explain and too difficult for students to produce in assessments using the target language. Teachers reflected on the need to use English so that students could really understand the underlying beliefs that guide products and practices. Teacher A1 reflected, “…it’s (the explanation) in English, or you simplify it so much, and then it’s like “people wear molas in Panama” and it’s like, then it ends up where it’s not interesting, you know. So that’s what I struggle with” (interview, April 4, 2014). A teacher in another district reported the same kind of problem. B5 (interview, October 30, 2013) said her district had a big push to be totally in the target language but it just was not possible for students to gain cultural understanding in level 1 Arabic unless she used English. Since she feels very strongly that cultural understanding and cultural practices are so important, she works hard to integrate language learning with cultural content, but feels she cannot stay 100% in the target language. As a result, the information was presented and discussed in English, and the assignment or exam question was completed by the students in English. Teacher G1 (Spanish, interview, October 22, 2013) said, “my goal at this point is not for level 2 to try to produce language in Spanish…I’m willing to forego that being in Spanish because I REALLY want to get the kids thinking about the cultural inequities.” In the interviews, a majority of the examples on perspectives were done in English.

Consistently, there was a strong belief in the importance of teaching perspectives even at the lowest level. When I asked teachers about the benefit of learning the 3 Ps, the responses were mostly about learning perspectives. Some examples responses were:

- B1: helps them understand themselves and their own culture (interview, March 13, 2013)
- B3: they really need it to broaden their mind (interview, April 2, 2013)
- B5: are actually Feeling with the culture (interview, October 30, 2013)
• C1: understanding culture is almost more important than being able to speak the language (interview, March 19, 2013)

• E1: become more aware of themselves and the way they act in the world because they may have a window into how other people see them (interview, May 2, 2013)

• E2: being able to compare their own culture and realizing how we really are similar in so many ways. But being able to look at a different view point, understanding why teenagers are more into politics over there, more aware of government than we are in a much smaller nation than we are. I think it’s always good when they can compare and contrast themselves with people their same age (interview, June 3, 2013)

• G1: they never considered outside perspectives, they never put themselves in others’ shoes so I think it increases their ability, their security in terms of accepting what may be unknown to them. At the end of the day…not that vocabulary is not important, not that production is not important, but rather what they are ultimately doing is seeing, studying a different culture (interview, October 22, 2013)

The desire to help students develop global citizenry was emphasized in many of the lessons and in the curricula. A beginning French teacher (C1, interview March 19, 2013) said, “I feel like the best tool that I can give them sometimes is just teaching them the appropriate way to act in situations because actions speak louder than words”. Lifestyle practices were also covered in half the lesson examples, but sociolinguistic practices were few, and no one mentioned developing ICC as a goal for learning the 3 Ps. Only one teacher connected the benefit of learning the 3 Ps to language production:

It’s in your ability to understand the culture and the practices so I think that is part of your developing fluency, and to not include that, to me, your kids are at a disadvantage,
your students are at a disadvantage, and unfortunately, that isn’t included in our curriculum. There is very little culture, and what culture there is, is extremely superficial.

(C2, interview, March 27, 2013)

In order to incorporate more perspectives, while still trying to meet the district standard of staying in the target language, some teachers developed ways to weave in and out of the target language, so that students could understand the more complex concepts and still bring it back to practicing the language. For example, the elementary school teacher (A1), who expressed her conflict with doing perspectives in English, taught students about the Kuna Indians of Panama and the molas they create – articles of clothing with elaborate artwork depicting items of importance to them from daily life, culture and beliefs. Although these elementary students do not learn the full history of the Kunas, they do learn that their clothing isn’t just “pretty” but rather represents things of importance to the people wearing them. This understanding comes from class discussion in English. Then the students create their own mola designs on paper and do a small presentation in Spanish to explain the items they drew. This seems to be a reasonable method to discuss perspectives and bring it back to language learning.

Teacher B1 provided another example of weaving in and out of the target language (interview, March 13, 2013). Students read an article in English [http://www.seri-worldwide.org/id435.html](http://www.seri-worldwide.org/id435.html) about the misunderstanding of the Mayan calendar’s prediction of the end of the world and how Americans reacted. Students then listened to native speakers make comments in Spanish about what it meant to them. Then, on the exam, for extra credit, they wrote in Spanish about 3 interesting points regarding Mayan views about the “end of the world”. This kind of blending of some target language instruction mixed with English discussion to insure solid understanding of the perspective was very commonly used but with
state and national standards pushing for +80% instruction in the target language, teachers expressed some struggle with covering perspectives at low levels. Teacher B5, teaching Arabic, had similar strategies (interview, October 30, 2013). Because students are having to learn Arabic alphabet and writing, and because the culture is so different, many discussions on perspectives and practices start in English. Students then practice listening, speaking, reading and limited writing in Arabic on the theme, and then on tests, students explain cultural understanding by writing in English. For many of the teachers, it seems to be a balancing act that they weigh each time they consider how to present cultural lessons.

Assessment. Factors that seemed to influence assessment were how integrated the culture content was with the lesson, versus “ad hoc”, how much time was spent on it, and then whether it was in the textbook or district curriculum. It was most typical for teachers to not assess sociolinguistic information at all, and to assess other cultural content through activity completion rather than on a unit exam. Twelve teachers assessed through item completion and five teachers reported they do not assess any culture at all. B3 (interview, April 2, 2013) said she removes the cultural questions from the test provided by the textbook and C1 (interview, March 19, 2103) said, “the tests provided with the book have a multiple choice section on all the little flash culture things but I usually delete it because I feel like it’s just a teeny little bit of trivia…I would rather have them know how to conjugate their verbs and use them in a sentence.” She assesses cultural practices through skits and project-based learning instead rather than on the unit test. Then teachers indicated that something just came up in class, not part of the lesson, they also reported that it was not assessed. Some teachers will include cultural content as extra credit, but most often, assessment is done by completing a task. For example, Teacher D1 (interview, May 17, 2013) has developed a week long lesson around Cinco de Mayo, including lots of products, lots
of practices with integrated language instruction. Class discussion is held in English to learn that
the holiday is meant to be a celebration of life (perspective) and the optional assignment is to
create an ofrenda ‘altar’ for a loved one and talk to the class about the ofrenda and the person it
represents. Students learn the vocabulary involved in the holiday and are tested on that in the unit
exam, and they learn the lifestyle practices and perspectives in a very personal, meaningful way,
but they do so all in English, including their presentation on their ofrenda. When it was on an
exam, it was usually in the extra credit area. In fact, out of sixty lesson examples, only eleven
lessons had an exam question on culture and often the assessment of cultural understanding was
done in English.

Techniques and training. Teachers were asked about nine specific techniques for
teaching culture: role play, dialog, modeling, scenarios, videos, reading authentic texts, discourse
completion, situation analysis and response, class discussion of values and beliefs. The nine
techniques discussed in the interviews were selected from the literature review as useful to
practice and test for ICC. Some of the nine, like role play, discourse completion, and watching
videos are commonly used for practicing standard grammar and vocabulary, but can be adapted
toward a sociolinguistic focus. For example, with discourse completion, the activity is typically
designed to select the correct grammatical form. But this technique can also be designed instead
to select the correct sociolinguistic response based on a given scenario. In the interview process,
I would ask about a technique and then probe for usages related to a sociolinguistic focus. For
example, when asked about discourse completion, everyone said “yes”. It’s a very common
technique. Then I would follow with “do you ever have students do discourse completion, and all
the answers are grammatically correct, but only one answer fits the situation from a
sociolinguistic aspect?” For videos, the follow up question was “when students watch a video,
do you call their attention to practices (either sociolinguistic or lifestyle)?” Upon completing the interviews, all techniques were tallied and analyzed for how they addressed practices and perspectives, in particular, given the focus of developing ICC.

Role play, dialogue, and videos were the most common techniques used by teachers to help students learn practices and perspectives. Teacher modeling and class discussion (in English) were nearly as popular. After that, the use of the remaining four techniques (the techniques that were very focused on sociolinguistics) dropped off. Only three teachers had students read a scenario and identify the correct social/cultural response. Only eight teachers had students do discourse completion based on socially correct choices rather than grammatical choices (and that was often identifying the right pronoun/register for the situation). Ten teachers did have students analyze situations and develop best responses. Students were given a situation like “You are going to an interview. What do you wear? How do you greet the employer?” (H1, interview, November 4, 2013) or “Your aunt invited you to dinner but you had plans with your friends. What do you do and say?” (B5, October 30, 2013). Based on the results, it seems the newer techniques suggested in the literature review are not yet part of the normal repertoire for language instruction.

Teachers were also asked about whether any training they had, either in their formal education, or afterwards in professional development, workshops or conferences, had taught them about the 5 C’s and the 3 Ps. Nearly everyone knew about the 5 C’s, but less than half had ever heard about the 3 Ps. Some of the responses included:

- B1 (interview, Spanish, March 13, 2013), when asked about 3 P’s, “I would say it was more the 5 C’s.”
B2 (interview, advanced Spanish, March 14, 2013) when asked about training in the 3 P’s and teaching culture, “(shakes her head no) “You are kidding! No! No, absolutely not.

C4 (interview, Japanese, April 23, 2013) said, “In both degrees we had multicultural understanding classes but it was more the “not offend people” of multi-cultures not necessarily how to TEACH it. A lot of the in-services...on the importance of using realia and teaching culture was emphasized by not necessarily always modeled.”

B1 (interview, beginner Spanish, March 13, 2013), “rubric training was a big part of our district professional development this year...you know, project based learning, there was a definite emphasis on authentic situations and realia.

B2 (interview, advanced Spanish, March 14, 2013), reported that she had been to several Central States world language conferences with “amazingly good” presentations on the 5 C’s and focused on “the products are just the tip of the iceberg and that the culture is really the iceberg under the water”...but (there is) a tendency to think that culture is food and art. If you can make a taco in class and you can pull out an El Greco painting then you (slap hands), ‘I’ve done culture!’

And what they would like to learn more about:

B1 (interview, Spanish, March 13, 2013), wanted more information on “exchange programs, maintaining student accountability when they are doing speaking activities”

G2 (interview, Spanish, October 23, 2013) reported about going to conferences and saying “I tend to look for more about...communication and then games...how to motivate students” rather than topics that cover culture.
According to the teacher responses, their formal education did not cover much if any of the 3 Ps. Several responded favorably to the section on techniques, saying things like “oh, I want to try doing that” so it seemed that many of the techniques suggested by the literature review were also new to the teachers. Finally, based on their responses on professional development and workshops, these seemed to cover more broad scope teacher topics like teaching to standards, project-based learning, or the use of authentic materials. These responses corresponded to the reports from the teacher education programs.

**Teacher Education Programs**

When I contacted each higher education institution, I was directed to contact the methods instructor as the best person to answer my questions. Instructors from three higher education institutions were interviewed about their foreign language teacher education program and in each case, the person interviewed had been the sole methods instructor for the last three years. In the FL teaching methods course, all three institutions cover the 5 C’s and teach students that culture should be integrated, but they also reported minimal coverage of 3 Ps. Typically the focus is on building lesson plans that map out the multiple C’s, identify learning goals, and making sure the assessment measure the stated objectives, and practice teaching. Actually, all three institutions use the same textbook called *Teacher’s Handbook: Contextualizing Instruction* (Shrum & Glisan, 2010). Chapter 2 introduces the 5 C’s and several subsequent chapters address each one. In Chapter 5, there is one lesson (one page) on the 3 Ps.

Two institutions (I1, interview, June 14, 2013; I3, interview, October 31, 2013) discussed the difficulty of adequately covering all the necessary content in just one semester while also providing enough practice in lesson development. Both would prefer two semesters of methods courses. Because of this, institution 1 only devotes one lesson on the 3 Ps. Additionally, while I1
does have a lesson on the 3 P’s, the methods instructor specifically mentioned product, not practice. In their lesson, students are instructed “find a product that you might have…bring the art, the web, the image” and then to share their perspective on it (I1, interview, June 14, 2013).

Institution 2 (interview, October 1, 2013) talks about cultural competence but does not teach the cultural triangle of 3 Ps, preferring to emphasize products as tangible content for high school students. Institution 3 reported using the 3 P structure on more than one lesson but in a content course about the target language and culture (an advanced course in French), rather than in the methods course. Overall, the 3 Ps are minimally addressed.

All three instructors had the same answer about assessing culture. If the teacher puts it in the lesson plan as an objective, then it should be assessed (ie, teachers were graded on their ability to match objective to assessment, not on how to assess culture). As I2 (interview, October 1, 2013) stated when asked about assessment, stated, “if you ARE going to assess it (culture), just make sure that it is part of your goal for your unit…where students are, while they are communicating you are looking at that too.” This same philosophy was reiterated with the other two institutions. But two of the three also said specific cultural competency items were not included in the curriculum and therefore not assessed. The methods course focused on having the lesson goals, activities and assessments be cohesive. If they did a lesson plan that had a goal of learning when to use *quiero* versus *quisiera* (“I want” versus the more polite “I would like”), then it should be included in the assessment, otherwise no. There was no directive that culture should be assessed and to what degree culture should be included or integrated.

