## Hispania



A journal devoted to the teaching of Spanish and Portuguese

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# Hispania 

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## Editor's Column

## Celebrating 100 Years of Hispania



The AATSP Board of Directors and the Hispania Editorial Board celebrate the journal's 100th year of publication with this commissioned Centenary Issue. At the same time, we honor the founding of our professional association. The jubilee allows us to consider the journal's seldom-used official title: Hispania-A journal devoted to the teaching of Spanish and Portuguese published by the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese. While the title is lengthy, it emphasizes our history and mission. Hispania solicits and publishes original research articles that are scholarly and pedagogically relevant. Our broad scope emphasizes the diverse interests of the AATSP's members. The journal


#### Abstract

invites the submission of original, unpublished manuscripts on applied linguistics, cultural studies, culture, film, language, linguistics, literary criticism, literature, and pedagogy having to do with Spanish and Portuguese. Throughout Hispania's history since its founding in 1917, it has published scholarly articles and reviews that are judged to be of interest to specialists in the discipline(s) as well as to a diverse readership of teachers of Spanish and Portuguese.


Clearly, Hispania's identity and that of the AATSP are inextricably linked and have evolved together. For example, in 1944, teachers of Portuguese joined the association to form the AATSP. Thus, the presence of Luso-Brazilian Studies enhanced the journal's mission. Even today, our readership continues to broaden with increased sub-specializations within and beyond the boundaries of the historical discipline known as languages and literatures in the United States.

Hispania's broad goals complement the growing trend in the educational arena toward interdisciplinarity, a movement whose roots can be traced to the latter half of the twentieth century with the cultural shift from structuralism to postmodernism. In addition to changing cultural currents, the digitization of scholarly journals has ever-altered journal circulation, operations, and editorial reach, as well as content. During the last century, Hispania had long been considered the most widely circulated language journal worldwide in print. Today, the journal enjoys robust digital dissemination as well as continuing to be available in print. For example, the digital library of academic journals, JSTOR, reports nearly 4.1 million views of Hispania between 2002 and 2016. Hispania is also available through Project MUSE and library subscriptions (print and digital), and there are a growing number of articles at www.aatsp.org that are available at no cost. To mark Hispania's 100th birthday, the entire centenary issue is posted online on the association's website and is free for scholars, teachers, and the public from around the globe to download.

Besides considering Hispania's virtual and physical presence, what does it mean to publish a scholarly journal for a century? Hispania's publications begin with the nurturing of thought. The creation of knowledge is slow and incremental. Ideas are hatched, questions are asked, and experimentation occurs. Subsequently, concepts are nurtured, developed, honed, and debated. Eventually, manuscripts are written and reviewed. Peers offer feedback and manuscripts are revised. The eventual product is an article that shares new knowledge. A discourse community reads and interacts with the published ideas. Ideally, teaching and learning are improved through the publication of research. The borders of knowledge are slowly pushed back, and the
incandescence of the journal emerges over time. The quality of Hispania rests on the shoulders of its many authors, peer reviewers, editorial board members, twelve editors-in-chief and the unflagging support of the AATSP during the last 100 years.

Beyond the voluminous amount of subject matter published in the journal from 1917 to 2017, the number of scholars and teachers that have published in Hispania is remarkable. The journal provided (and continues to provide) a respected venue and key resource that has helped establish scholars, researchers, and teachers in positions in the educational sector domestically and abroad. From the early days of our careers, many of us can recall consulting Hispania (in the library stacks or online) for the first time to write a term paper. Flagship journals such as Hispania support us in a variety of ways at different stages in our professional lives. For others, it is a career goal to publish in Hispania. The journal gets many more submissions than can be published. Those who submit a manuscript receive expert feedback from anonymous peer reviewers who generously develop the next generation of scholar-teachers. This improves the quality of the journal. Hispania strives to publish the most original and innovative content. In this way, Hispania leads the profession and moves us collectively forward.

To that end, this centenary issue is intended to provide readers of the journal with overview essays that contain both a historical perspective and a forward-thinking vision about various aspects of our field. This issue addresses diverse matters that will be of importance as Hispania enters its second century of publication for instructors and researchers who teach at all levels. Topics in this issue include curricular evolution, a manifesto to the discipline, approaches to teaching literature and culture, Spanish and Portuguese as world and local languages, online language learning and instruction, faculty development and identity issues, student demands and enrollment, high school proficiency and practice, immersion programs at the elementary school level, community college language programs, translation as language teaching, languages for specific purposes, and much more. The ninety authors and co-authors of essays and rejoinders in this volume represent a cacophony of voices from the field of Spanish and Portuguese. Many are established scholars and teachers. However, we also included work by graduate students, early-term educators, and university administrators to deliver multiple perspectives on the past, present, and future. Throughout the essays and rejoinders, you will see that some authors sought to problematize an issue while others clarified a singular concept. Some essays take a traditional approach to research and exposition while others offer reflections and observations from a more personal or experiential vantage.

You will learn more about the content, mechanics, and the developmental process of this unique issue of Hispania in the next essay by our Guest Editor Frank Nuessel. Dr. Nuessel holds the rank of University Scholar at University of Louisville. He has been an incomparable co-editor throughout this multiyear project. Dr. Nuessel is a long-standing Associate Editor of Hispania and decorated AATSP member. Dr. Nuessel's expertise, time, wit, and wisdom have been present throughout our collaboration. I have learned much from him over the last several years due to his keen editorial insight and experience. Following his contribution, there are two columns that are not to be missed. There is an important message from the AATSP's Executive Director, Dr. Emily Spinelli, who frames our compendium of essays by clearly articulating the state of our professional association in the present and a vision for the future. Dr. William Rivers, Executive Director of Joint National Committee for Languages and the National Council for Languages and International Studies (JNCL-NCLIS), penned the fourth essay that sets the stage for Spanish and Portuguese to be placed in the context of "America's Languages." I want to express my sincere gratitude to Guest Editor Nuessel, Executive Director Spinelli, and Executive Director Rivers for writing the introductory remarks for the centenary issue. Additionally, I thank Hispania's Managing Editor Dr. Jennifer Brady (University of Minnesota Duluth) for her careful editing, proofreading, and overall coordination of this special project. Hispania has benefitted enormously from her expertise.

The essays and responses comprise the body of the volume. Guest Editor Nuessel and I organized the essays in alphabetical order by author last name. We did this to avoid privileging one topic over another. The length of the essays and responses was inspired by the popularity of microrrelatos. With an eye toward accessible essays, by publishing condensed mini-articles (shorter than our typical full-length articles), we were able to include many more voices. We also wanted to encourage our colleagues to distill their ideas into short essays (of 3,500 words) and limit their responses to the essays to 750 words. The irrefutable value of Spanish and Portuguese undergirds the visionary essays as the authors offer their unique perspectives that suggest where we might be headed as a whole.

In the collection, you need look no further than the essay by Robert Bayliss and Amy Rossomondo, titled "Apologia No More: On Strong Foundations in the Future of Hispanism," which points out the responsibility and purpose that we have to defend our discipline and support each other. Silvia Betti explores Spanish and Spanglish in her essay "Lenguas, culturas y sensibilidades en los Estados Unidos: Español y Spanglish en un mundo inglés." In another essay, titled "A Cross Generational Conversation about the Future of Teaching Spanish," Angélica Lozano-Alonso emphasizes the multigenerational enterprise of the field that carries forward efforts for future students. In "The Place of the Forge: The African Diaspora, History, and Comparative Literature" by John Maddox, the author suggests an international approach to understanding Latin America that includes French, Portuguese, and Spanish. Ethel Jorge concludes in "Where's the Community? Redux" that cultural studies and language pedagogy will continue to play a significant role in cultivating understanding and respect across the globe during the next fifty years. I invite you to read the entire Centenary Issue. By doing so, you will see that so many essays are interrelated in unexpected ways. Enjoy the pages of the short yet provocative essays to experience firsthand the AATSP's motto Todos a una.

Sheri Spaine Long
Editor
Hispania

# Hispania Guest Editor's Column 

The Spanish and Portuguese Curriculum: Transition, Expansion, and (R)evolution



Frank Nuessel<br>University of Louisville Academia Norteamericana de la Lengua Española

Hispania Editor-in-Chief Sheri Spaine Long (2010-18) ably continues the tradition of excellence and quality established by a small but distinguished group of former editors of Hispania during the first century of the journal's existence: Aurelio M. Espinosa (1918-26), Alfred Coester (1927-41), Henry Grattan Doyle (1942-48), Donald D. Walsh (1949-56), Robert G. Mead (1957-62), Seymour Menton 1958-65), Irving P. Rothberg (1966-74), Donald W. Bleznick (1975-83), Theodore A. Sackett (1984-92), Estelle Irizarry (1993-2000), and Janet Pérez (2001-09).

Sheri Spaine Long and I began work on the centenary issue of Hispania in July of 2014. It has been an honor and a pleasure to work with her as a Guest Editor during the development of this special issue, which is, in reality, an extra, or fifth issue, of AATSP's outstanding quarterly journal. The contents will serve as a record that provides future members of our organization with a clear picture of the state of Hispanic studies and Luso-Brazilian studies 100 years after the founding of our organization. Moreover, the combination of essays and responses provides an educated forecast of future developments in a wide variety of subfields in Spanish and Portuguese. Each essay offers a succinct overview of the extant research in a particular area as well as a clear notion of what researchers are doing now. The focus of this volume, however, is on the visionary aspect of where we are headed as a profession.

We cast the widest possible net to seek contributions to this volume, namely, established academics, teachers, researchers, practitioners, and administrators of all levels and types of instruction. The intent was to produce a special issue of Hispania that reflected the diverse nature of our membership that includes more than 10,000 professionals and allied organizations.

The first official "Call for Abstracts" for the Centenary Issue of Hispania appeared online in September 2014 with a submission deadline of January 15, 2015. The instructions to potential contributors stated that:

> The special issue is intended to provide readers of the journal with overview essays that contain both a succinct historical perspective and a forward-thinking vision of the future of a particular segment of our field. Most of the issue will address matters that will be of importance as Hispania enters its second century of publication. To that end, consistent with Hispania's broad scope, we are soliciting papers in a wide variety of areas identified in this separate call for abstracts. Abstracts can be written in English, Portuguese, or Spanish.

By the January 2015 deadline, we received a total of 133 abstracts. Sheri Spaine Long and I then proceeded to evaluate separately the quality and the appropriateness of the abstracts for
inclusion in the centenary volume. We ultimately selected 31 abstracts for development into articles of 3,500 words. Subsequently, these essays underwent evaluation by a minimum of two anonymous reviewers. We then sent the completed essays to one or two scholar-teachers to prepare a response. We defined responses in the following way "An academic response involves the preparation of a careful and reasonable response to an original draft essay in which the author provides an alternate and collegial viewpoint on the topic." The responses were also subject to evaluation by at least two anonymous evaluators. There are 43 responses that provide differing perspectives on the original essay.

The articles and the responses in this special issue of Hispania represent the work of active and productive scholars and practitioners in Hispanic and Luso-Brazilian studies. Their well-informed projections of what our endeavors will look like present a guardedly optimistic vision of the future. To be sure, there will be new challenges and unforeseen concerns for new generations of scholars and teachers. Nevertheless, the current cohort of students, instructors and scholars reinforces our belief that they will address opportunity and adversity with exceptional resourcefulness, dedication, and professionalism.

In very general terms, the essays and responses address certain overarching themes that link the topics of these essays and their responses, which we address briefly below. They include technology, instructional materials, cultural studies, enrollment, demography, teacher education, and community engagement.

Technology will continue to have a profound impact on what language teachers and researchers do inside and outside the classroom. We can already see its effect in terms of the ever-increasing implementation of distance education and blended and flipped classes. The continuously evolving and rapidly changing nature of technology enables us to engage in ever more innovative manifestations of synchronous and asynchronous communication with students, teachers, and researchers worldwide. Online only degrees at both the undergraduate and graduate levels are expanding significantly and exponentially. The web already provides students and teachers with instantaneous portals to diverse manifestations of ACTFL's three Ps (products, practices, and perspectives) without traveling to a target language destination, yet simultaneously providing a stimulus to visit countries where Spanish and Portuguese are official languages. Furthermore, language apps, computer-mediated communication, social networking, and language games are but a few of the manifestations of technology's burgeoning purview. Finally, significant linguistic databases allow researchers to access huge amounts of information and to determine language change and emerging sociolinguistic phenomena.

Instructional materials are undergoing rapid change. Most now have a dual system (traditional bound books and digital format). The trend to digital texts facilitates content change and expands and enhances virtual reality experiences online. These changes will place new demands on teachers, students, textbook authors, and publishers alike, while offering appealing novel options. Linguists will play a crucial role in the content of textbooks (e.g., through the inclusion of dialect forms, pragmatic competence, new approaches to literary analysis, and other domains).

Cultural studies, in general terms, is the interdisciplinary area of research that examines the interrelationship and the interaction of cultural symbols within a community or between communities as a way of signaling power relations in society (ideology, class, ethnicity, gender, nationhood, sexual orientation, and so forth), and it seeks to explain and comprehend the complex nature of cultural representations. This approach to teaching culture appears in various forms (e.g., cinema, literary texts, and an expansive notion of cultural textual manifestations beyond traditional high cultural expressions, language variation, and other cultural signs). This area of critical inquiry will continue to be a significant part of the curriculum because it provides a framework for explaining the covert meaning of cultural practices. New ways of integrating literature within this framework continue to appear.

Enrollments in Spanish and Portuguese influence pedagogical decision making both positively and negatively. The most recent MLA web publication (Goldberg, Looney, and Lusin 2015) provides information about language enrollment trends in the United States. For the five-year period 2009-13, Spanish retains its position as the most studied second language in the United States. Nevertheless, enrollments declined by 8.2\%. At the graduate level, Spanish enrollments shrank by $20.5 \%$, while undergraduate enrollments decreased by $5.7 \%$, and two-year college enrollments diminished by $14.1 \%$. Portuguese, on the other hand, the thirteenth most commonly studied language in 2013, had an overall increase of $10.1 \%$. These most recent MLA enrollment figures indicate a need to address the twin issues of decrease (Spanish) and nuanced increase (Portuguese). Third-language acquisition, especially in the case of Portuguese, has now become a promising curricular option. Portuguese will continue to expand as a world language because of its economic and cultural importance as well as the increasing demographic presence of Luso-Brazilians in the United States.