Lastly, there is very little, if any, education on sociolinguistics or how to teach that aspect of language. Institution 1 requires an introductory linguistics course, and within that course there is one unit on sociolinguistics. Institution 2 does not require a linguistics course. Institution 3 had
phonetics in the language pronunciation course, but no sociolinguistics. And the teaching techniques reported by the teachers mirror the techniques reported as being taught by the higher education institutions – role play, dialogs, teacher modeling, videos, and class discussion but lacking a sociolinguistic focus. In addition, there was no mention of training teachers on how to teach metalinguistic techniques, noticing, or language analysis for the language learner. Again, this may reflect back on the shortage of time to cover everything, as I1 and I3 mentioned. A summary of the coverage of best practices, as reported by these training education programs is shown in Table 2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>5 C’s</th>
<th>3 Ps</th>
<th>sociolinguistics</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>One lesson</td>
<td>One unit of linguistics</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Focus on product and perspective</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The training provided by the higher education institutions directly relates to the state department of education guidelines. The two states included in this study (by the location of the institutions evaluated) have detailed standards for cultural competency, including sociolinguistic practice, knowledge of lifestyle practice, and understanding of perspectives, but the state-provided assessments for students do not yet include these measures in their interpersonal communication assessment rubrics – i.e., intercultural communicative competence is not assessed. Therefore it is understandable that it is not yet a required feature of teacher education programs.

Corroborating the institutional responses, teachers were asked about their education and their knowledge of the 5 C’s and the 3 Ps. As reported in the demographics section, nearly all teachers had a master’s degree in some area of education. Everyone had had a teaching methodology course and eighteen teachers were very familiar with the 5 C’s. Newer teachers all
reported that in the methods course they had to develop sample lessons which required them to build lessons that demonstrated all 5 C’s. The aim of covering multiple C’s was demonstrated in the lesson plans provided in the interviews. The 3 Ps were less well known to the teachers. Although teachers had included cultural products and some perspectives into lessons on covered grammar and vocabulary, only nine teachers had heard about the 3 Ps and recognized them without explanation. Most who knew about the 3 Ps reported hearing about it later through conference attendance or other post-graduate professional trainings. When asked about techniques, the techniques used and known by the teachers were the same as those the teacher education programs reported being taught. Few are using the techniques geared to practicing sociolinguistic nuances and no institution reported teaching them how to do this.

**Content developers.** When asked about I contacted the publishing companies of the textbooks reported in the teacher interviews who then forwarded my request on to their editors and authors. There were 5 respondents: three authors responded about their textbooks, and two editors responded about their company’s books in general. One author answered in a phone interview and the remainder answered in writing.

**Content selection and restrictions.** When asked about the process for selecting cultural content, the main aim appears to be to select items that they thought were interesting for each country and chapter. One author (P2, written response, November 11, 2013), who has written textbooks for many years, commented that in the past, Spanish textbooks were all Spanish from Spain. Now they include information from all Spanish speaking regions, covering twenty-one countries, stating that “a main concern is that all areas of the Hispanic world be covered since each country has specific customs and culture.” Every respondent mentioned a similar desire to cover all regions or countries that use the same language and highlighting cultural aspects of
each and teachers were happy with this change to include more countries. Other than that, content developers were free to choose whatever fit within the themes. There were a few restrictions mentioned. Copyright fees for authentic materials are rising and so some content has had to be dropped. P1 reported “We use as much realia as we are allowed…We used to have a larger number of authentic cartoons but some of the best cartoonists now charge a much higher fee.” Cultural content is also restricted by local and state standards, even if that information is valid for the target culture. For example, a Spanish textbook going to customers in the Middle East will not include information about alcohol (P1, written response, November 4, 2013). P4 also mentioned copyright for authentic materials and potentially offensive content as restrictions for content selection (written response, October 30, 2013). The authors and editors were asked to describe the types of cultural content in their books, the replies included:

- P1: present something interesting that will stimulate discussion…try to use controversial points (Spanish, written response, November 4, 2013).
- P2: fiestas, customs related to family, student life, music, daily life culture, register…slang terms are included in the Teachers’ notes. Teachers’ notes also include extra historical or factual information about the theme of the chapter (Spanish, written response, November 11, 2013).
- P3: It was important for me to reflect cultural situations that frequently occur in their (German, Austrian, Swiss) respective countries….going to school, on the soccer field, with a family, going on vacation, being friends, leisure time activities…it isn’t just the textbook that’s important but even more so the ancillaries (audio, CDs, workbooks…role play activities, videos) (German, written response, October 25, 2013).
- P4: A typical language textbook would feature all of these elements (3 Ps). . . . authentic literature . . . traditional practices, realia, art, music, foods, geographical information (written response, October 30, 2013).

- P5: Almost every aspect of culture is referenced at least once somewhere. . . . history, music, lexical variations, fine arts, politics, celebrities, institutions, values, museums, cultural practices, food, etc. We intentionally don’t cover cultural aspects that would put a region or country in a negative light or perpetuate stereotypes (written response, October 30, 2013).

Products were the number one mentioned items to be covered: art, famous places and people, music, food. Lifestyle practices were mentioned by three of the five interviews, as were perspectives. There was one book that was exemplary in its content development, as described by the author. Culture is integrated throughout, even in the opening dialogue or scenario. If needed, complex cultural concepts are explained in English. In addition, the book is developed with ACTFL 5 C’s in mind (reported by three of the five authors/editors).

Lifestyle practices were also a big focus. The authors and editors were asked specifically what each of the 3 Ps they might have included. There were only two sociolinguistic examples given: one author mentioned register and one author mentioned that cultural practices such as personal space in greetings were included in the explanations for greetings. The description from authors about content, with the heavy emphasis on cultural products and identification of 5 C elements corresponds closely with what the teachers reported when asked about their textbooks.

Requests for changes. There were several methods by which authors and editors decide to make changes to their textbooks. According to one editor (P4, written response, October 30, 2013), publishing companies hire professional consultants and ask teachers to be in focus groups
to provide feedback for textbooks. The companies pay attention to developments from leaders like ACTFL. Authors go to conferences to stay abreast of new ideas. Sales representatives bring back feedback from teachers. Many publishing companies have a survey on their website, another avenue for teachers to provide feedback. P5 reported that “the main rationale for making changes and updates is customer feedback. We actively solicit feedback in online surveys before development starts on a new edition…if enough instructors specifically request a new trend…there’s a good chance that we will respond accordingly” (written response, October 30, 2013).

A need for more culture was one of those issues that the publishers have responded to. In response to requests for more culture, online resources seemed to be a common solution. In this format, size and color are no longer a cost issue and it gives publishers more opportunity to provide video and audio cultural content. Regarding new trends, all five respondents report that the online resources are allowing them to do more with culture, to build in social media like blogging and Skype so students can make more connections with the target community.

Teachers have noted improvements. Many expressed high praise for the supplemental videos. And even within textbooks, there have been some improvements. For example, C4, who teaches Japanese, stated about her previous edition of the same book:

…when we teach the greetings WE teach them the bowing. When we teach them their self-introduction, we teach them to bow at the beginning, bow at the end, this is how you bow, you don’t slump shoulders, you know, these are things you look at, the degree. The book teaches them the words for greetings.
She then went on to show me this year’s edition which now includes information on bowing, so she felt that the books were starting to incorporate more culture cultural practices (interview, April 23, 2013).

Teacher view of textbook. From the teachers’ perspectives, the lower level books had improved quite a bit. Most books had supplemental videos and website materials which were well-regarded. The videos were mentioned frequently as a source for highlighting both linguistic and lifestyle practices. In total, 3 teachers did not have textbooks. For the elementary education teacher, there was nothing appropriate for the students’ age group. For teachers from the Confucius Institute, the teachers all work together to develop all level materials. Two more teachers chose not to use the district textbook. One was a strong follower of Krashen’s “comprehensible input” and felt the textbook did not provide that. The other used TPRS almost exclusively, so instead of using the district’s textbook, she used Blaine Ray novels for instruction. This method of instruction uses story-telling, focused on learning the meaning, and only highlighting on grammar as it becomes relevant. Cultural information is incidental – whatever is in the story. Of the fifteen remaining, four teachers did not use any of the cultural content from their textbooks, preferring to develop their own. E1 said, “I usually do culture completely separately from the book” (interview, May 2, 2013). C2 felt that “you know the way it is presented in the textbook does not correlate with the way you speak when you are actually there, living it,” and also “I am searching, and I spend a lot of time re-developing lessons that are IN the textbooks” (interview, March 27, 2013). Many teachers reflected on the additional time they spent developing more cultural content.

For the higher levels of language instruction (3 and above), teachers had to work harder to build lessons that integrated culture. Level 5 and AP textbooks are comprised of reading
authentic literature and then answering questions provided through listening or writing in the same manner as the AP style testing. These readings are good but tend to be stand-alone items, making it more difficult to build a theme or series of related activities. Teachers at this level all stated that there was little district-level structure and because there were not many teaching at their level, one teacher felt like it was the “wild west” of language instruction and another reported it felt like being alone on an island. B2 (interview, advanced Spanish, March 14, 2013), reported that “there is a very clear articulated curriculum in Spanish 1, 2, and 3. It is less articulated in 4…each teacher kind of picks and chooses and in 5 and 6, there is NO curriculum, there is NONE.” Some of the teacher comments about the textbooks included:

- B1 (interview, Spanish, March 13, 2013), “(in the book) They do plenty of you know, rote grammar, decontextualized stuff, but I’d much rather have situational practices, exercises. But for the most part I’m really pleased with the online resources”

- B2 (interview, advanced Spanish, March 14, 2013), “I love that is has a video series that goes with it that is for native speakers…and the audio resources are online. I don’t use (the book) very often….I don’t think this is a book generation anymore…they are internet users.

Only a couple of the teachers interviewed said they had provided feedback to publishing companies or authors. In discussing giving feedback to publishers, B1 commented “I haven’t yet but I think when adoption time comes up they send representatives and hopefully they would be receptive in reporting that to the powers that be” (interview, Spanish, March 13, 2013). This may be an area where teachers can unite to provide more frequent, more consistent feedback to publishers, who seem willing to respond.
**Additional textbook review.** To better understand the teachers’ comments on textbooks, I reviewed the teacher editions of three of the most recommended books, one book at level 1 and two at level 3. As part of this study, textbook authors receive the same anonymity as instructors and institutions so the book titles will not be named, but they were selected based on popular usage. I looked for cultural integration, assessed the type of culture presented of the 3 Ps, in particular looking for development of context (anything matching any part of Hymes SPEAKING), plus sociolinguistic and metalinguistic examples that research tells us helps develop communicative competence. Each book has an introduction that explains their goals for meeting ACTFL standards and all of them highlight which ACTFL “C” is being met in a particular activity or content. Also in each case, the most common device for understanding culture was through comparison.

Book 1 (2011) was a level 3 Spanish text that begins by stating that it has “a cultural focus integrated through the entire lesson (p. iii)” and “stresses cultural competency and the ability to make connections...expand cultural knowledge, and to recognize distinctive viewpoints.” (p. IAE-7). In actuality, this book seems fairly traditional in approach. Each chapter starts with broad introduction to chapter theme, a vocabulary list, vocabulary practice, then a short film with a “cultural note” on the side. There is also a section on travel to a country which tends to be product focused and then a highlight of an artist or famous person. Finally, additional culture is presented in a cultural reading and an authentic literature piece. In a review of the first chapter, the cultural sidebars were about the train system, famous people, and a famous work of art. The cultural reading was about immigration. Students were asked comprehension questions about why immigrants come here and then were asked to express their opinion about the advantages and disadvantages of going to live in another country, assuming a knowledge base
the students may not have had. The train system explains a lifestyle practice, and the immigration reading presented a perspective. No metalinguistic techniques are suggested to the teacher to incorporate, and none of the settings have explain sociolinguistic or context information. Even at level 3, the book is heavily product-based in its approach to culture.

Book 2 (2010) was a level 1 Spanish text. The level 1 book begins by stating that “culture is a cornerstone” (p. T6). Handily, the teacher introduction has a list of all cultural references in the book which includes a great majority of product-based culture: architecture, art, cities, economy, food, geography, history, holidays, museums, music, and famous places and people. There are several lifestyle references including daily life, shopping, traditions and pastimes. Out of twelve columns of cultural references, there is one column that is focused on linguistic variations and these are introduced in small insets called “tambien se dice” (one can also say….) in the chapters. Each Unit starts with a panel that lists the content coverage of each of the 5 C’s in that unit. In reviewing chapter 1, registers for greetings are explained and a variety of greeting options provided, with photos to see the contexts they might occur in. Register and the linguistic variations by country were the only sociolinguistic references in the book. However, products, lifestyle practices and perspectives seem well integrated into each unit.