Demographic change will have a major impact on the teaching of Spanish and Portuguese. Heritage language speakers will increase in number in both languages over the next 50 years. The presence of these groups and their corresponding cultures will need to be recognized in our curriculum in an inclusive way. The United States Census Bureau projects that the US Hispanic population will comprise 28.6\% of the population in 2060 (Colby and Ortman 2015: 9). Approximately two thirds of the US Hispanic population consists of people of Mexican heritage, and this will affect curricular content. Nevertheless, recognition of the rich cultural mosaic of Hispanic and Luso-Brazilian nationalities must always be respected.

Teacher education will undergo ongoing reevaluation and revision in order to provide the best qualified instructors of Spanish and Portuguese for future generations at all levels Pre-$\mathrm{K}-16$ and beyond. The new cadre of teachers must address many emerging changes as well as those that no one can anticipate. Given the rapid demographic transformations noted above, changes in these programs will have to address the needs of Spanish Heritage Language speakers. Moreover, the varieties of Spanish such as Spanglish will require ongoing research. Study abroad programs and Language for Specific Purposes have become significant components of the curricula of many language departments/programs, and these elements will only increase as the profession seeks appropriate ways to modify and strengthen the curriculum. Finally, the teaching of Spanish is a global enterprise, and materials for those whose first language is not English will have to be developed.
"Community engagement," one of the classifications of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, refers to collaboration between institutions of higher learning and the communities in which they are immersed (local, regional, state, national, global) in order to participate in mutually advantageous opportunities for the exchange of knowledge and resources (see New England Center for Higher Education). This aspect of college and university-wide cooperation with the external communities will continue to increase as colleges and universities seek to receive recognition as "classified campuses," which requires significant documentary evidence of achievement. Incorporation of a community engagement component in the curriculum offers many novel ways of integrating theory and practice.

The themes included in this overview of the special issue on Visionary Essays: The Future of Spanish and Portuguese encompass many distinct components that need revision and review as the members of our profession regularly engage in curricular re-examination. Nevertheless, fidelity to the three communicative modes (presentational, interpersonal, interpretational) in speaking and writing and the five Cs (Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, Communities) will necessarily undergird any sound language curriculum regardless of the transformations that will occur. Change will occur in the language program, and we must embrace the good parts and discard those no longer useful as that we continuously refine and redefine our curriculum and our pedagogy.

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# Hispania Invited Column 

The AATSP: A Snapshot of the Present and a Vision for the Future



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On December 29, 1917 some 130 individuals gathered at the College of the City of New York for the first annual meeting of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish. A terrible blizzard was underway in New York City that day and many attendees arrived late. The early founders of the organization had planned well and even with the difficult weather conditions, the meeting went on as scheduled and four papers were presented. In his history of the first seventy-five years of the AATSP, Richard B. Klein remarked, "It is worthwhile noting that the AATS was born at a difficult time of year, under egregious weather conditions, and at the height of World War I" (Klein 1992: 1037).

Despite this difficult and inauspicious beginning, the AATS moved forward with its "devotion to things Hispanic" (Klein 1992: 1037) and its mission "to enhance the place of Spanish in the curriculum of the entire country" (Klein 1992: 1040). Membership began to increase, the size of the annual meeting expanded, and new member services were initiated. However, the next major development for the organization did not occur until December 1944 when Portuguese faculty members were admitted as members and the name of the organization became the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP).

These beginning years of the AATSP can be viewed as a metaphor for the hundred-year history of the organization as well as inspiration for the future. From its beginnings, through the middle years of the twentieth-century, and into the new millennium, the AATSP faced financial downturns, grim political situations, and challenging circumstances for the teaching of world languages. Because of the vision and determination of the membership and leadership, the AATSP expanded and became a model for other language-specific organizations.

The present-day AATSP owes much of its success to the period of the late 1950s through the 1990s when the AATSP underwent tremendous growth and added programs and activities. After a financial downturn and decline in membership in the early years of the twenty-first century, the AATSP today is again financially stable, has a growing membership base topping 10,000 , and has an increasing number of successful programs and publications.

The following overview of the various programs and publications of the AATSP provides a snapshot of the organization in its centennial year and offers suggestions for continued progress.

## Membership and Member Benefits

The demographic changes that occurred in the United States in the 1990s and early 2000s caused a major shift in the education system and society as a whole by replacing policies involving uniformity and "one size fits all" with policies reflecting individualization and "the customer is always right" (Spinelli 2004). Professional organizations that continued with a one-size-fits-all
approach to their programming began to face declining membership. This latter trend was well documented in Sarah L. Sladek's book The End of Membership as We Know It (2011) in which the author provided recommendations for organizations to maintain or improve membership numbers in a new reality.

In order to attract new and retain current members, the AATSP has focused on increasing the number of member benefits without increasing dues and offering a greater variety of programs to appeal to more individuals. The AATSP currently offers a wide selection of professional development opportunities including the annual conference, webinars, scholarships and travel stipends for study abroad, as well as numerous events at the chapter level. Over the last decade the AATSP has created new publications in both print and digital format and improved the quality of the existing publications. The number of AATSP programs has increased and now includes National Portuguese Examinations, National Spanish Examinations, Online Classroom Resources, Phi Lambda Beta, Poster Contest, Sociedad Honoraria Hispánica, and the Sociedad Hispánica de Amistad.

Notwithstanding the expansion in the number of programs and publications, the AATSP still faces two membership challenges: the need to continually attract new members and the need to establish a membership that is more or less equally divided between those at the K-12 level and those at the post-secondary level. In order to replace those members who retire and do not continue with the organization, the AATSP must attract millennials, those born between 1982 and 1995 and who are now in the early stages of their careers. ${ }^{1}$ The AATSP has incorporated technology and social media throughout the organization in an effort to reach out to millennials. Communication with the membership is handled through email messages, the website, and Facebook and Twitter; publications are offered in print and digital versions, social media allows members to interact and network with one another, and webinars offer professional development opportunities beyond those of the annual conference. For the future, the AATSP will need to constantly incorporate new technologies and train the membership to utilize these new technologies in the classroom.

Prior to the year 2000 the AATSP was composed largely of post-secondary members and the programs and publications of the organization for the most part reflected the college/university perspective. Today, however, the majority of the AATSP members teach at the K-12 level and more specifically at the secondary ( $9-12$ ) level. ${ }^{2}$ Since the AATSP is designed for all educators, there is clearly a need to attract more post-secondary members in order for membership to be more or less equally representative of the K-12 levels and post-secondary levels. To that end, the AATSP has engaged in new initiatives such as the recently created Graduate Student Department Membership category and the expanded travel stipend program for attendance at the annual conference. As two-year institutions continue to grow and employ more faculty members and four-year institutions rely more on more on adjunct teaching faculty in language departments, the AATSP needs to create member benefits for those two groups so that they are more inclined to join the organization.

## Annual Conference

As the use of technology increased within the AATSP and other organizations, some specialists in the field began to predict that online webinars and networking would replace face-to-face conferences (Holub 2015). Other specialists felt that face-to-face conferences could continue if the very nature of these conferences could change in order to appeal to the younger members (Martin Pascual 2015; Sladek 2011). Despite predictions to the contrary, the AATSP annual conference has been able to survive and even prosper by instituting changes that enhance the traditional face-to-face annual meeting. Since 2002 the conference has alternated between sites in the United States and sites in Spanish-speaking or Portuguese-speaking countries. Thus, in general, AATSP members have the opportunity to go abroad for professional development every
two years. When the conference is located within the United States, the selected conference site must offer immersion and cultural experiences for conference attendees. These domestic and international sites provide numerous opportunities for sessions, workshops and excursions whose intent is to improve the language and cultural proficiency of the attendees.

## Publications

During the last decade the publications of the AATSP have evolved with the times in order to remain up-to-date and beneficial. Hispania, the highly acclaimed research journal of the AATSP, has undergone several important changes. The cover and interior layout were redesigned; sections related to news for and about the profession were moved to the website; the range of topics covered in the journal expanded significantly and special focus issues appear with frequency. In 2015 the AATSP launched Spanish and Portuguese Review, a graduate student journal designed to foster research by graduate students and help them learn editing and other skills related to the publication process. Other AATSP publications include Announcements and Reminders that is sent to the membership in digital format every two to three weeks throughout the year; The Portuguese Newsletter, a print bulletin for the Portuguese membership that appears twice per year; Albricias, the high school student journal of the Sociedad Honoraria Hispánica; and the Conference Wrap-Up, a photographic record of the annual conference. The AATSP publications remain highly valued because the editors and editorial boards of these publications strive to keep their publications relevant and useful.

## Partnerships and Internationalization

In the current climate, organizations are finding it increasingly difficult to survive by relying solely on their own programs and activities. By forming partnerships with other organizations and institutions with a similar mission, organizations can increase their member benefits and consequently, the number of members. Over the past decade the AATSP has formed numerous new partnerships, signed new MOUs and agreements, and gained new scholarships. In addition to the long-standing agreement with the Embassy of Spain for scholarships and professional development opportunities, the AATSP has signed agreements with the Academica Norteamericana de la Lengua Española (ANLE) for conference sessions; Global Professional Search for career postings and opportunities; New Mexico State University for graduate credit related to conference participation; Santillana USA for webinars and the printing of the conference program; the University of Salamanca for its international programs; and most recently, the Asociación Enseñanza Bilingüe for the promotion of second language acquisition and bilingual programs.

The AATSP also advocates for Spanish and Portuguese programs by working with organizations such as the Federación Internacional de Asociaciones de Profesores de Español (FIAPE); the Joint National Committee for Languages-National Council for Languages and International Studies (JNCL-NCLIS); the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations (NFMLTA) and the National Standards Collaborative.

It should be pointed out that many of these partnerships are international in scope and through these collaborative efforts the AATSP has gained international recognition and stature. Language organizations outside the United States now look to the AATSP for guidance and support in strengthening their language programs. The AATSP is well poised for the future in an environment where globalization and internationalization have become increasingly more important.

## Conclusion

Since its founding a hundred years ago, the AATSP has always responded to challenges and survived setbacks through determination and effort. The vision and careful planning of the early leaders of the organization paved the way for the expansion and growth of the latter half of the twentieth century and helped the organization survive its downturn in the early part of this century. Likewise, the recent growth in membership and the innovations in programs, publications, and activities should guide the AATSP into its second century where it will continue to flourish. It is hoped that the initial mission of the organization "to enhance the place of Spanish in the curriculum of the entire country" will become an expanded reality in which the AATSP enhances the teaching and learning of Spanish and Portuguese on an international scale.

## NOTES

${ }^{1}$ Millennials are generally described as a racially and ethnically diverse generation that is optimistic, technology-driven, open to change and self-interested. At the same time, millennials are often depicted as reluctant to join organizations because those organizations do not appear to be open to change and do not offer the member benefits that millennials seek (Howe and Strauss 2000).
${ }^{2}$ Programs such as the Sociedad Honoraria Hispánica and the National Spanish Examinations were largely responsible for the shift in membership levels as high school teachers joined the organization in order to have their students participate in those programs.
${ }^{3}$ The Graduate Student Department Membership category allows language departments to pay a nominal fee so that all the graduate students in Spanish or Portuguese within the department can become members of the organization.

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# Hispania Invited Column 

America's Languages



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TThe American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP) celebrates its one-hundredth year in 2017. This momentous occasion, and the well-deserved celebrations surrounding it, offers a propitious moment to consider what the next one hundred years will bring in language in the United States. At first glance, this seems a bit contrived, but as we will see, language and language policy are inextricably bound to the demographic, cultural, and economic forces which have shaped American society since before our founding, and which loom ever larger in the present day. In 1917, the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese was founded in a time of uncertainty, global conflict, mass migrations, and economic upheaval. Ironically, the nativism sparked by the Great War led to significant reductions in the teaching of languages in the United States, as well as an explicit link between "foreign" languages and anti-American sentiment. Combined with the relentless extirpation of the more than 500 pre-Columbian Native American languages and cultures in the preceding century (Macías 2014), and the appeal and construction of the mythos of a unified ethnolinguistic nation-state (Alba 1990; Sonntag and Cardinal 2015), the twentieth century in the United States became "the graveyard of languages" (Rumbaut 2009: 11). This is all too familiar to language educators, language and civil rights advocates, and policy researchers, and perhaps now so familiar that we draw a certain degree of grim reassurance from the parlous state of languages and language learning in the United States. We often say to ourselves "it has ever been thus," and surely our advocacy for languages, and more importantly, our supremely and foundationally human acts of teaching, learning, and using other languages, set us apart. With apologies to Richard Brecht; much of this essay, and in particular the title, draws on years of conversations and debate, represented in his work for the Commission on Language Learning of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences (Brecht 2016).