Book 3 (2010) was a level 1 German text. The teacher introduction begins with full explanations of how it covers each of the 5 C’s and for culture, it states “Culture is uniquely infused in every page…enabling students to establish connections between the German language and lifestyle” (TE20). This book also starts off fairly traditional, starting with the presentation of vocabulary, sample dialogue and dialogue practice, grammatical explanation. Then there is a cultural reading (typically product) followed by a section called “von einem ort zum andern” (from one location to another) that focuses on lifestyle practices. There are additional activities
and readings based on history and current German culture. Despite its traditional start, this book does more to include sociolinguistics than the other two examples. For example, in chapter 1 there is a reading about three Germans shopping. On the side, it explains that women with Ph.D.’s are referred to as *Frau Doktor*, explaining the addresses used in story. In another example, chapter 5 asks students to listen to a dialogue and then try to explain why a particular form of “you” was used in the situation. Later in the chapter, there is a reading about the concept of politeness in German culture and asks them to compare to their own culture. This book seems to have more intentional focus on word choices and sociolinguistics while still including a number of lifestyle practices, products, and perspectives.

Overall, there seems to be some difference in opinion between what the content developers hope/believe they are providing, and what teachers, and my own micro review indicated. From the teacher view and my own analysis, the textbooks are predominantly focused on products. Yes, there were a few examples of sociolinguistic variations and there were some stories that highlighted lifestyle practices, but overall, chapter content was about the history, the art, the music, and famous people. It could not be said that there is a great deal of content designed to develop intercultural communicative competence, although there is evidence of many improvements and teachers are very happy with the supplemental online and video content.

**Other Issues: AP exam and ACTFL**

One initial reason for conducting this research was to discover if there were ways to increase the success rate for students taking the AP foreign language exam. Based on the results of this study, there seems to be some disconnect between AP goals and ACTFL goals. In the literature review, research indicated that the AP exam was working to incorporate more of
ACTFL standards, particularly culture into the exam. For example, as noted in the literature review, the AP oral exam score at the higher levels now requires “accurate social and cultural reference” (CollegeBoard, 2012b). The district curriculum coordinator I interviewed stated that the district goal was to increase the number of AP courses in foreign languages and, from attending the KSWLA 2013 conference, I learned that the state is working to increase AP courses in foreign language across the state. One of the reasons for conducting this research was to learn if there were gaps in instructional practice that led to lack of high scores on AP exams. The teacher interviews told a different story.

One area of difference lies in the purpose for providing and for taking AP courses. For most of the districts, and at the state level, AP courses are viewed as higher quality, highest level of instruction. It seems, however, that for most students (based on teacher responses), a primary goal for taking high level language courses is to earn college credit. Many districts had AP courses but they also provided an option for dual credit (college credit) in a language. E1 (Chinese, interview, May 2, 2013) said, “…likely to go the dual credit route…because with the dual credit, it’s more tangible and it saves them money and their parents money in college by taking those credits out. If they take AP, they are likely to still have to take it” (in college). In addition, colleges have their own CLEP exams so students can test out of one or more semesters of their foreign language requirement. This means that students have three pathways to earn college credit and the dual credit course is the surest way to guarantee results. Rather than basing years of study on a single test like the AP exam, earning a good grade in a dual credit course meant college credit was already achieved. Further, for those choosing between and AP exam and a CLEP test at the college, the CLEP test was considered to be easier to earn more semesters of credit than the AP exam. Teachers actively advised students of these choices and chances.
The other issue with AP came from feedback from those teachers experienced in AP about the difficulty of achieving a high score, and several questioned the validity of the AP exam. Teacher C2 (interview, March 27, 2013) reported that one of her most fluent native-like speakers got a 3 on the AP exam while her never-traveled but excellent grammar student got a 5. She was very surprised. As a bilingual speaker and having lived in Spanish speaking countries for many years, in her expert opinion, the first student was more fluent and more native-like. Of course there could be many reasons for the difference in the results, so the example is merely anecdotal, but the teacher suspected that the AP test was geared towards academic language, not authentic language. The first student was less studious about grammar and may have done more poorly on the writing. Teacher C4, teaching Japanese, said, “I don’t usually recommend it (AP) because the AP test is even difficult for native speakers to take. We did have students try the AP one year and even our top students were only getting like 4’s” (interview, 4/23/2013). Another teacher (C3, interview, April 11, 2013) questioned how AP scorers judged the correctness of personal pronouns *tu*, informal ‘you’, or *usted*, formal ‘you’, in Spanish. Academically, *usted* would be the right choice (formal) for a student speaking to a teacher and *tu* would be correct within a family (informal). In real language, the correctness depends entirely upon which country you have in mind as the right model. C3 reported:

> On the AP test they get docked pretty hard if they are using *tu* ‘you’ (informal) when it should be *usted* ‘you’ (formal). What makes me so mad about this is …for example in Spain they almost never use *usted*, almost never. It creates a distance…while in Costa Rica…even within the family it was all *usted*, brother to sister, mom to daughter.

Spanish teachers, aware of these cultural differences, question the validity of AP testing where they believe the academic version is the measurement used.
Finally, those teachers who have had official AP training reported that the AP training for teachers consist of test techniques and scoring. The German teacher reported that teachers are taught how to select the appropriate level of literature, the typical kinds of essay questions that might be developed that would be on AP tests, and how to score them based on AP standards (E2, interview, June 3, 2013). What it did not train them to do was help students develop “accurate social and cultural reference” stated in the AP scoring rubric for level 5 oral performance (CollegeBoard, 2012a, p. 2). Because of these concerns, most teachers reported they recommend dual credit courses over AP courses to their students resulting in few students who sit for the AP exams in foreign language. For all of these reasons, recommendations for improvements in this area was discarded from the study, while the overall focus remains on improving ICC.

**Emerging Themes in Foreign Language Instruction**

General inductive analysis was used to discover any themes or relationships between the classroom practices and all other variables (Thomas, 2006). I started by creating categories for years of teaching experience, language levels taught, educational training, post-degree trainings and conference attendance, knowledge of 5 C’s and 3 Ps, techniques used, degree of coverage of 3 Ps, satisfaction with textbook, time spent finding supplemental content, and whether culture was being assessed. Using a constant comparative method, each incident in a category was compared with incidents in other interviews and then across categories to find any existing relationships (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 73). I also discovered that I needed a way to describe each instructors “whole picture”, a composite view of each instructor’s current level of teaching culture and exhibiting best practices. I created a rubric to tally evidence of best practices. These best practices, based on the literature review, include integration of culture into the language
lesson, coverage of products, practices (both lifestyle and sociolinguistic), perspectives, and assessment. This composite view, or unit of analysis, was then compared against all the other identified categories and some patterns began to emerge.

**Unit of Analysis - Level of Best Practices in Cultural Instruction**

From the information provided in the lesson plans, a core variable was created to analyze the level of cultural instruction/best practices on a scale from 1-6. ACTFL recommends that culture be integrated into every lesson, not tacked on as the item of interest or extra item that can be dropped if time is limited. ACTFL defines three kinds of culture: product, practice, and perspective. Further, any discussion of a product or practice should also demonstrate the relationship to the underlying beliefs. Because the teaching of sociolinguistic practices are most relevant to learning ICC, I analyzed each interview for examples of lifestyle practices and for sociolinguistic practices separately. Finally, cultural relevance and appropriateness is a measure of competence on national exams like the AP exam, and therefore assessment of cultural understanding and production is essential in the foreign language classroom. Assessment scoring was based on apparent value in the curriculum – assignment completion, like doing a worksheet versus inclusion on a unit exam. Teachers are taught in their methods course that formal assessments must match lesson objectives. Therefore, if cultural content was included in a unit exam, it held more importance in the curriculum. The unit of analysis consisted of these six factors: integration of culture in the lessons, whether the lesson addressed product, lifestyle practice, sociolinguistic practice, perspective, and assessment (item completion, unit exam). Using the transcriptions as well as the actual lesson plans, an analysis was conducted for each interview and a score assigned. The rubric below shows the scoring system:

**Table 3 – Rubric for Unit of Analysis**
Teachers presented three lessons and also discussed nine general techniques. For cultural integration, a score of “1” was given if the cultural content lesson involved learning and practicing the target language in at least 2 lessons. A score of “.5” was given if at least one lesson demonstrated integration of culture into the language lesson, but where not all three lessons were integrated. In the cases where culture was supplemental, or outside of learning the language (done all in English), integration was a “0”.

Regarding product, practices, and perspective, any lesson might cover one or more of these cultural areas and to receive points. Cultural product has been well addressed for many years, and continues to be at the forefront of the lessons as well as book content. Nearly every lesson presented in the interviews included product. Because this study was particularly looking for sociolinguistic instruction, “practice” was subdivided into sociolinguistic practice (verbal and
non-verbal) and lifestyle practice. Many teachers taught lifestyle practices such as whether to take shoes off upon entering a home, hands on or off the table at mealtime, or holiday rituals, but far fewer taught practices related to a communicative event – changes in word forms, gestures, or tone appropriate for the situation. For perspectives, several teachers had activities that helped students understand different world views. These were counted for expanding cultural understanding even when they were not directly related to language learning or done in English. One example of this was the “Nacirema Tribe activity”, used by teacher B5 (interview, 10/30/13) where students read in English about a strange land and their weird behaviors as seen from an anthropologist’s view (which turns out to be about American culture). Another example was the previously mentioned card game called Baranga used by teacher B1 (interview, 3/13/13) where students rotate from table to table, not knowing the game rules at each spot, having to learn through game play rather than explanation. These activities helped students understand that different perspectives exist and served to open their minds to more discussion on the target country’s culture. Therefore they were included for scoring perspective content. Coverage of the 3 Ps of culture account for up to 4 points of the scale.

Finally, whether assessed and type of assessment of culture was determined. This category was also subdivided, as it was found that a completion of an activity could be viewed as “assessment” and that earned (.5), while actually including it on a unit exam earned an additional (.5). If there was a clear statement that culture was not assessed, that was indicated with a (0).

A description of each lesson and points assigned per lesson, plus additional comments about techniques, where it impacted the scoring can be found in Appendix F. Based on this point system, a teacher who demonstrated best practices through integrated cultural instruction,
coverage of all 3 Ps, and assessment of culture on a unit exam would score a 6. To illustrate the scoring system, one example is provided below:

An instructor (B2) had a unit on bull fights in Spain. Students read *Viva El Toro* by Lisa Ray Turner and Blaine Ray. Students read about the rituals and ceremony of the bull fights (products, practices) and learned about the perspectives of bull fights in Spain in class discussion. Students role played a bull fight, wrote a letter to their family in Spanish practicing the command form, and wrote an AP style opinion essay about how they feel about bull fights and compared that to their understanding of Spain’s tradition and beliefs. The unit exam is about command form and expressing opinion, and does not include bullfights. As a byproduct, students learned one unintended sociolinguistic practice. A heritage speaker in class was simply unable to write the letter to his parents because, as he said, “I could never use a command to my parents. I could only make suggestions.” So, in this first lesson, the teacher has demonstrated integration, product, lifestyle practice, sociolinguistic practice, perspectives, and assessment (homework). The next lesson reviewed taught about Argentinian romantic compliments. This lesson was integrated, covered lifestyle and sociolinguistic practice, perspective and was assessment by students writing their own versions. The third lesson required students to choose multiple activities from a 4-page worksheet called *Puntos Culturales* to explore in the real world, requiring them to encounter product, lifestyle practice, perspective and then write about their discoveries in Spanish (assessed through item completion). Two out of three lessons had product, two out of three lessons had lifestyle practice. Finally, in discussing the nine techniques, the teacher presented many sociolinguistic practices that had been taught, not necessarily connected to a lesson, bringing that count up to 2 as
well. Because there are multiple examples (2 or more) in each category of best practice, this instructor’s overall rating was 5.5 out of 6. The (.5) score was because each lesson was assessed through item completion while the unit exam covered grammar and vocabulary and did not include the cultural points.

Using this method of analysis on the lessons provided, the interviewees received the following ratings for cultural instruction/best practices:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Integration</th>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Lifestyle Practice</th>
<th>Sociolinguistic Practice</th>
<th>Perspective</th>
<th>Assessed</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td>5.5</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>H2</td>
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<td>.5</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
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</table>

This rubric provided the unit of analysis that would be used to compare against all the other categories. Some patterns emerged from this analysis.

Relationship between use of best practices and number of techniques used. Teachers were asked about nine specific techniques that are particularly suited to cover sociolinguistic content and cultural understanding. Eleven teachers who reported using five or more of the nine
techniques also scored 4.5 or higher in cultural inclusion/best practices. The six teachers who used three techniques or less scored in cultural inclusion/best practices at 3.5 or below. Only three teachers were outside of this scale. D1 used six techniques but only scored a 3 in cultural inclusion/best practices. This was because a lot of perspective topics were covered but culture was not integrated or assessed. Of the sociolinguistic techniques, D1 used discourse completion for register (tu and usted). While that counted as a reported technique (.5), no other coverage of sociolinguistic practices or lifestyle practices were revealed in the interview. Teachers G1 and G2 had similar issues where they did a lot of product and perspective but little coverage of either type of practice, limited integration and assessment, though they used five techniques to teach culture. For the most part, teachers who were doing more toward cultural instruction were also the teachers demonstrating a variety of instructional techniques.

**Book satisfaction, language level taught, best practices.** Each teacher was asked about how much time they spent finding additional materials. There was no clear relationship between years of experience and time spent finding extra cultural content or with any relationship between other factors and book satisfaction. The one related factor seemed to be the language level taught, regardless of what specific language was reviewed. Teachers teaching level 4 (advanced) and above all reported several hours more time per week than the lower level instructors. For example, B2 (interview March 14, 2013) who teaches Spanish 4 and 5, showed me the authentic readings found in the AP exam. For one example, the Spanish lottery, there is the reading, but if she wants to build a unit or theme around it, she has to do all the work. She reported spending a minimum of 10 hours a week finding additional related materials. C2, who teaches level 3, 4, AP, and Heritage classes, felt that “you know the way it is presented in the textbook does not correlate with the way you speak when you are actually there, living it,”
Generally, teachers teaching at a higher language level, are less satisfied and spend more time looking for supplemental material. C4 (Japanese, interview, April 23, 2013) mentioned that sometimes the book now shows linguistic variations but doesn’t explain the variation. It is up to the teacher to add explanations and cultural examples. She relies on the shared materials and website developed in her district to save her time from having to supplement the book. These teachers and several others who scored higher on the best practices rubric expressed the most need to search for supplemental content. It may be that teachers who rate higher in best practices are also more focused on cultural content in general, in particular practices and perspectives and are therefore more critical of what the textbooks have included.

**Conference attendance, training, and best practices.** There was one other area of interest found in the analysis, though not necessarily a direct connection or something that could be called a pattern. Because the ACTFL 5 C’s were introduced in 2000 and the 3 Ps several years after that, I wondered whether teachers who got their education degree before that time might be unfamiliar with the newer concepts. Or, one might expect that the type of degree would differentiate teachers. This was not the case. Regardless of years of experience, when degree earned, or type of degree, there was no connection to best practices. There was some vague relationship to how much teachers participated in professional development and attended professional conferences. However, the interviews did not focus in depth on what types of session they attended, how much they brought back to the classroom, etc. It also seemed like those teachers that were more involved in these types of activities also used more of those nine techniques. This would be an interesting area to follow up in the future research. There were clear differences in levels of knowledge among the twenty teachers, with only nine teachers even recognizing the 3 P term so how and when they learned of the 5 C’s and 3 Ps needs further
exploration. In addition, because most of the techniques discussed in the interview were not part of traditional teacher training, it would be interesting to explore how some teachers came to be using more techniques in the classroom than others when it was not part of their training.

**Summary of findings.** This qualitative study explored the factors that influence the teaching of culture in the foreign language classroom. Using inductive analysis and constant comparison, some relationships between categories and the unit of analysis “degree of cultural inclusion” were discovered. There is a relationship between those teachers using best practices and how much effort they spend finding materials outside of the textbook. It was also found that while textbooks have shown great improvement in their coverage of culture, teachers are still primarily developing their own lessons around culture, and this is especially true for teachers who taught at the highest language levels. It was also clear that there are gaps in the formal education teachers receive and the knowledge necessary to meet ACTFL standards in practice. Chapter 5 will address the implications of these findings and analyze any gaps found, answering the final question of the study and making recommendations for change. Limitations of this study and areas for further research will also be discussed.
Chapter 5

Conclusions and Recommendations

Introduction

This chapter summarizes the findings of the previous chapters and makes recommendations based on the results, in conjunction with current research. The purpose of the study was to explore the status of cultural inclusion in the foreign language classroom and discover any gaps in practice, training, and course content that might hinder our ability to guide students on a path towards communicative competence. In order to discover any gaps and answer the final question of the study, teachers, instructors from teacher education programs, and textbook developers were interviewed and their relationships explored. Theoretically, research is the foundation of all three sources of influence in the classroom. The interaction and combined knowledge of these three constituent groups influence the outcomes of the foreign language classroom and the goal of helping students reach communicative competence.

Figure 7. Illustration of factors impacting the inclusion of cultural content into the foreign language classroom
**Best practices.** Using research as the foundation, some best practices and type of desired content were determined. These include the need for culture to be integrated in the language (ACTFL, 2002, pp. 16-17; Brown, 2007; Cutshall, 2012, April; C. Kramsch, 1993), the need for more sociolinguistic content and the use of teaching methods that highlight sociolinguistics (ACTFL, 2002, p. 13; Kasper & Rose, 2002), and the need to assess cultural competence (ACTFL, 2002, p. 31; Fukai et al., 2008; Ishihara, 2009). Culture cannot be separated from language. Therefore, culture should never be considered as a separate “interesting fact on the side” or a separate lesson, but should be embedded and integrated throughout the language learning experience. Moreover, reviewing the types of cultural content that could be taught, in the past this has been primarily products of culture. New standards from ACTFL broaden the idea of culture to include products, practices and perspectives and provide training on how a lesson can include all three aspects of culture. This study further divides practices into sociolinguistic (verbal and nonverbal) and lifestyle practices. One educational institution instructor referred to the 3 Ps as the cultural triangle and said that lessons should answer “what, how, and why”. The sample model in Figure 8, based on Mexico’s Day of the Dead, demonstrates integrated cultural content.
In a lesson based on this model, a teacher would present the “what” – products of Mexico’s Day of the Dead such as skeletons, sugar skulls, and marigolds, the “how” – practices like creating an altar (ofrenda), and visiting the cemetery, with the “why” – perspectives on the cycle of life, remembrance and celebration of loved ones. Throughout the lesson, specific grammar (past tense) and vocabulary would be targeted. For best practices, ACTFL promotes the “understanding of the relationship between the practices and perspectives…and between the products and perspectives of the culture studied” http://www.learner.org/libraries/tfl/standards/standards.html. This framework helps instructors build and document the 3 Ps into their lessons.

Beyond integration of culture, best practices include activities that target sociolinguistic competence. A simple example would be an activity that asks students whether the Spanish personal pronoun of tu or usted would be the best choice, given a scenario accompanying the question. A more complex activity would be to provide a scenario and ask students to analyze the context and determine what they would say, wear, and do that would be culturally appropriate, and have them respond in the target language, with target behavior. Research has identified several techniques useful for teaching sociolinguistic content including role play, discourse completion, and the use of scenarios.

In addition, research has recommended that teachers teach students how to notice language changes (Kasper & Rose, 2002), how to analyze conversations (Barraja-Rohan, 2011; Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm, 2006) and how to negotiate meaning (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Long, 1991; T. Pica, 1998). These metalinguistic strategies should also be included. In fact, the following macro-strategies for classroom practice were suggested in the literature review:
Focus on form

Structured input and explicit/implicit instruction to enhance noticing

Language comparison, culture comparison

Expert input on cultural norms of the target language to develop understanding of products, practices, and perspectives

Student-centered communicative tasks and role-playing

The basics of CA, terminology and techniques, with opportunities to observe and analyze authentic language and social interactions

Instruction in communicative strategies that can be employed to negotiate meaning

Opportunities for native speaker interaction and authentic examples/situations (Kumaravadivelu, 2006)

These macro-strategies, plus lesson development created on the 3 P framework are specifically designed to help develop students develop intercultural communicative competence.

The final component to best practices is for cultural competence (knowledge and performance) to be assessed. Items assessed on exams are those items we feel are most critical and therefore, if cultural competence is a goal, it needs to be assessed and not just be incidental to the “main” language lesson. Again, research has provided strategies for this more difficult assessment area. Portfolios and the use of rubrics are two suggested assessment methods (Grabowski, 2008; Norris, March 2008; Schulz, 2007).

Conclusions

The best practices detailed above were the basis for the analysis of data in this study. In order to answer the central questions of this study, each group (teachers, content developers, and
teacher educators) were interviewed to uncover to what degree each is addressing the need for 3 P content and providing contexts for these teaching strategies to occur.

**Status of instruction in the 3 Ps in the classroom.** Teachers were asked how they select their cultural content. The district curriculum provides the bulk of course content that must be covered and includes only a small amount of direction on cultural content. Because teachers indicated a strong desire and commitment to cover more culture, particularly perspectives, the result was extra time spent by each individual teacher to go beyond the curriculum specifications. The textbook contains quite a bit of product culture and for many teachers, this content served as a starting point for a more in-depth cultural lesson. The depth comes from supplemental videos and online content from the publisher, from other internet resources like YouTube, and from teachers’ own personal experience. Lifestyle practices were considered fun and interesting and were moderately covered. Sociolinguistic practices were the least covered, and mostly were “as they come up” rather than intentionally planned into a lesson. To conclude, cultural content selection was based on individual interest, personal experience and availability of supplemental resources.

Teachers were asked about nine specific teaching strategies that had been identified in the literature review as handy tools for practicing and learning sociolinguistic content. These strategies included role play, dialogs, modeling, scenarios, videos, reading of authentic texts, discourse completion, analysis of cultural situations, and class discussion on cultural values. Teachers were asked if these techniques they might have used with a sociolinguistic focus rather than a grammatical focus. The most commonly used techniques were role play, videos, and class discussion. Few teachers used scenarios, analysis of a situation, or discourse completion (with that focus).
When asked about how much cultural content plays in the curriculum, there are a few teachers who build their language learning around cultural topics. For the majority, when pushed for time, cultural content is reduced first, before other items that “must be covered” are taken out. Those supplemental videos that are valued by teachers for covering practices and perspectives are symbolic of how culture is viewed in the classroom…supplemental. This idea that culture is important but extra is reflected in assessments as well. It is important enough that teachers want students to do cultural activities and most teachers assess this learning through item completion. Unit exams tend to match the objectives in the district curriculum and are honed down to language basics – grammar and vocabulary through the four skill modes. Several teachers expressed reluctance to test on “cultural facts” or any item that came up incidentally. It must be concluded that cultural content is not yet fully integrated into foreign language instruction, with as much weight and importance as covering a verb tense.

**Teacher education programs.** To answer how teachers have been prepared to teach cultural content, three instructors in teacher education programs were interviewed, plus the teachers themselves were asked about their formal education and any professional development they had experienced. It should be noted that many of the teachers received their formal education in other states, not from the three institutions included in this study, yet the answers were remarkably similar. The teacher education programs all covered the 5 C’s. When discussing the culture “C”, all institutions said they instruct their teachers that culture should be fully integrated into each lesson. But in practice, they do not require their practicum teachers to develop lessons with integrated culture. In the methods course, student teachers learn to develop lesson plans and assessments. The main criteria is that they cover more than one “C” and that their objectives match their assessment. There are no guidelines on what weight to give
curriculum, or rather, the response was “teachers are told culture should be integrated” but it is not required in practice. If culture content was in the objectives, it should be assessed, otherwise there was no particular emphasis are strategies on testing ICC.

Regarding training on the 3 Ps, only nine teachers in twenty had heard about this and this corresponded to the responses from the teacher education programs. There were many examples of teachers including practices and perspectives but they had not been trained on how to do that, on how to build a lesson around the 3 P framework. One institution provided one lesson, one institution does not address this, and the other includes it as part of an advanced FL content course, not in methods. The same techniques that teachers said they used – role play, video, class discussion – were the ones taught in teacher education programs. Of course other techniques like dialog and discourse completion are taught and used, but as a way to practice grammatical correctness rather than an opportunity to practice sociolinguistic variations or how to respond with culturally sensitivity in various situations. In order to teach sociolinguistic variations it would be helpful to have a course in sociolinguistics that included basic concepts and how to incorporate this into a lesson. This was another content area mostly missing from the teacher education programs and an area that teachers reported not knowing much about. Two of the three methods teachers specifically mentioned that the single methods courses included in teacher education programs was insufficient to cover all the important topics. Much like the coverage of culture in the FL classroom, it seems that culture in teacher education programs gets a backseat to more traditional coverage of standards, lesson development and instructional trends like project-based learning.

**Content developers/publishers.** From the publishing companies, three authors and two editors responded. When a new textbook is under development, they seek feedback through
online surveys and panels of teachers and content experts who review the content as it develops. Once a textbook is out there, changes are made in new editions when they receive sufficient feedback from teachers and students. One such change request that publishers responded to has been to include more culture. The primary solution for publishers has been to develop supplemental videos and web content. This is priced additional to the textbook so keeping it supplemental allows districts more flexibility to work within a budget but it also means that the cultural content remains supplemental, rather than an integrated, required, essential part of the lesson. According to the respondents, authors, salespersons, and others attend conferences and pay attention to developments from national organizations like ACTFL to stay up to date with changes in the field. For example, many textbooks now identify to the teacher when a section is meeting one or more of the 5 C standards helping the teacher track coverage of the 5 C’s or match to district curriculums which are being rewritten to follow the 5 C’s.