However, this picture, while it may reflect the collective sense of the language teaching and scholarly professions in the United States, does not fully account for the reality of 2017. In comparison to 1917, we are reminded perhaps of Ecclesiastes (1:9), in that there is nothing new under the sun. The centennial year of AATSP also sees a world rent by conflict, economic displacement, and mass migrations. Yet one must bear in mind that, with respect to linguistic diversity, our own culture continues to change remarkably, albeit fitfully, and perhaps permanently. Starting in 2000, John Robinson and his colleagues began surveying American attitudes towards language policy issues (see Robinson, Rivers, and Brecht 2006a), correlating public perceptions of the position of English, the supposed threat of other languages and immigrant communities, and the desirability of language education, with a wide range of demographic factors. They extended this work to
examining the characteristics of speakers of languages other than English in the United States, whether first or heritage or second language speakers (Robinson, Rivers, and Brecht 2006b). In 2008 and again in 2012, these surveys were extended to pre-election polls, and included modules on attitudes towards a wide range of issues of diversity and tolerance (Rivers, Robinson, Brecht, and Harwood 2013; Robinson, Rivers, and Harwood 2011). Finally, the in-depth examination of the characteristics of those who claimed ability in another language was repeated (Robinson and Rivers 2012), and combined with an empirical assessment of the hiring practices of American companies, as they intersect with languages (Damari et al. 2016). As space and reader attention is limited here, these studies may be summarized as follows:

- Americans value languages. Roughly $70 \%$ indicate that languages are as important as math and science, that children should be fluent in another language before they leave school, that America's languages do not threaten English (see the analyses presented in Robinson et al. 2006a; Robinson et al. 2011; Rivers et al. 2013).
- An increasingly high percentage of Americans equate tolerance of linguistic and ethnic diversity with tolerance of many other indicia of diversity, such as gay and interracial marriage, the legalization of marijuana, welcoming immigrants, and so forth (Rivers et al. 2013).
- Moreover, this tolerance has held steady since 2000, notwithstanding the intervening political tumult and changes to American foreign policy and homeland security (Robinson et al. 2011; Rivers et al. 2013).
- At the same time, roughly $20 \%$ of the population claims some ability to speak another language, although this varies according to the data source (e.g., the US Census or random stratified surveys). This proportion has remained steady for at least 15 years (Robinson et al. 2006b; Robinson and Rivers 2012).
- Finally, American companies seek speakers of other languages to meet the challenges of diverse clienteles, markets, and workforces (Damari et al. 2016).

In 2013, Richard D. Brecht and his colleagues coined the term "America's Languages," to capture the diversity and complexity of the languages spoken, taught, translated, and used in the United States (see Brecht et al. 2013). These languages encompass the Native American languages that predate European contact, the colonial languages of that contact (English first among them demographically in the present day, but also including Spanish in the American Southwest and French in Louisiana), the vast array of heritage languages spoken by immigrants and their descendants, of which Spanish is the largest in terms of the number of speakers but which include more than 350 languages from every corner of the world (United States Census 2015), all of the Anglophones learning another language, and all of the immigrants and their children learning English and maintaining their home languages. While perhaps imperfect as a label, the term itself carries a prospective connotation, one that in fact is the crux of this short encomium on the one-hundredth anniversary of AATSP, namely, that languages will continue to play an ever-increasing role in the public, economic, and civic life of the United States. Spanish and Portuguese, for a wide range of reasons demographic, economic, and cultural, will continue to occupy a central and vital place in America's languages.

As language professionals, this should give us great hope for the future. A more tolerant, more diverse, more inclusive America, engaged economically, diplomatically, and culturally around the world and with the more than 25 countries where Spanish and Portuguese are first languages, will in the long run, be a place where our languages are ever more taught, learnt, studied, translated, and used.

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# Literature in the Undergraduate Spanish Curriculum: Visionary Brainstorming 



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#### Abstract

This essay, drawing from Design Thinking, challenges college faculty to reconsider the reading and teaching of literature in the undergraduate Spanish curriculum and initiates a visionary brainstorming process to be continued by readers in their own institutions. It suggests considering new research in cognitive literary studies, the impact of digital communications, and students' personal reading experiences and future goals as individuals and departments imagine new places for literature in and across the curriculum and innovative ways to teach it.


Keywords: cognitive literary studies/estudios literarios cognitivos, Design Thinking, literature/literatura, reading/lectura, undergraduate Spanish curriculum/currículo subgrado en español

Randoph Pope's (2008) characterization of reading literature in United States college and university programs has haunted me since I first read it:

Literature . . . has been too frequently hijacked by the disciplines of Apollo, the healer and patron defender of herds and flocks, though it is more at home under the aegis of Dionysus, the god of intoxication, madness, ecstasy, and liberation. We have transformed reading into a chore, novels into pretexts for papers, poems into subjects for an exam. A fundamental question we need to ask of our programs is whether the graduate students love literature more than before, enjoy art more, are more daring in exploring culture, are more creative, and are deeper thinkers . . . . (25; emphasis mine)

In this provocative statement, Pope criticized the profession for "[the] ponderous and even moralistic tone . . usually attached to discussions about the [undergraduate] major and graduate studies" (25) and for taking the joy out of reading literature. His intent was to challenge readers to reflect upon the 2007 Modern Language Association (MLA) Report and the impact of its charge that we prepare undergraduate foreign language majors to be "educated speakers who have deep translingual and transcultural competence" (235).

To what extent do the sentiments expressed by Pope still ring true for undergraduate as well as graduate students in college and university programs? Have we learned anything new about the relationship between reading literature, creativity, pleasure, and empathy in the past decade? Have we thought seriously about the implications of teaching literature to the "digital natives" (Prensky 2001) in our classrooms?

The purpose of this essay is to take the above questions as a point of departure to explore reading literature from new angles and to begin a process of visionary brainstorming on paper about literature in the twenty-first-century undergraduate curriculum that I hope readers will continue in conversations with colleagues and in their departments.

To do this I use a framework that incorporates key elements of "Design Thinking," a "human-centered" (Brown and Katz 2009: 4) approach of fostering innovation in a creative, collaborative, and systematic way to find solutions for hard-to-solve problems by "[combining] empathy for people and their context with tools to discover insights" (Curedale 2013: 9). The approach made famous by the global design consulting firm IDEO and taught at the non-degree granting Hasso Plattner Institute for Design at Stanford University, commonly referred to as "the d.school" (Kelley and Kelley 2013: 21), ${ }^{1}$ Design Thinking is used by businesses, non-profit organizations, professionals, and in educational institutions to help people "envision what their new or existing operations might look like in the future-and build road maps for getting there" (Kelley and Kelley 2013: 25). Design Thinking unfolds through a recursive cycle of inspiration (observing and gathering information from sources to develop empathy for the people whom change will affect and approach problems from new perspectives), ideation (creative brainstorming that asks problem-solvers to initially ignore constraints regarding feasibility that can squelch exciting possibilities prematurely), and action (implementation, based on experimentation with "prototypes" and bringing feedback back into the design process) (Brown and Katz 2009: 4, 16-21; Curedale 2013: 9; Kelley and Kelley 2013: 22-25). One element of the process is imagining: "What if. . . ?"

Lest Design Thinking sound too "corporate" for readers, its focus on creativity, collaboration, and active participation among interested parties dovetails perfectly with many goals of teaching languages. Furthermore, concepts like "creativity" and "innovation" are beginning to appear on college campuses alongside "internationalization" and "sustainability" as over-arching principles that can influence institution-wide priorities. Finally, using the methodology of Design Thinking to improve the experiences of our students reading literature in Spanish may resonate with students interested in forging closer links between the classroom and the ways people operate in the world of work.

So, let's begin a process of Design Thinking on paper to generate possible alternatives to the scenario described by Pope.

## Inspiration

Instead of turning first to the vast wealth of professional literature about teaching literature in a foreign language curriculum, what if we started by getting insights into our students as readers of literature in Spanish through scholarship from the emerging field called cognitive literary studies? ${ }^{2}$ Natalie M. Phillips (2015), a professor of English who conducts interdisciplinary research in this area, explains, "Neuroscientific tools can provide humanists with a richer picture of how our minds engage with art" (57). Would this help us develop "empathy" (in Design Thinking, "respectful understanding of what others are experiencing and their point of view," [Curedale 2013: 20]) for our students from a new angle?

Maryanne Wolf (2007), a cognitive scientist, reminds us, "Reading never just happens" (107). Both she and Paul B. Armstrong (2013), a professor of English well-versed in neuroscience, explain that reading is a result of processes in the brain not originally wired for this activity and that "every new human being must learn to read by adapting genetically inherited circuitry to uses for which it did not originally evolve" (Armstrong 2013: 27). This fact, according to Armstrong (2013), provides insights into challenges faced by beginning readers as well as of those reading in a foreign language (27-40). Furthermore, the brain's "contradictory, decentered structure" (Armstrong 2013:52) and its elasticity and plasticity make reading possible, enhancing the brain's "capacity for cognitive breakthroughs" (Wolf 2007: 17), its ability to "reconfigure itself in light of new challenges," and even to "play" and seek out novelty (Armstrong 2013: 52, 53). Neuroscientists Irving Biederman and Edward A. Vessel (2006) call human beings "infovores"
(247) and posit that the human brain craves pleasure from "experiences that are both novel ... and richly interpretable" (250), primarily through the senses.

Recent experiments elucidate two key aspects of what happens when people read literature that may be particularly relevant to foreign language teachers. In an interdisciplinary study of literary attention, functional MRIs tracked blood flow in the brains of PhD candidates in English reading excerpts from Jane Austen novels (Phillips 2015). Cued by the researchers, participants shifted between close reading (attention on form and literary features) and pleasure reading (immersion into the story). Preliminary results show unexpected changes in brain activity when shifting between types of reading that illuminate the "cognitive complexity of this core skill in the liberal arts" (58). Moreover, they reveal unanticipated overlap between close and pleasure reading, as Phillips (2015) explains: "Not only does reading move through a spectrum of intensities, but pleasure reading has its own cognitive demands; close reading, its own pleasure" (63). Two studies that compared the impact of reading fiction versus non-fiction (newspaper) stories on Dutch students (Bal and Veltkamp 2013) illuminate another area of interest to us: the extent to which the act of reading fiction can enhance people's empathy in the real world. They suggest that reading fictional narratives does not automatically produce empathy, and their study demonstrates it can enhance empathy when readers are "emotionally transported" into the narrative (10-11).

Familiarizing ourselves with developments in this emerging field may be a first step toward attending more effectively to the needs of the "always on" (Baron 2008) "digital natives" (Prensky 2001) in our classrooms who have grown up with hyperlinked electronic texts that present vast quantities of visual stimulation in non-linear fashion (Wolf 2007: 16); "vapor texts" (constantly updated texts or ones that disappear from the web) (Baron 2008: 206); and "snippet literacy" (a penchant for reading excerpts or synopses of literary works online instead of the complete works) (Baron 2008: 204).

Wolf (2007) recommends teaching twenty-first-century readers to be "bitextual" or "multitextual" (226) and to adjust their reading and analysis of texts to different modes of reading. In a more programmatic fashion, N. Katherine Hayles (2012), suggests a "Comparative Media Studies" approach (11-12,55-79) "'across a range of media forms . . . and focuses on interpretation and analysis of patterns, meaning, and context through close, hyper [e.g., practices like skimming and scanning (12)], and machine reading practices" because "it is time to rethink what reading is and how it works in the rich mixtures of words and images, sounds and animations, graphics and letters that constitute the environments of twenty-first century literacies" (78-79).

Yet reading such scholarship can only take us so far in the "human-centered" approach that is Design Thinking. What if we actually asked students about their experiences so that we could see things through their eyes with greater acuity? My eyes have been opened immensely by students' responses to the first assignment in an introduction to literature course: without using outside sources, writing a reflection in Spanish on what they believe "literature" is; why people should read literature (if they should); what makes a good reader; and the book-in any language-that has had the greatest impact on them.

Excerpts from the narratives of two students ${ }^{3}$ in their unedited Spanish illustrate the range of students' experiences in a single class. Some share a reading autobiography, as did a student who wrote in almost magical way about the impact of having her mother read Margaret Wise Brown's 1947 children's classic Goodnight Moon aloud to her every night:

[^0]Another told a story of dreading literature until a transformative experience in a general education program:

> Antes . . . la palabra "literatura" describía un libro académico y tenía connotaciones negativas. Sin embargo, después de mi viaje a través de [a great books program], tengo un respecto profundo para la "literatura". Ahora, yo asocio la palabra con perspectivas nuevas y crecimiento personal.

The revealing stories that students share inspire me to find out what colleagues across campus are doing, envision how I might devise new types of class activities and assignments that will capture students' imaginations and/or talents to complement more conventional discussions and papers, and think of creative ways to encourage more students to want to "belong to the world of readers" in Spanish.

## Ideation

Ideation, the second phase of Design Thinking, involves brainstorming alternatives to current practice based on the insights gathered in the inspiration phase. So let's continue with the "what if" questions. (Where appropriate, suggestions for further consideration appear after the questions.)

- What if we included literature in all courses in an undergraduate Spanish curriculum, including major-level courses in composition and conversation, culture, linguistics, and Spanish for Specific Purposes (SSP)? Would this start to demystify literature and make reading a "normal" activity? With this in mind, Barnes-Karol (2002; 2010) proposes a "literature across the curriculum" model. In this approach, literature is understood in the broadest sense to allow for maximum flexibility in choosing from any genre and from among canonical texts, contemporary works by noted authors, mass-market best sellers, and even young adult literature.
- What if we devoted as much attention to engaging students in reading literature as to the works themselves? What results might a less text-centered and more peoplecentered approach produce? Kimberly A. Nance's Teaching Literature in the Languages (2010) addresses this issue head-on: how to overcome students' "estrangement" (xi) from literature and promote engagement. Sylvie Debevec Henning (2011) exhorts faculty to promote studying literature through activities that engage students in multiple ways, taking lessons from less commonly taught languages that must innovate to survive (29).
- What if we started having students read works of literature in ways that are not exclusively "literary"? Jennifer Redmann (2005) encourages faculty to design courses to "focus on multiple student interactions with a text, rather than on the text as a fixed object of study" (486) and describes an approach based on interactive reading journals appropriate for all levels of instruction. Catherine M. Barrette, Kate Paesani, and Kimberly Vinall (2010) illustrate how to maximize the use of literary works as "target language narratives that provide access to a rich sample of . . . discourse styles, and historical, geographic, cultural, and linguistic information" (217) by weaving together analysis of their cultural, literary, and stylistic dimensions (216). David A. Wacks (2011), based on conversations with students, reconceptualized a survey of Peninsular literature to teach canonical texts within a "question-driven syllabus" that highlights "big question[s] ... [pertinent to] the broader social, religious, or political significance of the text[s]" (2).
- What if Spanish for Specific Purposes (SSP) courses, frequently perceived by students as a respite from literature courses because they feature "relevant" content (e.g., terminology and practices), became a particularly promising space for reading literature to help develop empathy for the people and situations future professionals may encounter after graduation? In the area of business, for example, Ana M. Brenes-García (2000), viewing "literature as the most explicit expression of a culture and its values" (426), developed an advanced Spanish business course with literature at the core. The works of literature analyzed in critical essays in Carlos M. Coria-Sánchez and Germán Torres (2007), Temas del comercio y la economía en la narrativa hispana, may be appropriate choices for some business Spanish courses. Some students may find particularly intriguing novels, such as Los olivos de Belchite (2011), written by an actual business professional, Elena Moya, ${ }^{4}$ a trilingual senior investment writer and former financial journalist. The novel blends together the legacy of the Spanish Civil War with a tale of family-run Catalonian businesses fighting to survive boycotts of their products by Castilians and competition from multinationals in a twenty-first-century global market. In another, more holistic approach to Spanish for Specific Purposes, faculty in Spanish and German at the Air Force Academy have created literature courses that examine texts through the lens of leadership and leaders so that cadets "[study] literature using traditional approaches as well as [cultivate] the value-added element of leadership development simultaneously" (Uribe, LeLoup, Long, and Doyle 2014: 199).
- What if in all courses in which students read literature we replaced at least one conventional activity or assignment with another that tapped into students' creativity in a new way? Or, what if we let students choose from among a variety of assignments? What if, using Design Thinking, we let students design their own projects?
- What if the activity or project were something to be shared with all class members and/or all Spanish-speakers on campus instead of just being something for private consumption (grading) by the teacher? What if we asked students to respond to literary works in the "real-world" ways of adults outside the academy, addressing audiences other than their classmates and instructor? Could they write a review suitable for publication and actually submit it to a print or online venue; create a guide that a book club could use to discuss an appropriate work; function as dramaturgs and write program notes for a staging of a play; or adapt a work as an illustrated children's version, graphic novel, or some type of interactive web-based narrative? Could some projects later become part of students' portfolios for interviews for internships or jobs? Perhaps asking students to create work with a specific audience in mind would provide them with a secondary outlet for developing empathy alongside the one that lies potentially in the act of reading a work of literature itself.