All content developers responded that they are covering all 3 Ps, but based on a review of three popular textbooks and based on the teachers’ responses, the level of cultural coverage remains low, particularly for practices and perspectives. Every chapter had products, the teacher editions sometimes had notes that the teacher could include (or not) about variations. As mentioned, the videos were highly praised for providing lifestyle practices and perspectives. One push for providing cultural content is to have authentic texts and realia and several respondents mentioned increasing copyright costs for this type of contact as a barrier to doing more. Unsurprisingly, cost is the driver and limiter, though it is clear that textbooks have made several improvements when compared to the textbook reviews covered in the literature review.

Discrepancies in approach to the 3 Ps. There are no strong discrepancies in approach to the 3 Ps between the three groups. All three groups could be doing more to improve coverage
of culture, in particular practices and perspectives, if our goal is to help students develop ICC. The purpose of this study is not in support or objection of this goal. The current situation is that most districts have adopted ACTFL standards, student assessment include a measure of intercultural communicative competence, and therefore we must consider how all influencing parties are responding to the existing situation. What was found were gaps in 3 P coverage from all groups.

There is some evidence that all groups are not pulling in the same direction. Training provided by Annenberg instructs teachers to develop lessons based on the 3 P framework. This does not mesh with teacher education programs that train teachers to build lessons around the 5 C’s. Further, teachers need clarity on how to bridge the challenge of staying in the target language (emphasized by teacher education programs and school districts) versus helping students understand complex perspectives (needing a switch back to English). This creates an internal conflict for the teacher having to decide whether to use English to cover a cultural piece or whether to skip it and then feel like culture is inadequately covered. Also, districts have adopted ACTFL standards but not embraced ACTFL’s stated goal of language learners “knowing how, when, and why to say what to whom” (ACTFL, 2010). To meet this goal, district curriculums would need to include sociolinguistic items and the assessment of ICC as part of their plan. Content developers would need to include more explanation of context/situation before dialogue practices and the current supplemental cultural content would need to be folded in the textbook lessons as an integral component.

It was also found, at least in this small sample, that there is not a lot of communication across the three groups. There are many opportunities for more interaction and shared knowledge that could lead to better coverage of 3 P content.
**AP outcomes.** One goal stated at the beginning of this study was to learn where the gaps were that led to such a low percentage of students earning a top score on AP exams. A surprising discovery was made. Some districts purposefully do not have AP classes, preferring to provide college credit courses only. In districts that do provide AP courses, several teachers reported that the student goal was to earn college credit and for that goal, AP was the most difficult path. Students were encouraged to take the college credit course instead. In addition, anecdotally, teachers relayed stories that led them to question the validity of a “5” score on an AP exam. So while this study might still find gaps in how we are developing intercultural communicative competence and cultural knowledge, it seems there are other concerns raised that may affect AP scores that were not investigated by this study.

**Recommendations**

The central question of this study is to answer “what more can be done to increase the development of intercultural communicative competence?” Based on the results of this study, a number of recommendations come to mind. Pfingsthorn (2012), who had remarked on the lack of change, went on to recommend a book for instructors. Published in 2010, *Teaching and Learning Pragmatics: Where Language and Culture Meet* by Noriko Ishihara and Andrew D. Cohen, might be a good start at presenting practical application that teachers could use to learn how to teach pragmatic content. Based on the gaps outlined at the beginning of this chapter, it is clear that more can be done to train teachers.

**Institutional training.** Teachers and instructors at teacher education institutions were interviewed to hear their perspectives on what training they had received, or given, in teaching cultural content. Assuming these three higher education institutions are representational of similar programs for training foreign language instructors, it appears that the coverage of the 3 Ps
should be expanded. One lesson, or no lesson, is insufficient. Perhaps as teachers build their portfolio of lessons, they might be required to not only identify the 5 C’s, but also to expand the “C” of culture out into some portion of the 3 Ps in every lesson developed. Or they might even go so far as to build their lessons from the 3 P framework as the starting point and branch out from that framework to identify the relevant 5 C’s to be included. In fact, what might be most useful for teachers would be training on how to bridge the logistical gap between the lockstep curriculum provided by the district and textbook and the guidelines for lesson development provided by ACTFL which starts from the 3 P framework. Sometimes what teachers learn to do in training is difficult to implement in practice. In training, they may learn to develop lessons by building around the 3 P framework as Annenberg suggests, but upon started an actual teaching position and given a locked in curriculum, divided by 5 C’s, going back to incorporate the 3 Ps may be challenging. Currently teachers learn the principles of ACTFL 5 C’s. Practical guided lesson plan development based on the 3 Ps such as shown above could be added to the 5 C’s instruction. But when teachers get into the real world, they do not build their curriculum from scratch. They are presented with fixed curricula. As one teacher said “I knew there were standards out there and I knew the 5 C’s. I could tell you what they were but I didn’t quite understand them or how they were in the lesson and even teaching” (B4, interview, June 14, 2013). Training should also include guidance on marrying the theoretical ideal with the realities of the K-12 classroom.

A more significant gap in training is the lack of a sociolinguistics course. Based on this sample of twenty teachers, the sociolinguistic aspect of language is omitted from current teacher education coursework. Beyond the foundation of sociolinguistic principals, teachers need to consider what significant sociolinguistic aspects of the target language that students must know,
both verbal and nonverbal communicative behaviors. Then they need to have a range of instructional techniques, both explicit and implicit to present the information, and a variety of activities that allow students to practice the sociolinguistic features. Teachers also need to understand and be able to explain basic conversational analysis (CA) to help their students critically think about the sociolinguistic variations presented. Finally, when teachers are studying test creation and test validity, methods for testing sociolinguistic knowledge and performance needs to be included.

The need for English. ACTFL does suggest that English can be used in these situations as long as it comes back to target language practice. Donna Clementi, a foreign language methods instructor, wrote in ACTFL’s *The Language Educator* that she supported the 90%+ target for the language classroom. “We want to stay in the language so that students are hearing and using the language as a natural part of that classroom environment that they are in,” she asserts. “We have so little time with them” (Clementi, 2012, April, p. 37). But, she also suggested, in order to help students gain a richer understanding of cultural perspectives, teachers may want to consider using English for an occasional out-of class assignment that requires the students to more deeply reflect on cultural information they learned in class.

Taking the culture out of the language may build perspective but it does not build communicative competence. All culture should result in language production, even if at a very basic level. With a bit of tweaking, every lesson presented could be brought back to language production. Perhaps techniques from constructivism might be helpful for foreign language teachers to give them tools on how to present complex ideas like perspectives while remaining in the target language. Strategies like the use of scaffolding, images, mind maps, and other supporting structures can bring complex ideas down to an accessible level for the language
learner (Casco, 2009; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Teachers could use some clarification on negotiating this aspect of perspective coverage.

**District level training.** A district coordinator said “I think there’s a disconnect between what’s done with ACTFL on the standards and then what’s happening in practice…world language teachers, I don’t think always have someone in the district leading them, saying let’s, here is some professional development on those, here’s how we can integrate those” (B4, interview, June 14, 2013). Often district training may be more broad-based, such as trainings for all teachers to learn how the district will implement standards based learning, or how to document outcomes, or the development of a new grading rubric.

Foreign language teachers need training specific to their field, and where possible, specific training to their target language. Districts might provide trainings from Annenberg, or Bureau of Education & Research, or other professional training for FL teachers in addition to the district level training that all district teachers take. Where that is not feasible, districts might work to find affordable solutions to ensure teachers can (and do) attend regional and national conferences such as ACTFL or WLA conferences every 2 years or so. Every teacher must complete a certain number of professional development units. It may be necessary to specify that some of these units be specific to foreign language instruction and/or conference attendance. From a World Language Survey Report by Phyllis Farrar and Dr. Leah McKeeman presented at the KSWLA 2013 conference, 278 foreign language teachers in Kansas were surveyed. Sixty-six percent go to their district professional development but only 32% go to state or national conferences (Cutshall, 2012, April). District level professional development targeted at new national developments, like ACTFL’s 3 Ps may be the only resource open to teachers to stay abreast of changes in their profession.
Assessment. How is culture planned for and valued at the district level, especially for lower levels? Based on reviews of district curricula, it does not seem to be significant. To encourage teachers to integrate culture more, it would be helpful if districts built in cultural assessment into formal curriculum, and in particular, assessment of sociolinguistic practices. Neither the teacher education programs nor the district curricula gave teachers any guidelines on how much culture, or what kinds of culture, what proportion of the 3 Ps should be covered, just that it should be there, and ideally be “integrated”, despite being a separate line item in the curriculum outcomes. Products are the easiest way to “check the culture box” - they are in the book, they are fact-based, easy to do “comparison”, and meets the requirement of including the 5 Cs. But knowing about a famous artist or a food that a country is known for does not lead to intercultural communicative competence in language performance. It may be interesting, it may tie into underlying beliefs, but it does not improve language performance.

Perspectives were the second most commonly covered cultural “P” and are very helpful in understanding lifestyle practices. Perhaps understanding beliefs and values might help a language learner know “why” a certain linguistic form should be used (if that connection is even presented), but assessing knowledge of perspectives does not assess sociolinguistic competence in performance. At the 2013 KSWLA conference, Phyllis Farrar, Education Program Consultant for World Languages at the Kansas Department of Education, stated that assessing culture, especially assessing cultural competence is on the national forefront right now and expects that this will be the next direction that the KSWLA works toward for professional development. If districts explicitly list sociolinguistic items and require assessment, it is likely it will be covered by teachers.
Resources. The course content from publishers, at least through supplemental videos, focuses more attention to practices and perspectives than have been available in the past. Pfingsthorn (2012) stated that textbooks still lack the metalinguistic information for dialogues and lack examples that teach pragmatics and assessment of pragmatics. This statement appears to still be valid, based on the teacher reviews and my own sampling of three textbooks. This leaves a time-consuming burden on the teacher. In Kumaravadivelu (2006), one of the macro strategies in a language classroom is providing “contextualized linguistic input” (p. 69), in other words, providing the context, the meta-language information needed to make sense of the language input being presented. Textbooks could do more in this area by adding information preceding a story or a dialogue. Tell the language learner the situation, the relationship between speakers, the purpose of the speaker. Metalinguistic strategies, analysis of a conversation, more context, more scenarios before a dialogue – details that call to attention some of Hymes (1974) SPEAKING linguistic features – all would help build ICC and provide some pragmatic structure to the traditional language lesson.

Beyond the textbook, there are other resources that could be shared or expanded upon. In my interviews I learned that one university foreign language department had trunks of realia that they loaned out to a K-12 school district. What a great idea! It would be wonderful to consider how to expand this practice so that every foreign language department had something at each major university and that any district could borrow it. Finding authentic materials is one challenge that teachers spend a lot of time on and this would be a great resource for their students. In addition, given the diversity at a typical university, it is conceivable that universities could send guest speakers to K-12 classrooms to do demonstrations and discussions on various cultural topics. I also learned that two school districts had shared storage server space for
teachers to share lesson plans, or find lesson plans for their target language. These were only available to the teachers within a district, so for cases where a teacher is the only teacher of “x” language, some other solution is needed. It would be interesting to see if shared server space could be provided by some external entity that any teacher from any district could use. Finally, some organizations are building public resource websites. One example given in this research was the Acceso site developed by the University of Kansas for Spanish. The internet provides an avenue of shared resources that teacher in the past did not have access to. This site is perhaps unique in that it provides content on eight different Spanish speaking regions in the world and includes many cultural themes, perspectives, and native speaker samples from each region.

Technology provides additional opportunity for cultural interaction. Several teachers felt that study abroad was required to develop communicative competence. It is likely that lifestyle practices would come to the forefront for anyone spending time in another country. But research indicates that students do not improve on a sociolinguistic level through study abroad experiences because they are not taught noticing (Takahashi, 2005) and conversation analysis (Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm, 2006). In addition, not all students can afford study abroad. Does this mean they can never develop communicative competence? Technology can provide another avenue for native speaker interaction and cultural comparison and discussion. The following case study, presented at SIDLIT 2013, provides an outstanding example of the possibilities:

In the summer of 2013, Ottawa University partnered with the University of Saints Cyril and Methodious (UKIM) in Skopje, Macedonia to provide a history course that would help students at each institution “develop and nurture an interest in geography, history, political events, and cross-cultural relations”. Each week, students began by watching a documentary and reading related information. Then they posted in a discussion board
comparing the cultural feature to their own customs. Then they found a photo online that they felt represented the other culture’s custom. Three times in the eight week course, students connected through Zoom, a free online video connection allowing 3-4 students to connect at the same time. Student groups held live discussions, providing an opportunity to clear up misconceptions, share additional information or talk about anything of interest. (Foulke, Buzarosvka, & Ullom, 2013)

The class was conducted in English. The students from Macedonia were English majors. This format allowed them to practice their English language skills extensively in all skill areas. It allowed students from both sides to greatly expand their cultural and historical knowledge of the respective countries. This course was a pilot, an experiment for “online study abroad”. It is easy to see the parallel application for any advanced foreign language class. While maybe not quite the same as a real study abroad experience, this kind of cross-cultural engagement takes the foreign language classroom much farther. Already noted, online resources allow textbook publishers to increase the level of cultural information in an easily accessible and cost effective format. It can also bring native speakers “into” the classroom, helping to provide an alternative solution to perceived need for study abroad. In addition, with the language teacher still participating in the learning, noticing and metalinguistic strategies can be employed during and after live exchanges.