## Action

In the cycle of Design Thinking, action grows out of insights gained during the inspiration phase and possibilities generated during the brainstorming of ideation. Again it involves prototyping the most promising alternatives to get feedback (for us, trying a curricular innovation as a pilot project or conducting a small classroom-based research project) before prematurely investing large amounts of time and energy in large endeavors that may not work (e.g., revamping an entire course or Spanish curriculum). It is my hope that faculty in undergraduate Spanish programs can continue the brainstorming process started in this essay and experiment with a wider variety of approaches to selecting literary texts, placing them throughout the curriculum, and reading them with students for purposes that include, but are not limited to, conventional literary analysis and history to create a vision for literature in the twenty-first-century
undergraduate Spanish curriculum appropriate for their students and institutions. Let's try to make reading, while still a challenge, less of a "chore" by designing classroom activities that "unleash [students'] creative [and empathetic as well as analytical] potential" (Kelley and Kelley 2013) and (re)discover the pleasure of reading-not pleasure as the fun of entertainment, but that which comes from mastering a challenging task and that leads to a "click' of comprehension" (Biederman and Vessel 2006: 252)—so that our students do (paraphrasing Pope) "love literature more, ... [become] more daring in exploring culture, . . . [and] more creative . . . and deeper thinkers."

## NOTES

${ }^{1}$ For more information about the d.school at Stanford University, see d.school (2015). Of particular interest are the section "Our Point of View" and the fact sheet available in PDF format on their website.
${ }^{2}$ See Zunshine (2015) for an extensive overview of this emerging field.
${ }^{3}$ These reflections are among data collected for an on-going classroom-based research project, "The Impact of Post-communicative Strategies on Spanish-Language Learners."
${ }^{4} \mathrm{Her}$ curriculum vitae is available at www.elenamoya.com.

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# Respuesta a "Literature in the Undergraduate Spanish Curriculum: Visionary Brainstorming" 

## Innovando (desde) la literatura



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Palabras clave: crisis in the humanities/crisis de las humanidades, undergraduate Spanish curriculum/currículo subgraduado de español, innovation/innovación, literature/literatura, neoliberalism/neoliberalismo

E1 artículo de Gwendolyn Barnes-Karol se enmarca dentro de discusiones sobre cómo mostrar a los estudiantes la relevancia de la literatura en su vida diaria, o la llamada "vida real", y de hacerles partícipes de dicha experiencia.
En respuesta a los desafíos de la enseñanza de lenguas en el mundo post 11 de septiembre del 2001, el Modern Language Association (MLA) publica un reporte sobre cómo reestructurar los programas de lengua para responder a las desafíos culturales del mundo globalizado. Sin cuestionar la relevancia de los idiomas, plantea que el enfoque en la literatura debe reducirse para abrir espacio a modelos multidisciplinarios que abarquen la sociedad en su complejidad. En respuesta a dicho reporte, el distinguido hispanista Randolph Pope publica una atractiva nota con inspiraciones cinematográficas para buscar mejores y más placenteros métodos de acercarse a la literatura en las aulas.

El artículo previo parece lamentar que dentro de los programas de idiomas, la literatura está en crisis, ya que no se ha prestado la suficiente atención a la propuesta de Pope para salvarla del aburrimiento. Para reafirmar su relevancia, bosqueja excelentes ideas y prácticas innovadoras de enseñanza. Llega a ellas, sin embargo, aplicando un marco conceptual tecnócrata que promete expandir nuestras posibilidades de solucionar el presunto problema.
¿Se necesita la jerga de Silicon Valley para enfrentar los desafíos de nuestra disciplina? Inspirados por los legados intelectuales de entre otros José Martí y Roberto Schwarz, consideramos importante buscar estrategias innovadoras que partan desde nuestro propio campo. ¿Qué son, en última instancia, las famosas metáforas de "Nuestra América" sino llamados a la innovación que nace de lo propio y no de lo ajeno?

En su libro Literature and the Creative Economy, Sarah Brouillette (2014) traza paralelos entre los modelos de trabajadores creativos, innovadores y empáticos del mercado neoliberal y los modelos del campo de la creación literaria y artística. Expone la falacia del sujeto creativo innovador: enfocarnos solo en la capacidad innovadora de este agente cultural nos oculta la materialidad y el trabajo precario que sostiene el pensamiento y la práctica creativa.

Urge pensar las condiciones de la innovación, es decir, reevaluar la estructura social, financiera y académica que insiste en una crisis de las humanidades para luego promover su tecnocratización. El "Design Thinking" genera precisamente un sujeto que se distancia de sus condiciones sociales para luego reimaginarse dentro de lo social desde una posición privilegiada. Aun si aceptáramos el discurso sobre la llamada crisis en la enseñanza de la literatura
y buscáramos que el profesorado se ajustara a las demandas de la universidad neoliberal del siglo XXI, cabría resaltar los muchos esfuerzos que se han hecho para afirmar la relevancia de los programas de idiomas, entre otros la creación de Español para profesionales y la renovación de los programas de estudios latinoamericanos y caribeños. Para el caso particular de la enseñanza de la literatura, la sección "Ideation" incluye una lista de "what ifs" que son hoy en día prácticas comunes entre varios colegas que nunca han dejado de innovar y experimentar en sus aulas con el objetivo de acercar a sus alumnos a la compleja experiencia que es la literatura.

Como ha dicho Cristina Rivera Garza (2015), "la escritura, por ser escritura, invita a considerar la posibilidad de que el mundo puede ser, de hecho, distinto" (173). Junto con ella consideramos que la literatura de por sí es un acto revolucionario de imaginación. Ahora vivimos en tiempos en los que la capacidad disruptiva y renovadora propia de la literatura retorna re-empaquetada en nueva jerga tecnócrata. ¿Pero cuándo la innovación dejó las humanidades para que tengamos que readquirirla? A nuestro parecer, cualquier esfuerzo por mejorar la enseñanza de la literatura debe partir de un intento de revelar estas cualidades de la literatura: su capacidad de agitar, provocar, transformar, y hasta revolucionar nuestra forma de ver y actuar en el mundo.

Si continuamos enmarcando la enseñanza de la literatura en términos tecnocráticos, menospreciando nuestros avances y actuando como si la enseñanza innovadora fuera la excepción y no la regla en nuestras aulas, corremos el riesgo de perpetuar el falaz discurso de la irrelevancia y arcaísmo de las humanidades.

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# Apologia No More: On Strong Foundations and the Future of Hispanism 



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#### Abstract

By 2060, the United States population will be nearly 30\% Hispanic, making Hispanism vital to students' engagement with the full breadth of their own societal fabric (Colby and Ortman 2015: 9). To replace current "reductionist" valuations of foreign language (FL) study as the depositor of career-enhancing skills, we argue for a four-year curricular vision focusing on the development of translingual and transcultural competence, and for a clearer articulation of the value of our work as teachers and scholars of Spanish. We project a future that replaces reductionist symptoms of a broader crisis in higher education with a model that makes our work central to solving that crisis.


Keywords: curricular reform/reforma curricular, foreign language study/estudios de lengua extranjera, Hispanism/hispanismo, humanities/humanidades, reductionist models/modelos reduccionistas

## 1. Introduction

In the decade of 2060, as Hispania celebrates its sesquicentennial anniversary, the United States will be a fundamentally different nation in ethnic and sociolinguistic terms. People of Hispanic origin will approach a third of our population and the entire population of Mexico, currently the most populous country in the Spanish-speaking world (Colby and Ortman 2015: 9). Regardless of how many members of the Hispanic American community are bilingual (if not English-dominant), more than 100 million people will identify with Spanish as a fundamental aspect of their cultural identities. By this time, the fields and professions originally served by Hispania will be quite different, but Hispanists in secondary and postsecondary education will continue to look to the journal for leadership and inspiration in research, pedagogy, and curricular design. But a look at emerging practices in foreign language curricula and a review of recent research in FL Education suggests to us that Hispania and its readership can do much more than strategize its own survival, or keep up with the times. We may reach more students than any other foreign language because of the unique situation of Spanish in the United States, but this fact makes the stakes for our work that much higher, and its potential impact on our society that much greater. This essay advocates situating Hispanic Studies in the driver's seat as our nation's higher educational infrastructure adjusts to the demographic changes on the horizon, through an exploration of what such leadership might look like if approached "from the bottom up," via a four-year curricular vision that promises to maximize our potential impact on the students we teach at all levels.

## 2. Cultural and Political Landscape

While we can be fairly confident of the increased ubiquity of Spanish in the United States, we cannot assume that it will occur without considerable resistance and pushback. The possibility of non-Hispanic American cultural resistance to the growth of Hispanic communities seems especially real when one considers our current "culture wars" surrounding immigration, criminal justice, voting rights, and education. Without entering into the fray of these battles, it is safe to say that problematic arguments abound on all sides due to a tendency to "other" the Hispanic in a direction that does not bode well for the peaceful integration of cultures in the future, as Iris Marion Young (2000) has argued. Whether this alterity is a tool for appealing to the Hispanophobia experienced by some non-Hispanic voters or a strategy for engaging and winning a simplistic and mythical "Hispanic vote," it constitutes a real problem for those who would promote an inclusive and mutually enriching cultural evolution in which Spanish settles into its role as a second national language. Whether as a cause to champion or as a social threat that should be removed from society (calls for federal crackdowns, border fences, selfdeportation, etc.), "othering" the Hispanic depends on the "othered" also being the unknown, in other words when an absence of personal engagement with Hispanic communities leaves one dependent on those doing the othering to provide the narrative through which Hispanic peoples are understood. This "unknownness" of the Spanish language and the people who identify with it is an issue that threatens the stability of our cultural transition toward a one-third Hispanic, minority-majority nation. This is a job for Hispanism.

Regardless of political or ideological affiliations, all Hispanists dedicate their professional careers to teaching and studying the language and cultures of the Spanish-speaking world-which makes them a key resource for institutions of higher education as they rethink what constitutes a college education according to the changing publics they serve. It is on these shifting grounds that we see the importance of a comprehensive four-year Spanish curriculum, as the study of Hispanic languages, cultures, and literatures will become a vital part of educating a citizenry to be more fully engaged with the full breadth of its own societal fabric. But in order to assume this vital role, Hispanism will have to address a number of now-fossilized systemic breaches, themselves due to broader cultural circumstances, that impact how we organize and perceive our work.

## 3. Narrative Surrender among Humanists

Changing conditions in academia make our assumption of the role described above challenging, but all the more important. Higher education's place in society is under increased scrutiny and revision, the effects of which include years of declining enrollment suffered by our (mostly humanistic) degree programs. While state support for public institutions declines, the cost of attendance soars at an unsustainable pace, even at private institutions affected by the broader cultural questioning of the return offered by such an investment. Students and their families understandably question the value of a college education as they are asked to pay more each year, and the answer offered by the Academy has become progressively more disturbing. Indeed if there is a crisis in the Humanities, it stems from our failure to control the discourse through which our value is articulated. In place of a clear explanation of how humanistic learning leads to a healthier society, university public relations campaigns cite statistics on the salaries of their graduates as evidence of the "marketability" of their degree programs. While there is merit in highlighting the "transferable skills," attractive careers and higher salaries that students will acquire and enjoy through our programs, such metrics set us on a slippery slope of defining public and civic utility through discourses of business and economics that are alien to their traditional identities. When our humanistic disciplines surrender the narrative of the
important work they do, they also surrender their agency to promote that work. Nowhere is this slippery slope more evident than in the fields of foreign languages, literatures and cultures, as Ingeborg Walther (2007) has argued persuasively.

The "narrative surrender" described above has led to what is often called a "reductionist" view of our work that renders foreign language less a main course of study and more a side-dish best used to enhance the flavor of the more "serious" programs of study that promise clearer career paths (Warner 2011, among many others). Degree programs in Business, Engineering, and Pre-Medicine, for example, rightly see foreign language study as a means to boost the skillset and marketability of their graduates, as it enables them to serve and do business with a wider array of populations and markets. This attitude is only problematic when it is not countered by our own effective articulation of what our students stand to gain from engaging in our fields of study beyond the augmentation of these other career paths. In the absence of such an articulation, the purpose and value of foreign language study is reduced to that of a vocational skill that other academic units can outsource to our departments. It is understandable that we take on this additional work to address our own budgetary problems due to declining enrollment and funding, but without articulating the value of our field in its own right, we run the risk of being seen only as providing a service that can be reduced in essence to translation. And so the slope becomes progressively more slippery to the point where administrators have begun considering alternative and more cost-effective means of achieving this service, including the closure of language programs deemed "less essential," reduction of tenure-track appointments in favor of adjunct faculty, and even the adoption of software programs like Rosetta Stone (Lord 2016). In the absence of our articulation of why our work is so much more than providing translation skills, such measures are entirely logical, if lamentable.

## 4. Breaches to Be Healed

Before they can counter this reductionist thinking, Hispanists will first need to synchronize their own work so as to speak from a more unified perspective. The surrendering of our disciplinary narrative is most likely the result of this lack of synchrony, as members of the same academic unit have accepted a kind of post-structural resistance to "master narratives." If the professionals working within the same program are unable to reach a consensus about who they are and what they do, a coherent narrative will continue to elude them, creating a void to be filled by discourses of professional schools and their administrators, or of advertising campaigns for the latest digital program that would cut us out of the equation altogether. Thus healing disciplinary breaches several generations in the making is vital. They are cast here in broad terms so as to apply to as many programs as possible, but we acknowledge that their description is inevitably reflective of our own subject positions as tenured faculty in a large, PhD-granting program at a major public research university-the kind of program that produces a majority of the professoriate at a wider array of institutional settings.

The first such breach, the traditional distinction between research, teaching, and service used to organize our professional responsibilities, has led to their being so disconnected as to compete for our time, with the outcome determining our professional success. The message that "research is what counts" sent by many university administrations through the mechanisms of merit pay, promotion to tenure, and other forms of support, leads many ambitious researchers to see their teaching responsibilities as a separate job best done efficiently so as to minimize its effect on their ability to publish. The teaching/research breach widens when we see colleagues denied tenure or promotion because their passion for teaching comes at the expense of their research productivity, or when publications about teaching are classified as secondary or "minor." Along similar lines, work categorized as "service" is often of disproportionately insignificant importance to evaluations of our professional performance, despite the fact that
such work is indispensible to a coherent and productive curriculum that synchronizes our colleagues' pedagogical efforts with our own. As long as "service work," like program assessment or curricular design, is framed as marginal "grunt work" in competition with our teaching and research, Hispanism will not be able to organize itself so as to assume the important role in higher education that we envision for it.

Another breach in need of healing is the curricular divide between beginning and more advanced levels of study at the undergraduate level (Byrnes 2006; Modern Language Association 2007; among others). This divide, traditionally conceived as between "language" (grammar, writing, conversation) and "content" courses (literature, culture, linguistics, etc.), organizes our students into two distinct populations (degree and non-degree seekers) and sends the message that we see serving one as more serious and meaningful, even though serving the latter population offers greater (and mostly unrealized) potential to have a critical impact on far more students. Furthermore, this message reinforces traditional teaching hierarchies among faculty and staff that put tenure-track "content teachers" in control of adjunct and graduate student "language teachers." According to such a narrative, it is the job of the language teacher to help students achieve a degree of language proficiency deemed sufficient for the "content teachers" to take over, regardless of what decades of second language acquisition (SLA) research reveals about the time demands and optimal conditions for FL students to progress through complex developmental stages and orders of acquisition (VanPatten 2003). Such a divide leaves each side unaware of what is being done by the other, and consequently unaware of how their approaches might actually converge-an "intersection of the interdisciplinary fields of second language acquisition and contemporary cultural studies" (Walther 2007: 9) -in order to more effectively meet our students' developmental needs. It should be noted that this beginning/advanced divide plays into the reductionist "translation services" narrative through which our work is so often perceived by others. Still further breaches endemic to Hispanism-between Spain and Latin America or Literature and Linguistics, for example-exacerbate this problem further, insofar as they promote further hierarchies and inhibit the kind of synchrony for which we are calling. Certainly such divides make little sense to our students (undergraduate and graduate) as they embark on Hispanic studies, though understandably most come to reflect and even reinforce them as disciplinary realities.

## 5. A Broadstroke Vision of the Future

With a commitment to healing these breaches at the departmental level, a vision of how we can work together as Hispanists to reinvent and clearly articulate the value of Humanistic studies can emerge. John Beverly (2014), for example, calls for a rallying of humanist troops around the cause of elucidating the question of inequality in all its historical and contemporary manifestations. Articulating such "big picture questions" that define our curricula is prerequisite to asking our students to answer them, if through discovering the answers they are to prepare themselves to embrace rather than fear our evolving societal realities. What outcomes would we ideally hope to see achieved? Research should inform what we aspire for our students in terms of their linguistic abilities, cultural knowledge, and critical dispositions, all pointing to their productive and healthy engagement with the discourses of Spanish-speaking communities, even if institutional contexts lead to differing areas of focus. By starting with these desired results at the curricular ("macro") level, we can then work backward to establish what types of student work and performances will allow them to demonstrate achievement of these goals, and in turn design instructional interventions and opportunities for learning and practice at the individual course ("micro") level to foster their progress. Here we briefly describe what we believe necessary to realize such a vision, again framed by our own institutional context, which shares common ground with the programs most responsible for preparing the future professoriate.

1) A clearly articulated four-year curriculum that encourages content learning and textual thinking from the beginning (Arens and Swaffer 2005; Dupuy, Paesani, and Willis-Allen 2015), and systematic focus on promoting communicative abilities, metalinguistic awareness, and the development of symbolic competence (Kramsch 2006) and textual analysis from beginning to end (Frantzen 2002).
2) A clear and consistent description of the value of contextualized second language learning (as the study of language use itself reveals cultural understandings and promotes affinities that the study of cultural texts in English translation could not) in conjunction with a reconsideration of proficiency expectations in foundational courses (Schulz 2006).
3) Curricula that are driven by SLA research: language learning requires time and sustained exposure to input and opportunities for interaction that can be enhanced by instruction (Ellis 2005). Spanish majors in a senior seminar, like all of us who are not native speakers, are still language learners that benefit from focused instruction and practice in addition to any feedback on essays.
4) A focus on students' construction and analysis of new identities through which they learn to operate between languages and cultures and recognize their own cultural perspectives (Modern Language Association 2007).
5) Promotion of a broad understanding of historical and current events shaping our social realities, including the role of the United States in the Hispanic world and its perception by that world beginning in foundational levels (Rossomondo 2012), thus maximizing the number of students who learn what it means to "other" through textual representation, and are aware of the implicit dangers of such representations.
6) Valuation of the role of formative assessment and evidence-based approaches to curricular design as integral to effective foreign language teaching, along with efforts to connect scholarly research with teaching (which implies the need to articulate research interests and findings in ways that are meaningful to students, colleagues in other areas of study, and society at large).

This wish list is left deliberately (and necessarily) vague so as to be applicable to the wide array of institutional contexts in which Hispanists work, but its basic principles (broad departmental buy-in for and collaboration on an articulated approach to a four-year curriculum) are already being practiced in other language programs-particularly in German and French, no doubt due to a more immediate need to address declining enrollments. (The most complete and accessible model in our view is the documented process by which the Georgetown German department synchronized their four-year curriculum [Developing Multiple Literacies].) Spanish's unique position in the United States has made such soul-searching less urgent for Hispanists, but we argue that with this privilege comes the responsibility of learning from our non-Spanish colleagues' impressive contributions to FL study in the United States in order to impact a much broader public than their programs are likely to reach.

## 6. Conclusion

If you are reading this article, there is a good chance that you will be directly involved in determining how Hispanism will evolve during the next fifty years. The time is right for the field of Hispanic Studies to assume a leadership role in a system of higher education whose mission will be to serve and engage an increasingly diverse society, lest our profession be cast in our current climate of budget cuts justified by market-driven valuations of the "worth" of our educational system. Regardless of to what extent the curricular vision described above resonates with the diverse array of Hispania readers and the institutional circumstances in which they work,
we urge all Hispanists to rethink their institutional mission so as to embrace a near future in which access to the language and cultures that they study and teach will be vital to our society's peaceful and inclusive evolution.

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Response to "Apologia No More: On Strong Foundations and the Future of Hispanism"

## Engaged Humanities and the Future of Spanish Programs



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Keywords: curricular reform/reforma curricular, engaged humanities/humanidades comprometidas, foreign language study/estudio de lengua extranjera, Hispanism/hispanismo, reductionist models/modelos reduccionistas, Service-Learning/aprendizaje del servicio, Spanish for the Professions/español para profesiones

More than just finally articulating the value of what we do in Spanish programs, we must actually change a significant portion of what we do-and how we do it-in order to offer the kind of value the authors wisely propose. To provide solutions to "the possibility of non-Hispanic American cultural resistance to the growth of Hispanic communities"(Bayliss and Rossomondo 2017) we need to focus much of our curricula on US Latinos, commit to social justice education and engage with our local Latino communities. Few departments do this, though, because few departments have truly seen this as their mission. To prepare students to be civically-engaged, savvy cultural critics who are equipped to combat highly-charged, racialized discourses will require integrating into our curriculum topics such as human migrations (historical and global), economics, policy studies, communication, media studies and more. Yet the vast majority of departments continue to mostly teach students how to analyze cultural products (literary studies, predominantly) and language (linguistics). To bridge what Spanish programs actually do and what the authors claim we are preparing students to do requires a more radical—and uncomfortable—shift than just finding the right words.

This curricular shift must occur swiftly. A decade has already passed since the MLA's special report on foreign languages (cited by the authors) as well as Carlos Alonso's declaration in Profession that Spanish is now "a second national language and culture in this country" (220). Yet most Spanish departments in the United States still operate as foreign language programs, perennially privileging Spain and reproducing value systems and power structures the authors suggest we can dismantle in the United States. They astutely propose that Spanish departments embrace the local and transnational nature of Spanish, but our current approach of scattered heritage speaker sections and service learning courses is insufficient. Departments that adopt the engaged humanities model and a mission to see and seek connections among traditional scholarly projects of inquiry and the issues surrounding them imbue their programs with an urgency and relevance that our profession as a whole currently lacks but that students and other stakeholders seek.

The demographic trends listed by the authors will consolidate by 2067, but we can change today. Take the concrete example of campuses located in new-growth communities-places where immigrants have not traditionally settled and which lack infrastructure to build linguistic and transcultural competencies. Cultural studies scholars and students can work with the community to analyze depictions of these new encounters and suggest more accurate, helpful representations of the challenges and opportunities within their changing communities. Second language acquisition experts and schools can partner to create positive responses to
multilingualism, inside and outside the K-12 classrooms. Literary scholars and libraries can collaborate to build collections, attract Latino patrons and design relevant programming. Language program directors can integrate service learning across the curriculum to provide targeted assistance that meets community-identified needs. Conceived as the department's mission, these activities can be integrated into regular research, teaching and service obligations, not heaped upon them. Nonetheless, a quick look at the dissertations produced in Spanish departments ("Open Access Dissertation Lists") reveals that our focus on literary analysis and linguistics has barely budged, constantly reproducing frameworks that do not actually address the societal needs the authors foreground.

Lastly, our profession should embrace both civic and career connections to Spanish studies. After all, the important civic project the authors outline plays out in workplaces and among colleagues and clients, not just in voting booths and neighborhoods. We perpetuate our own reductionism by presenting a focus on careers as a caricature of vocational training. Instead, it is an opportunity to engage with the complexities and creative challenges of professionals who must not just develop but also deploy translingual and transcultural competence in real time, with real people, not characters on a page or screen. As the authors say, the stakes for our profession and our society are high. We are experts in translingual competence, and we have not yet successfully found the language to express our value to others outside our field, despite the urgency. We are experts in transcultural competence, and we struggle to negotiate between our own academic culture (with its belief system, values and cultural products) and outside audiences with differing cultural perspectives and practices. The authors suggest we can fix the breaches within our society, but these breaches are mirrored within our profession. To fix either, we must look harder at ourselves.

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# Lenguas, culturas y sensibilidades en los Estados Unidos: Español y Spanglish en un mundo inglés 



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Resumen: El presente estudio muestra el estado del Spanglish en los Estados Unidos, a través de las diversas posturas-y de algunas reflexiones-de estudiosos sobre el tema. El cambio de códigos (code-switching) entre el inglés y el español-característica que diversos investigadores consideran típica del Spanglish-, representa el modelo de la identidad mestiza de muchos latinos en los Estados Unidos. Con este ensayo tratamos de reflexionar sobre algunos puntos para intentar profundizar y comprender este comportamiento lingüístico, cultural e identitario que caracteriza a muchas de las comunidades de origen hispano que residen en los Estados Unidos. Los resultados in fieri muestran que el Spanglish representa una práctica lingǘstica, y al mismo tiempo puede ser un puente entre la cultura hispana y la cultura estadounidense.

Palabras claves: code-switching/cambio de códigos, culture/cultura, English/inglés, identity/identidad, Spanglish, Spanish/español, United States/Estados Unidos

La lengua española ha tenido una presencia secular en el sur de los actuales Estados Unidos, en particular en el Suroeste, a pesar de que en Florida el uso del español concierne a acontecimientos históricos más recientes y diferentes. ${ }^{1}$ Pero fue la cesión del suroeste de los ahora Estados Unidos que empezó a bosquejar el perfil lingüístico más identificable actualmente (Moreno Fernández 2006). Cinco siglos de historia, escribe Moreno Fernández (2006), "han configurado la presencia del español en Estados Unidos. En ella han concurrido unas circunstancias demográficas, sociológicas y culturales que han dado a la lengua una complejidad dialectal y sociolingǘstica que rara vez se ha podido hallar en los amplios dominios hispánicos" (3).

Fue durante la década de los 70, que sociolingüistas destacados como Gumperz y HernándezChávez (1972) y también Elías-Olivares (1976) observaron que en diferentes zonas del suroeste norteamericano los sentimientos de inferioridad afectaban sobre todo a los hablantes más adultos, mientras que los jóvenes manifestaban un creciente orgullo étnico que se notaba, entre otras cosas, gracias al uso del cambio de código entre el inglés y el español como rasgo identificador de su carácter bilingüe (Blas Arroyo 2005).