**Communication between groups.** Teacher education programs are created on the foundation of current theories in learning and instruction. They provide the tools that teachers bring to the classroom, both for instruction and assessment. Course content is the foundation of the instructional materials covered in a course. All three groups (teachers, teacher trainers, content developers) influence the level of cultural inclusion in the foreign language classroom to
some degree. It makes sense then that there would be some level of communication or interaction. This study did not find much evidence of that. After graduation, teachers receive most of their professional development from their district, not through a local or regional higher education institution. Typically, the relationship ends at graduation. Publishers have online surveys that teachers can fill out to give feedback on a book. When a new book is being developed, a publishing company may create a focus group of teachers for expert feedback. They also rely on their sales representatives to bring back comments because sales reps have the most direct contact with teachers. However, most of the teachers interviewed had not given publishers any feedback (a few had). When asked why not, several answered that they didn’t think it would make any difference, that their opinion did not matter or that the sales person would likely not pass it along. Finally, publishers did not mention seeking out higher education institutions for feedback on best instructional practices that should be included in the book. They did mention that their content developers and editors attended conferences and kept up to date with national trends by ACTFL and other professional organizations but a research institution will be closest to the heart of new research in the field and they are not consulted directly when a new textbook is developed.

It should be possible to create more proactive, systematic communication pathways between the groups. It seemed clear that publishers do care what teachers think but providing an online survey is a passive way to extend communication. If publishers were to send out a survey to school districts, and, after making changes, send out a final report of changes that were made based on the feedback, it might help teachers understand the strong role they can play. For the role of the university connecting to area school districts, some examples were noted in this chapter, such as the loanable trunk of realia. Universities can also be great resources for web
content. For example, the University of Kansas Spanish Basic Language Program and the Ermal Garinger Academic Resource Center launched the Accesso website. This website has free resources for teachers that include authentic materials and native speaker samples from eight Spanish speaking regions. Another one has been produced by the University of Texas at Austin, in their Center for Open Educational Resources and Language Learning (COERLL). This website contains hundreds of short video clips and recorded authentic audio programs and music for 6 different languages. This is the kind of website foreign language teachers search for to supplement the textbook.

Perhaps districts should seek out universities to provide some of the professional development workshops (or universities could proactively offer them). There was also a case where one institution created a public forum site where any teacher in the state could discuss issues, post or access lessons, etc. It was a site for German language instructors and was created because most school districts had only one German instructor. Since most professional development happens within a district, and shared course materials were within a single district, if a teacher was the only teacher of that language in a district, there is little opportunity for collaboration and support with peers. Institutions providing teacher education might consider creating websites where any local area K-12 teacher could go online for community development and resource sharing.

**Further Research**

There were several topics that emerged from this study that could benefit from further research. One area of research centers on learning more about district goals. Research needs to be conducted to measure the value of culture inclusion and cultural assessment at the district level. And if valued, research any barriers districts may face in making it more prominent in
curriculums. Authentic language, language that a native speaker would use, is full of ungrammatical items, slang terms, idiomatic usages, and cultural references. Academic foreign language has traditionally been about strict grammatical correctness and formality. Districts need to decide what the goals for foreign language instruction are - academic language or the development of native-like speakers? Developing intercultural communicative competence may not mean learning to be grammatically correct. Also what are the districts’ views and goals around AP courses? Is this a priority, why or why not? There are all district level questions that, if researched, might lead to changes in the district curriculums that lead to more cultural inclusion.

Several research areas were suggested when the topic of the AP exam was broached. One area for research is the analysis of AP scoring versus OPI scoring. In a blog to ACTFL members on November 30, 2010, Elvira Swender (Director of Professional Programs, overseeing the ACTFL Certified Proficiency Testing and Tester Training Programs), stated that the two tests “target different language abilities” and that “the best way to look at a comparison between OPI and AP scores would be to have information about how the same students perform on both tests. At the present time, this information is limited to several small studies that ACTFL has undertaken”. This indicates that a broad study is needed to compare the goals of the foreign language classroom with the two tests. Are there implications for the structure of a course designed under ACTFL standards and one that is geared for the AP exam and taught by an AP trained instructor? Another area for concern and need for research is the general feeling of teachers that it is too difficult to get a “5” on an AP exam, leading them to steer students clear of the AP route. What is the purpose for providing an AP course? What is the purpose for taking an
AP course? What prevents students from earning a 5 who are otherwise successful in a dual credit course, with the same result of college credit earned?

Three other points of interest came out of this research. Since this was a regional study, more research, perhaps on a national scale, might be done to investigate foreign language training programs for level of instruction in pragmatics – type of content, suitable techniques, assessment strategies. This small study indicated gaps and it would be useful to see how universal those gaps are. In addition, there might be some relationship between conference attendance and higher ratings on best practices. This study did not go in depth to discover what sessions teachers attended, what they learned at this bigger venues. It would be interesting to see how important or influential attending these events is in relation to more ICC development in classroom practices. Finally, regarding the inclusion of sociolinguistic content, research could be done to investigate how this content might allow students to apply higher order thinking skills. Learning a foreign language often revolves around remembering, comprehending and applying knowledge. By creating situations that students have to analyze and evaluate appropriate language options, this content creates an environment where critical thinking skills can be applied.

Summary

So to answer the questioned posed by the title of this research “are we there yet”, the answer is no, but there have been noticeable improvements when compared to earlier studies describing the state of language instruction and cultural inclusion. One could argue that we should always be in a state of continuous improvement. However, the 5 C’s and the 3 Ps have been around for enough years that techniques and assessment strategies have been developed. It
is disconcerting to consider how much is out there in research but has not been adopted in practice.

Teachers today are including perspectives fairly regularly. Supplemental videos that come along with the textbooks are enabling teachers to include and call to students’ attention the lifestyle practices, and sometimes even sociolinguistic practices of the target language. Teachers and content developers could do more to make culture integral. Despite improvements, culture is often literally found off to the side in an inset in the textbook or as a separate section. It is also listed as a separate item in district curriculums, rather than truly being integrated. Teacher education programs could do more to include how to teach sociolinguistic practices and how to assess intercultural communicative competence.

Assessment of culture knowledge and assessment of intercultural communicative competence in performance remains an area needing significant development despite being part of ACTFL’s standards for over 10 years. The K-12 districts have widely adopted ACTFL standards and in so doing, they buy in to ACTFL’s stated primary goal that “while grammar and vocabulary are essential tools for communication, it is the acquisition of the ability to communicate in meaningful and appropriate ways with users of other languages that is the ultimate goal of today’s foreign language classroom” (2010, p. 3). Learning “appropriateness” is embedded in the study of practices and perspectives. The foreign language community, from teacher educators to content developers, to school districts and the teachers themselves, need to consider what more can be done to develop this aspect of learning a foreign language.
References


Swender, E. Correlation of ACTFL OPI and AP Scores. Retrieved from http://community.actfl.org/eGroups/PrintMessage/?MID=1444&Printable=1


Appendix A

Teacher Interview Form

(interviewer provide self-intro – explain interest in pragmatics, purpose of research, and experience as an ESL and EFL teacher)

Date of interview:
Setting:

Demographic information

1. Name of interviewee:

2. Foreign Language that you teach:

3. Student grade levels:

4. FL levels of instruction:

5. Year of teaching FL:

6. Highest degree earned and year obtained:
   a. Bachelor’s __________ Master’s __________ Doctorate __________
   b. Certifications or other endorsements:

7. What is your first or native language?
   a. If teaching as a Non-native speaker, please describe your background in the foreign language
      i. Time spent in target culture (in months)
      ii. Contact with native speakers, in U.S., and abroad
      iii. Oral proficiency level (circle one)
          - Intermediate high or below
          - Advanced low or above

Definitions

Communicative competence: grammar + vocabulary + pragmatics

Pragmatics: the sociolinguistic features that determine word choice and phrasal structure in a given social situation or speech act.

ACTFL 3 Ps:
Products: (physical representations of those underlying beliefs (art, dance, literature, house structures, clothing)
Practices: (non-verbal behaviors that accompany speech)
Perspectives: (underlying values, beliefs, and traditional ideas that determine products and practices)

*Please bring with you 3 lesson plans you have used that highlight a connection between language and culture and the semester syllabus. As a FL teacher, what are the primary goals for your class? Where does culture rank in those goals? Is it integrated, supplemental?

1. ACTFL divides culture into the 3 Ps. Tell me about how you address products, practices, perspectives – to what degree is each covered?
   a. Examples of products – how covered? How assessed?
   b. Examples of practices – how covered? How assessed?
   c. Examples of perspectives – how covered? How assessed?
2. Have you used any of the following techniques to integrate pragmatic instruction into your FL classroom? Adapted from (Tchoutezo, 2010, p. 137)
   - Role play
   - Dialogs
   - Teacher models socially and culturally correct responses
   - Read scenario and identify correct responses and behaviors
   - Use videos demonstrating pragmatic features
   - Read about socially and culturally appropriate communication
   - Discourse completion (either choose most socially correct response from a list of correct options, or fill in the blank with most socially appropriate response)
   - Analysis of a social dilemma or problem
   - Class discussions on what specific word choices reflect cultural values
   - Other: (please describe)

3. What are some of the benefits you see for your students as they learn more about the 3 Ps?
4. Review lesson plans – please describe the strategies used, the reasons these were selected, whether and to what degree this kind of content is assessed formally.
   a. Lesson 1
   b. Lesson 2
   c. Lesson 3

Materials
5. Textbook used (per level, if applicable).
   Title:
   Publisher:
   Copyright:
   How selected:
   **if rubric or checklist used, is it available for review?
a. How well does your textbook cover the 3 Ps?
b. What are a couple of examples of inclusion of the Three Ps from your book?
c. Have you ever shared feedback to the publisher? If so, please describe circumstance and response.

6. Do you find it necessary to supplement cultural content beyond what the course materials provide? YES NO If yes, how do you do that?
   a. What are some examples of authentic content you have added and where did you find it?
   b. How much time each week do you spend finding and developing supplemental content? (please respond in terms of hours per week) ______________________

Training

7. Describe any training you have had that help you teach pragmatic content and assess it. Let’s start with training from your formal education. What are some of the things you learned?

8. Subsequent to your formal education, have you attended in-service trainings, workshops or conferences where you have heard more about including cultural content in class?
   a. If so, please describe.
   b. Were you able to put what you learned into practice in your class?
   c. What would you like to learn more about?

Student profile

9. What are some of the goals the students have/why are they studying this language?
10. Roughly, what percentage of your students plan to have direct contact with native speakers, either here or in the foreign country? __________
11. How many students take the AP exam? What distinguishes a 5 from a 4 score?
12. What do you do to help students score highly on the exam?

Conclusion

13. Anything else you would like to add or anything you would like to ask me?
Appendix B

Interview Form for Teacher Training Institutions

Purpose of interview:

Foreign language teachers are tasked with developing speakers who demonstrate communicative competence. Communicative competence includes an understanding of grammar, vocabulary and perhaps most importantly, the sociolinguistic information and cultural understanding to make the right selections in a given setting. Because high school Advanced Placement exams now include this competence measure as a requirement for a top score of 5, teachers feel more pressure than ever to include this in the foreign language (FL) classroom to better prepare their students for the exam and to meet ACTFL goals and standards. Textbooks tend to insert cultural content in spots such as sidebars, or an occasional reference to setting and roles of participants, while ACTFL indicates the need for integration. Previous research has revealed that teachers are still dissatisfied with the level of coverage for cultural and pragmatic content, and want more specifics on how to assess it, what percentage of class should focus on culture and what cultural/pragmatic items should be included within a specific target language. ACTFL has provided some general guidelines in the form of the 3 Ps – products, practices, and perspectives. This study investigates how the 3 Ps emerge in teacher training, materials creation, and finally in classroom practice. The questionnaire presented here seeks to learn more about current teacher education practices.

This semi-structured interview seeks to match ACTFL standards specifically targeting areas related to pragmatics to current programs in teacher training.