Cabe recordar que para muchos sociolingüistas el fenómeno bilingüe representa una faceta sumamente importante del estudio de las actitudes lingǘsticas. Como demuestra el sociolingüista Blas Arroyo (2005), desde un punto de vista empírico, se debe a Adorno (1973) una de las primeras investigaciones que analizó el perfil actitudinal diglósico entre buena parte de los hablantes hispanos de los Estados Unidos. Lo que se vio, fue que en muchas comunidades de habla, mientras que la lengua inglesa era considerada importante para el desarrollo social, la lengua española se estimaba más adecuada en algunos ámbitos familiares, como el hogar (en los hogares hispanos el uso del español se situaba en el $80 \%$ según el censo del año 2000). En efecto, se observó cómo era mayor el uso del español en el ámbito familiar, informal, donde el idioma
de origen funcionaba como lengua "doméstica", lengua de las relaciones íntimas, y lengua que denotaba el sentimiento de pertenencia al grupo étnico. Mientras que en el ámbito laboral, el hablante utilizaba sobre todo el inglés, considerado adecuado en los ambientes formales de la sociedad anglosajona.

Otros estudios (Torres 1997) han demostrado que es en la propia condición bilingüe donde se ven los principales signos de identidad etnolingǘstica y no en la lealtad o preferencia hacia una de las dos lenguas. De ahí que fenómenos del discurso bilingüe como la conmutación de código desempeñen un papel decisivo.

En algunas sociedades los propios hablantes han creado definiciones específicas para referirse a ciertas variedades híbridas en las que la conmutación de código o el préstamo léxico masivo ocupan un lugar destacado. Tex-mex, por ejemplo, se ha difundido entre los chicanos de Texas, mientras que pachuco es el término que designa el dialecto original de la ciudad fronteriza de El Paso (Texas). En cambio, la invasión de anglicismos en el español general de los Estados Unidos ha permitido crear el término Spanglish para referir a lo que popularmente se considera como una variedad mixta entre los dos idiomas (Blas Arroyo 2005).

Explicar el Spanglish no es sencillo, ya que se trata de una forma lingüística difícil de describir, debido a su esencia. Existen estudiosos que sostienen que se trata del nombre que se da a un conjunto de fenómenos, desde los cambios de códigos de los bilingües, a préstamos y calcos del inglés, a la creación de neologismos, a variedades de español anglicadas e inglés hispanizadas, como, por ejemplo, el español chicano y el inglés puertorriqueño. Además, el significado que se da a las expresiones cambio de códigos (code-switching), alternancia de códigos (code alternation), mezcla de códigos (code-mixing) y al término Spanglish, varía según los investigadores (Betti 2008, 2009). Por lo que se refiere a estas estrategias lingüísticas no existe de momento una terminología generalmente aceptada, y las investigaciones sobre esta forma expresiva a menudo no coinciden. La relativa anarquía terminológica de estas definiciones es una consecuencia de los importantes problemas de caracterización que aún presentan las alternancias de lenguas (Blas Arroyo 2005). Moreno Fernández (2004) expone que el caso del Spanglish es sociolingüísticamente complejo:

> por estar las lenguas protagonistas más alejadas en su forma y por coexistir en una sociedad tan compleja como la estadounidense, en la que, para empezar, lo hispano o hispánico porta valores diferentens según el territorio de los Estados Unidos de que se trate: no es lo mismo la frontera con México, que Florida, Nueva York o Chicago. Por eso son varios los nombres que se le ha dado a la mezcla de inglés y español durante el último siglo: chicano, pocho, tex-mex, caló, espanglish, entre otros (Villanueva 1980). Las cuestiones de identidad que se derivan de todo ello afectan a muchos aspectos de la presencia hispana en los EE.UU., incluido el nombre preferido para autodenominarse como grupo social: latino/hispano. (Gracia 2000)

Desde un punto de vista sociohistórico, prosigue ese estudioso, se forma en un grupo étnico que de algún modo se opone a la completa asimilación al grupo dominante anglosajón; mientras que desde un punto de vista lingüístico, el Spanglish está tan diversificado como el origen de los latinos que lo usan (mexicanos, puertorriqueños, cubanos, etc.), y a esta diversidad se añade la de la forma, muy variada, en que se producen los préstamos, los calcos, las transferencias gramaticales o las alternancias de lenguas (Moreno Fernández 2004). En opinión de Zentella (2002), el Spanglish es también indicio y símbolo de la construcción de la nueva identidad, además de una forma de destreza lingüística. Es un término que capta las experiencias de vida, los conflictos y la opresión vividos (y sufridos) por los latinos en los Estados Unidos (Zentella 2009). Garrido Medina (2007) pone en evidencia que si se usa el término Spanglish (o "espanglish") para referirse a "a ese español supuestamente empobrecido" (176). Concluye que "precisamente su presencia en las llamadas 'modalidades literarias' puede dar carta de naturaleza de lo que es sobre todo adaptación a la sociedad en que se vive" (176; énfasis mío). "Este bilingüismo adaptativo suele ser
denominado spanglish" (179). En cambio, Otheguy (2009) sostiene que no se puede hablar de Spanglish, vocablo que juzga inoportuno, sino que se trataría, simplemente, de expresiones típicas del español de los Estados Unidos, muy comunes entre los hispanounidenses. Otheguy (2009) afirma que cuando se habla de espanglish (forma que él prefiere a la de Spanglish): "la referencia, aunque sea de forma implícita, es siempre al español popular de los Estados Unidos, no a sus manifestaciones cultas" (222). Mientras que Lipski (2008) declara: "In a few instances Spanglish is a strictly neutral term, and some US Latino political and social activists have even adopted Spanglish as a positive affirmation of ethnolinguistic identity" (38-39).

En un libro que acaba de aparecer, Teoría del spanglish (2015), López García-Molins destaca que:

> el spanglish consiste en un cruce neurolingüístico que se traduce en las inserciones léxicas de una lengua en los esquemas gramaticales de otra, normalmente de los lexemas del inglés en los esquemas del español, aunque también al contrario. No es nada anómalo ni sorprendente, ocurre en el habla de todos los bilingües: lo único notable en el caso del spanglish es que esta práctica se ha consolidado socialmente y ha acabado por asumir valores simbólicos. Sin embargo, todos los estudiosos del spanglish destacan otra característica que lo define en su opinión de forma todavía más rotunda y es el cambio de código (code switching). .. . (101)

El Spanglish no representa ni el español en los Estados Unidos ni el español de los Estados Unidos, sino una forma de comunicación familiar, una estrategia expresiva espontánea, una práctica lingüística reflejo de una sociedad $y$ de las personas que lo hablan, y es sobre todo una señal de identidad, por lo tanto, se trata de un fenómeno más complejo de lo que parece y, cierto, muy interesante por las implicaciones emocionales, psicológicas, sociológicas, territoriales que comporta.

Zentella (citado en Fresneda 1998) analiza la diferencia de los niveles de Spanglish, y observa, entre otros, que se hallan términos españolizados, a veces por simple deformación (chipero: tacaño [cheap]), otras veces, por simple conveniencia (parta-n: trabajador a tiempo parcial [part time]) o reproducción de interjecciones tabú, con evidente sentido del humor (sarambiche: hijo de perra [son of a bitch]).

El Spanglish es algo más que el resultado de la hibridación de dos culturas, afirma Rodríguez Ortiz (2013), que lo ve como "un sistema institucionalizado de símbolos que requieren una traducción filosófica, estética y cultural". Esta estudiosa analiza profundamente el fenómeno y añade: "Traducción que al cambiar un elemento cultural por otro, cambia al lenguaje mismo, eliminando aquellos elementos culturales que ya no son necesarios. Es decir, al cambiar el español por el inglés, pero al mantener ciertas palabras en español, se enriquecen dos lenguas y se crea una". Una forma de expresarse, entonces, necesaria para algunos hispanounidenses, que se identifican con el Spanglish porque refleja su esencia entre dos mundos. Hablan dos idiomas porque pertenecen a dos realidades, son hispano-y al mismo tiempo-unidenses, un alma sola. Así, cuando hablamos de Spanglish, no hablamos solo de una forma de expresión, sino también de una manera de vivir, marcada de hibridación, de identidad, de multiculturalismo, que en los Estados Unidos representaría perfectamente a una parte de latinos que viven y pertenecen a estas dos realidades (Betti 2008, 2009). Anzaldúa (2007) expresa poéticamente lo que significa ser hispano en los Estados Unidos y nos brinda una imagen evocadora del fenómeno: "Change, evolución, enriquecimiento de palabras nuevas por invención o adopción have created variants of Chicano Spanish, un nuevo lenguaje. Un lenguaje que corresponde a un modo de vivir" (77).

A los hispanounidenses poder comunicarse en inglés y en español les permite tener relación, familiaridad con dos culturas, dos mundos, dos cosmovisiones, dos sensibilidades diferentes. El Spanglish, pues, implica mucho más que saber dos idiomas. Los que se crían hablando dos lenguas diferentes pueden así cambiar entre ellas para responder a las distintas circunstancias emocionales, sociales y pragmáticas.

Rodríguez Ortiz (2008), en un ensayo muy sugestivo, reconoce que el Spanglish es utilizado también por muchos escritores chicanos o que viven la (y en la) frontera y representa la expresión más verdadera para describir la realidad:


#### Abstract

La literatura fronteriza también se caracteriza por infringir los límites del estilo y de los géneros, así como por recrear la narrativa mediante discursos lúdicos, eróticos, cargados de una sátira melancólica de su existencia transfronteriza. Desconoce los límites entre lo real y lo artificioso, y disuelve los géneros literarios, juega con las formas y experimenta con el lenguaje. Este juego con el lenguaje consiste en incluir modismos anglosajones en el idioma. Lo mismo sucede con la literatura chicana, solo que en esta se incluyen palabras en español que hacen alusión a los origenes, a la familia, a las tradiciones mexicanas. En ambos casos, es un estilo propio de expresión fronteriza utilizado por varios escritores, que da lugar a un lenguaje híbrido conocido como Spanglish (o espanglés). Este juego lingüístico hace que la narrativa fronteriza sea coloquial y describa, de manera cotidiana, la realidad en la que se gesta. (132; énfasis mío)


El Spanglish podría ser, finalmente, una renovada muestra del vigor y la pujanza del español, un elemento que no lleva a la corrupción de la lengua española sino la consolida en los Estados Unidos, imprimiéndole nueva vitalidad (Betti 2008, 2016).

Dumitrescu (2015) escribe, "Es un error poner un signo de igualdad entre el español de los Estados Unidos en su totalidad, y el así llamado Spanglish, que es exclusivamente una variante del español hablado en los EE.UU., que contiene muchas otras, inclusive un español culto de los hispanos educados, con o sin los estadounidismos" (35). Dumitrescu-junto con los investigadores siguientes presentes en el libro titulado Visiones europeas del spanglish (2015)-explica que el Spanglish presenta dos rasgos: uno que considera "más prestigioso" (el cambio de código) y otro "menos prestigioso" (es decir, los préstamos del inglés innecesarios) - y agrega que:

> es simplemente una manera típica de comunicarse entre sí de los bilingües (más o menos equilibrados), que, en interacciones verbales intracomunitarias, cambian de código (o sea de lengua, en este caso de español a inglés y viceversa) o acuden a préstamos del inglés, principalmente como una forma de expresar su identidad híbrida, resultado de su pertenencia a dos culturas y a dos códigos linguísticos diferentes, con los que están en contacto permanente. (36)

Hernández Sacristán (2015) aprecia "el excepcional valor que contiene esta modalidad expresiva sincrética en tanto que campo para una reflexión profunda sobre la naturaleza del lenguaje". El Spanglish, para ese investigador, "se configura con el valor fenomenológico propio de una lengua materna, asociada a la corporalidad del hablante y que por este motivo no puede ser nunca racional ni funcionalmente objetivada o enajenada" (49). Mientras que López GarcíaMolins y Morant-Marco (2015) lo ven como un hecho también político y escriben que:

> . . para que ambos sentimientos nacionales resultaran compatibles, los hispanounidenses tuvieron que hacer algunos ajustes: por un lado, tuvieron que olvidar enfrentamientos históricos del pasado entre anglos e hispanos; por otro, tuvieron que relativizar la importancia de la lengua española, valorándola como signo de adscripción grupal y no en sí misma. Así surge la adopción del spanglish como signo de identidad: de la habilidad con que se sepa mantener su vertiente creativa de juego lúdico entre dos lenguas normativamente estables, el inglés y el español, depende, a nuestro entender, la propia viabilidad de dicha comunidad nacional de segundo orden. (94)

López García y Morant-Marco (2015) consideran el Spanglish "como un símbolo del nacionalismo americano $y$, al mismo tiempo, como un índice de la identidad emocional latina" (86). Y Antonio Torres (2015) sostiene que "es una forma de expresión muy ligada a la identidad de ciertos hablantes, y que cumple una finalidad comunicativa en determinados contextos;
de lo que se trata es de sumar a esa modalidad otras formas de usar el español, otros recursos que la lengua brinda a los hablantes, con el fin de poder recurrir a ellos si es necesario" (107). Jorques-Jiménez (2015), por su lado, reivindica:
el papel del Spanglish como juego, como modelo de acción de la comunicación en el que la presión ambiental para la consecución de fines inequívocos ha sido y es relativamente importante, pero no el único factor, ni siquiera el predominante . . . . Esta capacidad para la invención o creatividad presupone la manipulación consciente de las estructuras gramaticales, el jugar con distintas alternativas de acción. Y en este sentido, la conciencia de empleo de sus usuarios se encuentra indiscutiblemente orientada al momento presente de la enunciación; pero no solo a él. (107)

El fenómeno del cambio de códigos es reflejo de realidades étnicas, políticas, económicas e individuales que cambian de una comunidad a otra, de una persona a otra. Se trata, en el caso del Spanglish, de una realidad lingǘstica e identitaria muy compleja, que no podemos definir como "lengua", pero necesaria para poder evolucionar hacia otras realidades vinculadas a la identidad y que, por eso, merece una atención y un estudio escrupulosos (Betti 2013).

Quiero terminar con las palabras de Zentella (2016), elocuentes a propósito del Spanglish y de su futuro en los Estados Unidos:

At the same time, Spanglish is a graphic way of saying "we speak both because we are both". As a proud Spanglish speaker of Puerto Rican and Mexican background who is also an anthropolitical linguist, my definition of Spanglish is the result of both personal experience and scholarship: Spanglish is an in-group and informal style of speaking among SpanishEnglish bilinguals that honors the rules of both Spanish and English-an act of 'doing being bilingual' that reflects our dual worlds. It consists primarily of some adapted and unadapted English loan words inserted in Spanish, some Spanish loans in English, loan translations, a few borrowed structures, and switches between Spanish and English, usually at sentence boundaries, but also within a sentence. Despite widespread condemnation and formidable opponents, our Spanglish rejects a linguistic border patrolling that reinforces monoglot imperialism, and the label itself proclaims its border crossing nature, which "popular Spanish of the US" obscures. And precisely because Spanglish is a label misused by the enemies of Spanish in the US, we must expose them and wrest it from them, insisting that it is not the way of speaking or the label that is holding us back, but the power imbalances that language enforcers end up concealing. We embrace Spanglish with open and frank discussions of its roots and problems, just as we embrace expanding our repertoires of English and Spanish, all part of el habla del pueblo. (29-30)

## NOTA

${ }^{1}$ El presente estudio surge de reflexiones sobre el tema del Spanglish publicadas en algunos trabajos anteriores.

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Response 1 to "Lenguas, culturas y sensibilidades en los Estados Unidos: Español y Spanglish en un mundo inglés"

# On Spanglish: Denominator of Linguistic Hybridity or Sociocultural Identity? 



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Keywords: hybridity/hibridez, identity/identidad, linguistics/lingüística, Spanglish, Spanish/español, United States/Estados Unidos

In reclaiming negative words intended to subjugate a population and imbuing those words with positive meaning, minoritized social groups are able to deny their oppressors access to their linguistic tools of disparagement. For instance, the word queer, which was historically used as a pejorative outgroup designator for gays and lesbians, was reclaimed by the gay community in the twentieth century, which "challenged the legitimacy of negative attitudes towards homosexuals, and it destabilized the privileged position of heterosexuality as the authority against which non-normative practices could be judged" (Meyerhoff 2006: 64). Similarly, rather than allowing outgroup use of Spanglish as a derogatory term, many Latinx scholars are reclaiming the word as a positive marker of hybrid identity and transcultural repositioning (Guerra 2004), inverting the social hierarchy that enabled their subjugation in the first place.

In tandem with this movement to reclaim Spanglish, a counterargument regarding the linguistic appropriateness of the term has emerged. Otheguy and Stern (2010) contend that the name Spanglish itself does a disservice to the variety it describes by perpetuating a misunderstanding of its linguistic properties. They write:

> Some researchers who have accepted the term Spanglish have argued that the word is not intended as the name of a hybrid language, but rather, that it refers to a way of using the languages. . . However, the very form of the word, and the way we usually think about languages, directly lead to a misunderstanding, as the word Spanglish is naturally interpreted as a reference to a linguistic hybrid. If we proposed the word grinitosis, and insisted that it was not the name of an illness, or that the word grinocide is not a type of killing, we should not be surprised to be misunderstood. The word Spanglish is misleading because the components of this word are obviously the names of two other languages, Spanish and English, and hearers reasonably conclude that Spanglish too must be the name of a language, a mix of its two component parts. (96)

While Zentella $(1997,2002)$ and other pro-Spanglish authors focus on the term's sociocultural importance, Otheguy and Stern take on a more purely linguistic approach. These distinct viewpoints on Spanglish reflect two conflicting ideologies about language and the central aim of the field of linguistics. American structuralism and generative grammar isolate language from its contextual use, prioritizing the study of langue/competence over context (Bybee 2006: 711). Usage-based models expand linguistic inquiry to include the potential influence of context and use, explicitly addressing experience in our understanding of mental grammar. Incorporating context even more than usage-based models are sociocultural and anthropological approaches
that position contextually governed social and cultural practices as front and center in linguistic analysis. These perspectives on the import of context represent a continuum, with more traditional linguistic approaches at one pole and sociocultural/anthropological approaches at the other.

Although more sociocultural and more linguistic interpretations of Spanglish are both valid, they rely crucially on different ideologies about language and linguistic analysis. The use of "Spanglish" may appear problematic and misleading for those whose goal is the documentation of the linguistic properties of Spanish in the United States, and the use of 'Spanish in the United States' may seem inadequate to linguistic anthropologists discussing US Latinxs' hybrid experiences, cultures, and linguistic practices. In other words, our different goals as linguists may color our understanding of Spanglish and its academic appropriateness, rendering its use more or less suitable for our specific purposes. Regardless of our individual interpretation of the term, recognition of the ideological continuum encompassed by Spanglish may help explain the roots of linguists' disagreement about its appositeness and foment acceptance for terminological uses that may deviate from our own preferences.

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Respuesta 2 a "Lenguas, culturas y sensibilidades en los Estados Unidos: Español y Spanglish en un mundo inglés"

# Un tipo especial de Spanglish en la literatura estadounidense: La fusión de códigos y el translenguar 

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Palabras clave: bilingualism/bilingüismo, code-switching/fusión de códigos, identity/identidad, Junot Díaz, Spanglish, translanguaging/translenguar

Se ha afirmado varias veces que el Spanglish—entendido como un código de comunicación mixto, español e inglés, propio de muchos bilingües estadounidenses-es un símbolo de la construcción de una nueva identidad entre los latinos de nuestro país. Y también se ha subrayado que es una forma de expresión literaria para muchos escritores chicanos de las zonas fronterizas, deseosos de recrear, en sus obras, la realidad de la comunidad que representan (e.g. Rudin 1996; Torres 2007).

En lo siguiente, me propongo demostrar que, de hecho, en la literatura estadounidense actual escrita por hispanos (no solo chicanos), el uso de la mezcla idiomática se ha convertido en un instrumento literario de profunda y novedosa expresividad artística. Como escribió Aparicio (1994):

> While some prescriptive linguists, editors, and authorities in education would judge the interference of Spanish and English as a deficit, a postmodern and transcreative approach would validate it as a positively creative innovation in literature. (797)

Para mí, el mejor exponente de este enfoque posmoderno y translingüístico en la literatura estadounidense actual es el escritor dominicano Junot Díaz, cuyo talento literario y originalidad artística le han merecido, entre muchos otros galardones literarios, el prestigioso Premio Pulitzer de Literatura para 2008.

Es bien conocida la entrevista en que este escritor explica la razón por la cual usa el español en sus obras redactadas en inglés (Ch'ien 2004):

> For me allowing the Spanish to exist in my text without the benefit of italics or quotations marks a very important political move. Spanish is not a minority language. Not in this hemisphere, not in the United States, not in the world inside my head. So why treat it like one? Why 'other' it? Why de-normalize it? By keeping Spanish as normative in a predominantly English text, I wanted to remind readers of the fluidity of languages, of the mutability of languages. And to mark how steadily English is transforming Spanish and Spanish is transforming English. (204)

Fiel a esta postura, Díaz, además de usar el cambio de código como han hecho, antes de él, otros escritores hispanounidenses (por ejemplo, Sandra Cisneros, Oscar Hijuelos y otros,
que fueron sus maestros, según él mismo declaró una vez), ${ }^{1}$ va más allá de sus antecesores y le propone al lector una fusión ingeniosa de ambos idiomas, que prácticamente no tiene precedente y que representa lo más innovador y original de su creación literaria.

Casielles-Suárez (2013) considera que en los escritos de Junot Díaz "Spanish does not so much alternate with English, but 'invades' English", ya que "rather than alternating with English, Spanish words, hundreds of Spanish words and phrases, blend with English grammar and are treated as if they were English" (485), y llama esta estrategia literaria "hibridismo radical". En lo que me concierne, prefiero evitar el término de "hibridismo" (que puede tener connotaciones negativas para algunos) y sustituirlo por el de "fusión de códigos", para dar cuenta de las numerosas situaciones en las que el escritor dominicano mezcla los dos idiomas no solo a nivel inter- o intra-oracional, sino también, y sobre todo, a nivel intra-sintagmático e incluso intra-morfemático. El espacio no me permite incluir más que unos pocos ejemplos de lexemas híbridos, medio-ingleses y medio-españoles, que mezclan sufijos y raíces de ambas lenguas, como: her campesina-ness, her prieta-ness, her cursi-ness, estaban perejiling; así como estas creaciones jocosas, que se refieren a Trujillo como a consummate culocrat to the end, y a su régimen, como the world's first culocracy; o creaciones sintagmáticas bilingües, como my abuelo and his campo hands, your outrageous sinvergüencería, his tío's car, o Her querido oldest hijo, her total consentido (más ejemplos en Dumitrescu 2014).

Para concluir, con Junot Díaz estamos ante lo que Ofelia García llama "translanguaging", o sea el uso de una práctica discursiva que, vista desde una perspectiva bilingüe, no puede ser fácilmente asignada a una o a otra lengua, y que "assumes one linguistic repertoire that could never be split into one or another language, an Aleph in the Borgean sense that contains the sum total of the meaning-making universe of bilingual speakers" (García y Wei 2014: 48).

## NOTA

${ }^{1}$ Todas las funciones sociopragmáticas identificadas por Montes-Alcalá (2012) para el cambio de códigos tanto en la interacción oral espontánea como en los textos literarios, están presentes, en diferentes grados, en las obras de Díaz, pero su originalidad reside, precisamente, en crear nuevas alternativas a este modelo "clásico" utilizado en el pasado.

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# Meeting Student Needs: Integrating Spanish Heritage Language Learners into the Second Language Classroom 



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#### Abstract

Despite the increase of Spanish heritage language (HL) courses in response to the linguistic needs of HL learners, these courses often combine this student population with advanced second language (L2) learners. This common scenario presents a challenge to many instructors who lack the training to negotiate intercultural and linguistic issues in the classroom so that all students can benefit. This essay presents key intercultural concerns (e.g., embarrassment and intimidation) and suggests strategies for instructors. Twenty-first-century students will work in collaborative contexts, so they must learn how to benefit from their classmates' strengths and work on their weaknesses through peer interaction and teamwork.


Keywords: intercultural issues/cuestiones interculturales, linguistic issues/cuestiones lingüísticas, literacy skills/habilidades de alfabetización, mixed learners/estudiantes mixtos, peer interaction/interacción de pares

## 1. Introduction

Due to the growth of the Spanish-speaking population in the United States, many institutions have created specific courses for Spanish heritage language (HL) learners, who need a separate track due to their linguistic background (Bowles and Montrul 2014). These courses usually focus on literacy skills since many HL learners lack formal instruction in Spanish despite their early acquisition of the language in a naturalistic setting. Language educators generally concur with regard to the need for a separate track for HL learners at the lower-level language courses (Beaudrie and Ducar 2005; Draper and Hicks 2000). Less than half of US colleges and universities, however, offer a separate track (Beaudrie 2012). Even when institutions offer a separate track, HL learners are still regularly grouped together with second language (L2) learners in advanced-level content courses (Henshaw and Bowles 2015). This situation presents a challenge for many instructors who are not trained in how to deal with mixed learner ( L 2 and HL ) needs in the same classroom to maximize the learning experience of all students. This essay reviews student opinions on this learning scenario, presents the main challenges for instructors addressing these views, and suggests key strategies for successfully guiding groups of mixed learners.

## 2. Background

Many institutions have created Spanish HL courses to address the linguistic needs of these learners, especially in areas with an increasing Spanish-speaking population. The rationale behind these courses is based upon both linguistic and affective factors (Colombi and Alarcón 1997; Potowski 2002; Valdés, Fishman, Chávez, and Pérez 2006). Furthermore, these courses are typically taught by trained instructors and focus on transferring HL learners' literacy skills
from English and extending linguistic repertoires. Despite these recent trends, many HL learners remain in Spanish courses designed for L2 learners who possess minimal cultural and linguistic backgrounds in Spanish (Brecht and Ingold 1998; Valdés 1995). Moreover, in these mixed learner classrooms, instructors are usually trained to teach only L2 learners. Even if they have knowledge of HL instructional methodology, they are rarely familiar with approaches to mixed classes. As a consequence, these classes are problematic for many instructors. They also present serious concerns for HL learners, as many feel that instructors make false assumptions about their linguistic competence and, consequently, have higher expectations of them (Potowski 2002).

Research on mixed learner classrooms is scarce despite the prevalence of this scenario nationally (Beaudrie 2012; Henshaw and Bowles 2015). Bowles, Adams, and Toth (2014) conducted a study on L2-HL interactions in the mixed Spanish classroom to provide empirical evidence about whether the needs of both learner groups were met. Second language learners were able to fill gaps in their L2 when negotiating meaning with HL learners, so their learning process was facilitated without the errors that would inevitably occur between L2-L2 learners. This was one of the main benefits for L2 learners. Yet, there were also disadvantages: L2 learners felt more confident when interacting with students from a similar linguistic background. Perceiving HL learners as stronger speakers, L2 speakers reported feeling intimidated. This finding can be interpreted as an oral advantage for HL learners and a challenge for L2 learners. The only benefit that Bowles et al. (2014) find for HL learners in this situation is the opportunity to extend the use of their Spanish to the classroom setting. Thus, they propose using tasks that are mutually beneficial for both L2 and HL learners (e.g., oral and written tasks). Second language learners would benefit from HL learners in oral tasks and by obtaining direct access to the target culture (Katz 2003), whereas HL learners would benefit from L2 learners by improving their writing skills and learning metalinguistic grammatical terminology. Bowles (2011) suggests that engaging in a collaborative writing task could be beneficial for both groups of learners: L2 learners could help HL learners with diacritics and spelling (orthography) while HL learners could help L2 learners in amplifying their lexical repertoire. On the other hand, in a study by Blake and Zyzik (2003) on chat-based interactions, they found that HL learners assisted L2 learners more often than the inverse. Therefore, there were greater linguistic gains for L2 learners, but HL learners also experienced important benefits in affective factors, both linguistically and in terms of cultural self-confidence. In short, the presence of HL learners provides L2 learners with cultural gains, having access to native phonology and phonetics and being able to interact with native speakers. In turn, L2 learners can help HL learners with metalinguistic knowledge and orthographic rules (Edstrom 2007; Potowski 2002).