Important definitions:

Communicative competence: grammar + vocabulary + pragmatics
Pragmatics: the sociolinguistic features that determine word choice and phrasal structure in a given social situation or speech act.

ACTFL 3 Ps:
Products: (physical representations of those underlying beliefs (art, dance, literature, house structures, clothing)
Practices: (non-verbal behaviors that accompany speech)
Perspectives: (underlying values, beliefs, and traditional ideas that determine products and practices)

Demographics
Name of institution:
Name of Program/degree conferred:
Date and setting of interview:
Name of interviewee:
Title/position of interviewee:

Questions for your institution

STANDARD 1: Language, Linguistics, Comparisons

Standard 1b.: Understanding Linguistics –
1. Do the teachers know the linguistic elements of the target language system? How would you describe FL teachers’ ability to provide linguistic explanation (phonology, morphology, syntax)? How many courses do they take in linguistics? Is it specific to the FL they teach? Does this course include how to “convey contextual and cultural meaning and how they vary based on setting, goal of communication, and participants”? (p. 12). If not, is there another course that covers the explanation of pragmatic content?

What are the names of these courses? Is a syllabus available?

Standard 1c.: Sociolinguistic Variation: Teachers can “describe the system of rules that govern differences among varieties of the target language and explain the factors that affect these differences such as geography, culture, politics, level of education, gender, and social class.” (p. 13).

2. Is there a course that includes L1 – L2 comparison? Metalinguistic discussion?

STANDARD 2: Cultures, Literatures, Cross-Disciplinary Concepts

Standard 2a. Demonstrating Cultural Understandings. Candidates demonstrate that they understand the connections among the perspectives of a culture and its practices and products, and they integrate the cultural framework for foreign language standards into their instructional practices. (p. 15)

3. ACTFL has divided cultural understanding into the 3 Ps (products, practices, perspectives). Describe the following:
   a. What strategies do teachers learn to help them choose which items to cover?
   b. What strategies are teachers provided as a way to teach pragmatics?

What are the names of these courses? Is a syllabus available?

Role play
Dialogs
Teacher models socially and culturally correct responses
Read scenario and identify correct responses and behaviors
Use videos demonstrating pragmatic features
Read about socially and culturally appropriate communication
Discourse completion (either choose most socially correct response from a list of correct options, or fill in the blank with most socially appropriate response)
Analysis of a social dilemma or problem
Class discussions on what specific word choices reflect cultural values
Other: (please describe)

STANDARD 4: Integration of Standards into Curriculum and Instruction

Standard 4.a. Understanding and Integrating Standards in Planning

4. Is there a course that covers ACTFL’s five goal areas (Communication, Cultures, Comparisons, Connections, and Communities) and eleven content standards? What do teachers learn about the integrating these into practice?
5. What does your program recommend regarding how much weight or percentage should cultural competence have in the curriculum? How much metalinguistic discussion should occur versus basic language features (verb tense, sentence structure, etc?) Please describe any guidelines given to FL teachers on the incorporation of cultural content, in particular how much time should be spent on products, practices and perspectives

What are the names of these courses? Is a syllabus available?

STANDARD 5: Assessment of Languages and Cultures

Standard 5.a. Knowing assessment models and using them appropriately.

6. There is some feeling among current foreign language teachers that cultural and pragmatic content hasn’t been standardized, although there are now reports that a high AP score indicates the student demonstrated cultural competence. How is the inclusion of pragmatic content viewed in your program?

What are the names of these courses? Is a syllabus available?

7. Do you have a completed ACTFL/NCATE form, and if so, would I be able to get a copy, including a program guide? Do teachers learn how to assess intercultural communicative competence?
8. Does your institution conduct workshops, conferences, and in–service trainings to teachers in the field? If so have included training about pragmatics, ACTFL standards, or the 3 Ps?
9. Is there any additional information you can provide about how teachers are prepared to teach cultural and pragmatic content?
Appendix C

Content Developer Interview Form

Date and time:
Method: (in person, or phone)
Setting:

Name of publishing company:
Name of interviewee:
Interviewee position:
Interviewee qualifications/relevant background:

Questions
1. Describe the process by which content is selected for a foreign language textbook.
   a. Are there different procedures depending on the language?
   b. If done by a team, and there are differing opinions, how is a decision reached?
   c. What are the limitations publishers face when selecting/deciding what goes into a book and what stays out?
2. Can you describe the type and amount of cultural content in a typical foreign language textbook? (products, language practices, beliefs and values)
3. What is the general organizational structure of FL textbooks? ACTFL standards and guidelines seem to have national influence. Are any books created based on the 5 C’s or the 3 Ps?
4. Research is constantly being conducted on every aspect of teaching, curriculum development, materials creation, etc. At what point does the research become relevant to the publisher – ie, when is critical mass reached which results in a change made in a textbook? What drives these changes?
5. As a teacher, I have received review copies of new textbooks from publishers. What do publishers do with the feedback they may receive from teachers? How are requests for changes from teachers, or schools (are there are sources that request changes) handled?
6. Is there anyone else (or any organization) that plays a part in determining content?
7. What innovations do you see coming that might help teachers in this area?
8. Do you have anything you would like to add or ask?
Appendix D

Information Statement

The School of Education at the University of Kansas supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research. The following information is provided for you to decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without penalty.

The purpose of this qualitative study is to investigate if and how research regarding the inclusion of cultural and pragmatic content in foreign language instruction finds its way into the foreign language classroom. Of primary interest is the experience of teachers – what cultural content they cover in the curriculum, how it is presented and assessed, and what training they have had in this area. Also of interest is the analysis of course materials for specific types of cultural content and efforts by teachers to add supplemental material and authentic examples beyond what is provided in published textbooks. Teachers, publishers, and educational institutions will be interviewed to explore the interrelationships that move research and theory into classroom practice and course content.

The content of the interview should cause no more discomfort than you would experience in your everyday life. Although participation may not benefit you directly, we believe that the information obtained from this study will help us gain a better understanding of teaching and learning foreign languages.

The interview will take approximately 60 minutes.

Your participation is solicited, and strictly voluntary. Instructors will receive a $20 gift card for their time. Your name will not be associated in any way with the research findings. If you would like additional information concerning this study before or after it is completed, please feel free to contact me by phone or mail.

Completion of the interview indicates your willingness to participate in this study. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant you may contact the Human Subjects Committee Lawrence Campus (HSCL) office at 864-7429 or 864-7385, write the Human Subjects Committee Lawrence Campus (HSCL), University of Kansas, 2385 Irving Hill Road, Lawrence, Kansas 66045-7563, or email HSCL@ku.edu

Sincerely,

Diana Marrs
Principal Investigator
Curriculum & Instruction
370D BEST/Edwards Campus
University of Kansas
Overland Park, KS 66213
913 897 8428

Lizette Peter, PhD
Dissertation Advisor
Curriculum & Instruction
1122 West Campus Road
University of Kansas
Lawrence, KS 66045
785 864 9625
# Appendix E

## Teacher Demographic Data

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**MA Curriculum & Instruction Certif. 2nd Span**

- **BA in Span, minor English**
- **MA in Curriculum & Instruction**
- **ELL endorsement**

- **BA East Asian Lit, BA Japanese MA ESOL Certif. Social studies**
  - **ASK**

- **BA French, BA French, Math Educ. MA Romance Lg, French Lit MA Curriculum & Instruction National Certif. French**
  - **TPRS workshop**

- **BA Span MA Teaching ESOL endorsement**
  - **none**

- **BA Industrial Mgmt MA Span**
  - **TPRS, Alfie Kohn conference**
  - **none**

- **BA in German, BA French MA Curriculum & Instruction MA Holocaust Studies**
  - **District working on ACTFL tie curriculum, SOPI**

- **MA Education Certif. World Lg Teaching, Math**
  - **Han Ban and Confucius Institute**
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## Appendix F

### Lesson Analysis

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<th>Lesson</th>
<th>Integrated</th>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Socioling practice</th>
<th>Lifestlye practice</th>
<th>Perspective</th>
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<th>Activity description</th>
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<td>Overall class description: colors, numbers, basics, culture, no grammar, TPR (stand, sit, greet). By 5th grade create 3 spontaneous sentences based on a picture. Geography, food, music, clothing. Too young to really get into perspectives. No sociolinguistics. Again, teacher felt, due to age and purpose (non-academic), that simple, fun, communication was the focus.</td>
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<td>Mexico unit - Daily life of 2 kids, compare daily schedules, siesta, main meal at lunch, foods. Assessment: comparison activity of schedules and foods</td>
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<td>Discuss Kuna civilization in English and meaning of <em>molas</em>. Teacher presents her own <em>mola</em> in Spanish. Students create a <em>mola</em> and present in Spanish.</td>
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<td>Learn more food and money in Spain, Flamenco dancing guest speaker in English. Student goal to recognize products, festivals and places in Spain</td>
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<td>Lesson topic: Mayan calendar &quot;have that type of rebirth, not that the world is going to end but it’s like the world as we know it, so, it was perfect because it was around New Year’s where we talk about you know, goals, and optimism&quot;. Students watch video of Spanish people discussing (in English). Then they read a Spanish news article, do cloze activity to find belief references. On test, explain 3 interesting points about rebirth idea, but it’s a bonus question and answered in English</td>
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<td>Letter to native speaker: Students start by researching in English about an isolated village in Peruvian Amazon - had to research to find something unique, interesting. Students write letter to students in Peru in Spanish and English. Peruvian Amazon students wrote back in Spanish and English. Found by discovery they used <em>usted</em>, Americans used <em>tu</em>, discussed in class why.</td>
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Barnga card game - purpose to demonstrate cultural rules may differ and you won't be told what those rules are. Each table has a different set of rules. A student rotates to next table where the "native" people know the rules, and cannot verbally tell them, can only indicate yes or no for correct play. Students must guess. Students are not told the rules will change at each table. Students then write what they think the game was meant to teach them, followed by class discussion.

Iceberg image, in English, metaphor of culture. Class discussed image. Then students completed a worksheet on American culture (from Building Bridges: peace corps). Then students have to find an image that demonstrates submerged culture and explain in English what it represents to them. Then teacher presents examples of Spanish cultural differences like perspectives on cleanliness, raising kids, etc. - class discussion.

Evidence of product coverage and several sociolinguistic examples given during techniques discussion - found in transcript. Also District course syllabus 6/15 outcomes specifically (plus comparison, connection).

Students complete *Puntos Culturales* worksheet where they have to find videos or movies and watch, read Spanish book, visit a *carniceria* ‘food store’, or study 5 Hispanic artists at the local art museum, travel to a country, memorize a song and recite, visit a restaurant, google different items. Students must complete one activity in each category: see/hear, experience, taste, connect. Completion must be done in Spanish. Most activity sources are in Spanish.

Argentina *piropo* 'romantic compliment'. Learn them, make them, discuss why and how used.

Bullfights: Read *Viva El Toro*. Write a personal ad seeking a bullfighter with specific qualities. Write a letter to your parents telling them what to do at the fight (grammatical focus on subjunctive and commands). An end result, heritage speakers revealed that they could not write commands to their parents, so a discussion about that sociolinguistic aspect came up unintentionally.

Read *El Decimo*, the Spanish lottery. Compare to American lotteries, compare poverty, etc.

Many incidental examples of sociolinguistics like *Excuse me = mande* in Mexico, *vale* in Spain. Like pointing with your mouth, *gustaria* "I would like". *None are assessed*
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<td>Students read <em>The Jaguar</em>, a Mayan poem, learn ancient Mayan perspectives on asking for versus giving, and Mayan relationship with nature. First students underline future tense verbs and circle subjunctives. Students fill out a comprehension worksheet in Spanish on what each person said and respond to a question about Mayan values.</td>
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<td>Cocoa production: Teacher does ppt presentation on cocoa, history, fair trade, new vocab in English. Students read <em>Lupita and the cocoa tree</em> in Spanish and fill out comprehension and vocab worksheet. Students visit store &quot;10,000 Villages&quot; and talk to the salesperson about fair trade in English. Students write a paragraph in English about convincing a farmer to use more ecofriendly methods.</td>
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<td>Book chapter has a story about the volcanos outside of Mexico, and the legend of how they were created (love story). Students read, and watch a video. Students then write their own legend (having nothing to do with target culture, just a vehicle to practice Spanish).</td>
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<td>Teacher reports she removes cultural facts from the unit tests and that under time constraints culture lessons are dropped</td>
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<td>Aztec culture/history - Students worked on group projects on government, education, slavery. Started lesson by defining barbaric versus civilized. Then researched, then reviewed defn. to determine level of civilization. Then returned to discussion of how we judge &quot;civilization&quot; and how different cultures are not &quot;uncivilized&quot; because of differences. Done all in English - Tchr says WOULD NOT do this now. Goal is to learn language AND culture. did not assess cultural understanding, only product completion and language components</td>
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<td>Students create a brochure for a resort in a Spanish country, include travel vocab, food, and money. Level 1 Spanish, lots of scaffolding by teacher. All in Spanish. Assessment by project completion</td>
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<td>Spanish 3/4, Students read an article on poverty in South America. Then students research poverty in a Latin American country and write an appeal to that government to fix problem. All in Spanish, lots of conditional, subjunctive, etc.</td>
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<td>Used song by Jose Jose, <em>El Amar y el Querer</em> then teaches practices/linguistic uses and values</td>
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<td>In discussion on techniques, tchr presented many sociolinguistic practices that were discussed incidentally, not as part of a lesson.</td>
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<td>B5</td>
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<td>Nacirema tribe: Students read in English about this tribe and at the end, discover it is about Americans. Goal, learn about how others may view Americans to open their minds to not view Arabic perspectives with American lens.</td>
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<td>2 1 1 1 1 1 0.5</td>
<td>Students watch Ramadan commercials, Tchr trying to explain Arabic humor. Students learn Muslims use dates to break Ramadan fast, understand intent of Ramadan commercials to &quot;be kind&quot;. Students try to create 'authentic' Arabic commercial.</td>
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<td>Arabic Wedding - Teacher starts with ppt presentation. Goal, students learn customs, new vocab, how to create metaphors, tradition of women's toast. Students try to create a toast.</td>
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<td>1 1</td>
<td>Tchr had many, many examples of practices (both kinds) covered. She also stated that she tests cultural understanding but all in English except advanced class because students are learning Arabic writing, too hard to do essay response in Arabic.</td>
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<td>C1</td>
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<td>French 1, students learn 3 ways to do greetings based on politeness. Then they play a related card game &quot;Bonjour scramble&quot;, then create own skit. Gestures and appropriateness required Quizzed.</td>
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<td>2 1 1 1 1 1 1.0</td>
<td>Students learn tu versus vous, ordering food, role of food in French culture, To assess, she has them write a dialogue requesting food at a friend's house, and at a restaurant. Students have to explain when/why they use tu or vous.</td>
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<td>A la carte - ordering from French menu, learning about set courses, no tipping, how waiters behave. Students read a menu, practice ordering. used book assessments, discourse completion but for vocab and grammar.</td>
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<td>Unit on Argentina level 5/AP: (this unit includes many lessons) Students read and watch documentary on the Dirty war and <em>The Desaparecidos</em> (disappeared). Study how Argentine Spanish is different &quot;voz&quot;, pronunciation of &quot;ll&quot; like &quot;llamarme = jiamo&quot;. Two native guest speakers, in Spanish. Students drink mate, talk about cultural significance (named the &quot;national infusion&quot; of Argentina). Students write a letter of farewell to their parents and describe what happened to them. Students compare Argentinian gov. to Chile and Pinochet and discuss <em>alpíleras</em> (weavings to protest the gov. made <a href="http://wagingnonviolence.org/feature/weavings-of-resistance/">http://wagingnonviolence.org/feature/weavings-of-resistance/</a>). Students create a photo journal, write a song, create a memorial for final project. AP prep - oral defense and written responses to oral defenses.</td>
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<td>Each student picks another country, become an expert, do 20 min presentation on 3 current events and 1 food all in Spanish. Classmates must take notes, ask questions in Spanish. Some facts from each presentation is incorporated into the exam.</td>
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<td>Spanish artists, level 4: (entire unit) Velázquez &quot;Las Meninas&quot; take about what the physical positions in the painting mean, the court painter, social relations, do a Rebus story (words taken out) to review vocab. Next students read children's book about the painter and Marguerita, and then several readings about other painters. Each student picks another artist like Picasso, Cubismo, Dali, do readings, stand and share, class discussion. Final project, groups of 3 (historian, biographer, art collector) co-present a skit where the collector wants to buy something and they all discuss aspects of an artist and a painting. End of unit exam based on all the artists presented. All done in Spanish.</td>
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<td>Unit Spain (SP level 2) - food, Picasso, Cubismo, map, transportation, how to use subway, metro, <em>tu</em> versus <em>usted</em>. The Lesson discussed was on Picasso: Students read a bio on Picasso in English, watch a video, Tchr gives a ppt presentation. Then they try to complete a partial of <em>El Beso</em>, then get to see the finished one. At the end of the unit, because they spent 7 days, the teacher includes facts about Spain as the cultural section on the test.</td>
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<td>Shopping: food bought fresh every day nearly, small size of fridge. *meal time and etiquette done in English. Reports that &quot;I don't test a lot of culture&quot;</td>
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Toledo Spain - Students learn the history of Toledo, the many religions. In Spanish, level 3, from book, grammatical focus is to teach commands but then they are NEVER used. Teacher feels this is totally useless. Why are they learning commands when they won’t use them in real exchanges? But she still does it, part of the curriculum.

All lessons - almost entirely product. What IS practice is in English, based on what was given to me. There were many examples of lifestyle discussions they had in class incidentally, in the transcription. Not part of lessons, not assessed.


2 weeks on New Year’s holiday. Students watch videos, learn vocabulary, have class discussions about practices and meanings. Standard language learning activities. Not assessed. Students learn calligraphy.

Students do a historical/modern research project and presentation, mostly in English, connect history to modern, like how ceramics are made today.

Tchr discusses many products - homes, art, theater, holidays. This is reflected in their curriculum. The only socioling item is greetings/bowing.

Read menu, learn food, learn to ask and answer questions. Role Play customer and server. Learn about Café du Magots (famous in France).

Learn commands, students give direction on how to make salad with vinaigrette, made salad in class and ate it. Learn how French people eat. Test includes a cultural comparison question in French.

French Paintings. Past tense verbs, Paul Cerzanne, Degas, Monet, action verbs. Students use pictures from famous artists to identify and practice past tense action verbs.

This teacher assesses on grammar and on oral production. District syllabus does have cultural content includes role play with social gestures and reading about cultural norms.
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<td>D1</td>
<td>Mexico's Day of the Dead: has a handout, students watch a video, compare to US memorial day, make altar (<em>ofrenda</em>), in Spanish 2, do a presentation in English, discuss perspectives on death and life. Presentation is extra credit, adds reflection question to chapter test (response in English). Teacher makes sugar skulls</td>
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<td>Afro Latinos - Students watch a video with cloze exercise, read from African Presence in Mexico, go to website for National Museum of Mexican Fine Arts. Most students in class are African American. This is history of Aztec and Mayan slavery, now 700 million afro Latinos in Latin America. Reading is in English. 95% of slave trade was Latin American. Watch <em>La Misma Luna</em> movie. 50 peso bill has an afro Latino, talks about terms like <em>mulato</em> (mule) and <em>lobo</em> (wolf) - discuss why animal terms for humans</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Illegal immigration in U.S.: Discuss labels for illegal aliens, undocumented workers, discuss <em>la vente-seiz</em> 26&quot;street in Chicago where they can get false documents. How employers handle hiring, impact on society if stopped.</td>
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<td>Music - study origins of Salsa, students research for 3 sources. Watch video on salsa music, discuss ethnic fusion. Guest speaker Costa Rica discussed lyrics of 2 folk songs, meanings. Students do presentations and other students must complete a chart of music or dance</td>
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<td>Tchr reflected that her culture lessons are nearly all English and assessment is assignment completion like filling out a chart</td>
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<td>D2</td>
<td>Tchr talks about recent American Baseball game - use present and past to discuss KC baseball game, activities. All teacher led. High repetition, no writing. Has students write a summary at the end of class, like a story of what happened, whatever was built during the spoken part.</td>
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<td>Movie - Students watch <em>Under the Same Moon</em>, talk about immigration. All in English. Not assessed</td>
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<td>did mention discussing 15th birthday for girls <em>quincincena</em> ‘15th birthday’, not assessed, done in English</td>
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<td>E1</td>
<td>Feng Shui - Students learn what, why, how used, then draw a room in their house and make it Feng shui, then do presentation to explain the placement and colors chosen and why. Activity completion assessed.</td>
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<td>Activity</td>
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<td>Calligraphy day</td>
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<td>No assessment. At end of term, students have been learning characters. Tchr gets real calligraphy pens and students make a scroll. Do special characters, symbolic flowers or animals.</td>
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<td>Shopping</td>
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<td>How to bargain, money, role play shopping experience, clothes, cars, pets, creates shopping booths, students have to spend money, get the most stuff by bargaining. Activity completion assessed.</td>
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<td>Misc. activities</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Watch movies and fill out who, what why, understand meaning - why are the characters doing what they are doing? 2. Food and wealth - watch hungry planet, stacking belongings on front lawn. Compare family from Beijing. Topics by level: Chinese 1, ancient history, Chinese 2, modern history, Chinese 3 and 4 current, like Chinese 4 unit on pollution, compare to US industrial revolution.</td>
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<td>Valentine’s Day</td>
<td>E2</td>
<td>Read history in German, meaning of particular flowers as gifts. Students make a card. Card is graded.</td>
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<td>Christmas Play</td>
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<td>Test comprehension of new vocab, cover German perspective of religion. Every home has a nativity, baby Jesus not in crib until Christmas eve, create straw and paper ornaments.</td>
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<td>Proverbs and idioms</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Level 1. Use of idioms score higher on AP so tchr incorporating more in all levels. Typically used in German particularly humor references. On exam, students are given short situations (like spill a pot of soup) and asked to pick the correct idiomatic response.</td>
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<td>Tchr gave many examples of sociolinguistic practices when discussing techniques - see transcript. Like how to respond to compliments in a German way, and why</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Students learn physical gestures that go with expressions like &quot;good luck&quot; or &quot;stop tugging my arm&quot; (joking). They play a matching card game, do AP essay practice, body idioms learned with body parts. Dialogue phrases on test.</td>
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<td>Classroom procedures</td>
<td>F1</td>
<td>Teach students how to act like Chinese students in class (tchr greets them in Chinese manner, students stand and greet Tchr at the beginning of each class).</td>
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<td>Food, describe what makes Chinese food</td>
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<td>Cannot say it has beef, so does American food. Brings to students' attention things like &quot;use chopsticks, so everything already cut up. Also no ovens, so everything cooked like in wok.</td>
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<td>Tchr talks about the building of Great Wall of China. What is shows about Chinese character and Building Burma Rd, determination, perseverence, long range view. Encourages students to go to speech contest participation - tells them to think of effort of the Burma road, or the Great wall. No cultural information is assessed in any lesson. All cultural discussions done in English. Tchr reports modeling but not explicit explaining unless at student asks about something.</td>
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<td>Role of Latinos in U.S. Mixed salad concept, assessed in unit exam as essay question.</td>
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<td>Students watch movie <em>Which way Home</em>. Tries to find movies relevant to 15 year olds, not things about old people. Class discussion.</td>
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<td>Latinos in Baseball. Watch documentary of Dominican Republic players that come to play in MLB when they are not 18 years old, get paid 10%, discuss unequal treatment, why they do it, <em>El Pelotero</em> stereotype, class discussion. Unit exam has opinion essay, done in English.</td>
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<td>Go to art museum and view Picasso’s work. Final assessment was to talk about the artist or a painting like they would in a real conversation. &quot;what was interesting, how it related to them personally, how it made them feel - in Spanish.</td>
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<td>G2</td>
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<td>History - Students read about French tight rope walker in Spain, lots of metaphors.</td>
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<td>level 5 Spanish, students interview an immigrant - why they came, what they think about U.S. - video tape it, done in Spanish, then write a report, then do small group discussions to share.</td>
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<td>Class discussion on immigration to other countries, what those countries think of immigrants, stereotypes.</td>
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<td>Tchr had several incidental examples of practices, like greetings, rubbing the elbow for stingy, etc.</td>
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<td>Chile - Tchr uses google maps on smart board, explore street level, students do on smart board, then discuss what they are seeing.</td>
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<td>H1</td>
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<td>Food unit - Students create a menu, write paragraph about your restaurant, create skit for ordering food and perform skit in class.</td>
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<td>TV unit - write a skit about being a TV hostess and a cooking guest. Show how to cook something.</td>
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<td>Travel and weather - choose a city, plan a trip there. Write a travel journal about your trip, where you went, what you ate, weather that time of year,</td>
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<td>Beijing opera - masks, costumes, symbolic colors, emotions,</td>
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<td>All assessed by project completion, not on tests. Tchr gave many examples of practices in techniques, see transcript</td>
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| Food - create menu, make skit. At level 2, comparison, explain taste, level 3, discuss types of dumplings, do presentation on how to make Chinese food |
| 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0.5 |
| Chinese school system - comparison schedule, entrance exams, class stays together, one teacher, show movie, impact on future |
| 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0.5 |
| Music unit - learn about traditional instruments and music. Look at modern pop, compare to American pop. Do presentation on one instrument, compare to western favorite. Create concert poster, write a news article promoting concert of your favorite Chinese music group. Learn to tell singing styles in Peking Opera |

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