## 3. Student Opinions on Mixed Learner Classrooms

In a study on native, HL, and L2 learner experiences within mixed learner classrooms, Edstrom (2007) reports that L2 learners experienced an overall positive impact on their listening comprehension and oral skills. They also valued having access to fluent speech and diverse dialects and cultures. It was a true immersion experience for them since they had the opportunity to interact with native speakers in a conversational register, in contrast with the standard formal setting of the classroom. On an emotional level, they perceived respect and collaboration from their native and HL peers. Lacorte and Canabal (2003) argued that L2 learners did not feel intimidated by the presence of HL learners in the classroom. Nevertheless, in Edstrom (2007), the presence of HL learners affected the desire of some L2 learners to participate in class. From the perspective of HL learners, there was a consensus in reporting positive experiences with their L2 counterparts. They felt respected, appreciated, and were happy to help them. Additionally, they learned from L2 learner insights. In conclusion, all concurred that there was a pleasant atmosphere. Even though they agreed that it was better to have different tracks at lower levels, their answers varied for upper levels of Spanish, though most were satisfied with
mixed classes. There were a few, however, who requested upper-level Spanish courses specifically for HL learners. This research suggests that our objective as instructors should be to maximize benefits for all learners.

Despite a general positive reaction, students highlighted feelings of intimidation or frustration as possible drawbacks to mixed courses. There was also an overall assumption by L2 learners that faculty expectations were higher when HL learners were present and that the pace of the course was faster. Likewise, HL learners sometimes felt that instructors had higher expectations of them (Potowski 2002). Nonetheless, in a recent survey by Bowles and Montrul (2014), it was reported that $75 \%$ of HL learners preferred taking language courses with L2 learners or did not have a preference.

Campanaro (2013) compared student opinions in mixed Spanish courses in Canada, where L2 instruction is more highly regarded than in the United States. Canada is a multicultural country where HLs are protected by the Canadian Multiculturalism Act of 1985. Consequently, differences between US and Canadian school contexts regarding the perception of the Spanish language and Spanish speakers might have an influence on student opinions on mixed classes. Campanaro's findings were positive and consistent with those of Edstrom (2007). Most L2 learners found that having HL learners in the same classroom was beneficial to their listening and oral skills, their insights, and their contributions, even though HL learner presence influenced their participation in class. Most of the HL learners were in favor of mixed classrooms and explained that they learned from their L2 counterparts. On an affective level, they felt appreciated and respected. Second language learners mentioned that they felt more comfortable working in groups since group work helped build their confidence. Both groups agreed that there were more benefits for L2 learners than HL learners regarding learning gains.

Research on the motivation for HL learners to take college language courses showed that they had a positive attitude towards the study of their language and culture but lacked confidence due to the low prestige of their Spanish dialect (Alarcón 2010; Beaudrie and Ducar 2005; Beaudrie, Ducar, and Relaño-Pastor 2009; Mikulski 2006). Thus, what HL learners expected from these courses was to improve their linguistic skills and acquire a standard dialect (Beaudrie and Ducar 2005).

## 4. Challenges for Instructors in a Mixed Classroom

After considering student opinions, we should identify challenges for instructors. As already mentioned, some students noticed that instructor expectations changed with HL learners in the classroom. Abdi (2011) conducted a study with HL learners in a high school classroom and found that one of the instructors was speaking more Spanish in class because of the presence of HL learners. This instructor admitted having considered HL learners to be native speakers, which might imply an extra burden for them considering that this could lead to creating false expectations among instructors about the students' linguistic competence by overlooking their actual linguistic status as active learners. Another potential problem could be excessively relying on HL learners for participation to the detriment of L2 students, who might not be valued for their own contributions and expertise.

One of the main challenges we face is the careful selection of classroom activities for HL learners. Though HL proficiency must be recognized, García and Blanco (2000) argue that HL learners should not be relegated to tutoring roles or be assigned as informants on culture or language, since these roles might deprive them of their own linguistic growth. Inevitably, we must differentiate instruction at times so that it does not neglect HL learners (Wilkinson 2010). Wilkinson (2010) conducted a survey on Spanish teachers in Utah with mixed classrooms, asking about special roles they designated to HL learners. The roles with highest percentages were those of native informants on language ( $64 \%$ ) and culture ( $59 \%$ ). In total, $76 \%$ of the instructors assigned HL learners to an informant role. Whether this is a good strategy might
still be debatable, especially with regard to the possible negative impact on their own linguistic growth. Instead, García and Blanco (2000) suggest that small group instruction is crucial to meet the needs of both kinds of learners.

## 5. Suggestions for Instructors to Overcome the Challenges Encountered in Mixed Classrooms: A Visionary Focus

According to the US Census Bureau, there has been a $43 \%$ increase of Hispanics in the United States from 2000 to 2010 (Humes, Jones, and Ramírez 2011). Nevertheless, only $18 \%$ of higher education institutions reported offering separate courses for HL learners in 2001 (Ingold, Rivers, Chavez Tesser, and Ashby 2002). Indeed, mixed classrooms have been the norm up to the present (Bowles and Montrul 2014; Lynch 2008). This trend suggests that mixed classrooms will continue to present challenges in the future. As educators, our visionary focus should be to overcome the challenges that diverse linguistic abilities might cause our students and make the mixed classroom the preferred pathway for the future through instructor training. This way, both L2 and HL learners can mutually benefit. We must provide sociolinguistic training for instructors, so that they can educate students on linguistic variation and help them become aware of and appreciate linguistic diversity, where no dialect is superior to another.

A visionary approach would seek out pair and small group activities that appeal to learner strengths while recognizing learner weaknesses (Henshaw and Bowles 2015). Instructors can reduce feelings of intimidation among L 2 learners by encouraging them to establish meaningful relationships with diverse students; they should guide them to maximize the positive impact of this unique situation. Tutoring opportunities, group projects, and discussions can provide support for learners of all skill levels and backgrounds without dividing the class into L2 and HL learners (Edstrom 2007). Such a visionary approach normalizes the classroom environment as it reduces the gap between L2 and HL conversational performance levels. Consequently, L2 learner anxiety is reduced while increasing their tolerance and patience. This way, they can appreciate the immersion experiences created through opportunities to learn directly from HL learners.

Supplementary materials can also be used to adapt courses to meet all student needs, specifically with regard to the development of literacy skills for HL learners (Winke and Stafford 2002). Wilkinson (2010) likewise proposes textbook accommodations so that activities could be adapted for HL learners, focusing particularly on literacy skills. Campanaro (2013) further recommends tasks that encourage peer support and assessment strategies that reward the group, not only the individual. Second language and HL learners can mutually benefit from a mixed classroom setting. In content courses, HL learners can benefit from perspectives that L2 learners share about their own culture or heritage. Regarding language, HL learners can appreciate the control that many L2 learners have over grammar, use of diacritics, and metalinguistic knowledge. On the phonetic level, contrary to the general assumption that L2 learners have a disadvantage in pronunciation, they can actually help HL learners to become facilitators of the contrastive analysis between English and Spanish. For those who would like to teach Spanish, being aware of typical L2 pronunciation errors is very useful. Opportunities for teaching and learning should also be offered through peer work.

In Valdés, Fishman, Chávez, and Pérez (2008), high school Spanish teachers of HL learners argued that many practices commonly found in the advanced L2 classroom were also useful and necessary in the heritage classroom, including individual writing and revising, peer-editing, group research, and writing projects. Instructors could implement these practices in mixed classrooms. In fact, there are even textbooks written for both L2 and HL learners, such as Palabra abierta (Colombi, Pelletieri, and Rodríguez 2000), Avanzando: Gramática española y lectura (Salazar, Arias, and de la Vega 2012), and ¡Dímelo tú! (Rodríguez, Samaniego, Nogales, and Blommers 2005).

Henshaw and Bowles (2015) suggest additional mutually beneficial activities for mixed classrooms: ethnographic interviews, dictogloss tasks, two-way crossword puzzles, translations, and phone tag activities. They also encourage class discussion topics, including stereotypes, social justice issues, bilingualism, relationships, study abroad opportunities, dialectal variation/ slang, film/art, work, and health. They recognize that choosing a teaching methodology is crucial for these students, highlighting three in particular: content-based instruction, project-based instruction, and language for special purposes. Through content-based instruction, students have access to authentic input. They can also acquire a sociolinguistic awareness of dialectal and register variation. By choosing project-based instruction (e.g., film series, translations, interviews, surveys, etc.), students serve an authentic purpose and develop an appreciation for collaboration. Finally, in a language for special purposes course (e.g., Business or Medical Spanish), both the content and purpose of the course are authentic.

## 6. Conclusions

Despite the growth of the Hispanic population across the country and the efforts made by colleges and universities to offer HL tracks for Spanish courses, most institutions still offer mixed classes, especially at an advanced level. Partially due to financial restrictions, it seems this trend will continue into the future. There are more benefits than drawbacks as a result of this learning situation. Nonetheless, instructors should work on overcoming the challenges this learning environment raises so that all learners can benefit. This could be achieved through collaborative group work, where students complement each other according to their strengths and weaknesses.

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Response 1 to "Meeting Student Needs:

# Learning for All: Addressing Issues of Access and Participation in Mixed Classes 



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Keywords: disciplinary literacy/alfabetisimo disciplinario, heritage language learners/estudiantes del idioma patrimonio, mixed classes/clases mixtas, reciprocal learning/aprendizaje recíproco

Mixed classes are the most common instructional context in which heritage language (HL) learners study Spanish. From a teaching standpoint, they are also the most challenging due to the considerable differences that exist between HL and second language (L2) learners and the scarcity of pedagogical tools for addressing these differences. Many L2 textbooks include HL annotations, but this is not enough. Specialized textbooks and methodologies are needed.

The suggestions offered by Burgo speak to two general strategies that should guide instruction and the design of pedagogical materials: 1) leveraging the complementary strengths of HL and L2 learners for reciprocal learning; and 2) addressing differences between learners that undercut teaching and learning (Carreira 2016).

In terms of complementary strengths, HL learners have strong aural skills and implicit knowledge of grammar, as well as familiarity with informal registers. Second language learners have strong writing skills and explicit knowledge of grammar, and they are most familiar with formal registers. In mixed classes, this situation can translate into two very different scenarios: it can create valuable reciprocal learning opportunities or it can get in the way of teaching and learning. The difference between these two scenarios comes down to how instructors deal with the special needs and knowledge gaps of their students.

By way of illustration, it is useful to compare the conversational performance and disciplinary literacy of HL and L2 learners. Relative to HL learners, L2 learners have special needs in the area of conversational performance, particularly with spontaneous, informal language. Disciplinary literacy refers to the knowledge base, background experiences, and skills associated with a given discipline (Moje 2008). With foreign languages, this includes knowledge of grammatical terminology and concepts, as well as familiarity with classroom routines and common pedagogical interventions. Heritage language learners have less disciplinary literacy than L2 learners because they usually enter the language learning sequence somewhere beyond the first semester of study, by which time L2 learners have developed this type of knowledge (Carreira 2016). Crucially, gaps in disciplinary literacy put HL learners at a disadvantage compared to L2 learners. To this point, Torres's (2013) study of a task-based pedagogical intervention found that L2 learners were better than HL learners at recognizing the intended purpose of the task, which in the case of this particular study was learning the subjunctive. Treating this task as an authentic situation, HL learners were not focused on its purpose.

As Burgo explains, limitations such as these can create feelings of insecurity in both types of learners and interfere with the establishment of meaningful class relationships. They can also undermine learning by preventing L2 learners from engaging in communicative activities and rendering grammar instruction inaccessible to HL learners. Countering these outcomes involves equipping each learner with the knowledge and skills they need to fully participate in and derive benefit from instruction. For L2 learners, it entails previewing and practicing the language concepts that will be required to participate in communicative activities with HL learners. For HL learners, it involves preparing them to follow grammar explanations in order to benefit from form-focused activities. These kinds of interventions are best addressed in homogeneous (HLonly and L2-only) groups and should be conceived of as creating the conditions for reciprocal learning and addressing issues that undercut learning for each type of learner.

As a final point, staying focused on the big ideas behind instruction is always important, but it is all the more so in mixed classes, where the day-to-day challenges can loom large. Big ideas answer essential questions such as: Why exactly are we teaching this? What do we want our students to understand and be able to do five years from now? (Tomlinson and McTighe 2006: 32). Orienting instruction around the big ideas extends the horizon of learning beyond any instructional unit or course and directs the gaze to promoting long-term learning for all learners. With this overarching perspective, instruction can proceed along the lines proposed—namely, supporting reciprocal learning and equipping learners to benefit from all instructional activities.

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Response 2 to "Meeting Student Needs:

# Community Engagement Pedagogy: A Tool to Empower Heritage Language and Second Language Integration 



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Keywords: community-engaged learning/aprendizaje en la comunidad, heritage learners/estudiantes de herencia, intercultural interaction/interacciones interculturales, L2 classroom/salón de clase de segunda lengua, mixed learners/estudiantes mixtos, peer interaction/interacciones entre compañeros

The article "Meeting Student Needs: Integrating Spanish Heritage Language Learners into the Second Language Classroom" confirms that, despite the challenges to the instructor, combining university heritage language (HL) and second language (L2) learners in the same classroom offers excellent pedagogical opportunities for both groups. In order to increase the outcomes, the article suggests that the instructor create a collaborative environment by employing a pedagogy based on group/pair activities, which allows L2 and HL students to learn from each other. However, the article cautions that HL learners "should not be relegated to tutoring roles or informants on culture or language," which decreases HL learning opportunities and intimates an uneven hierarchy between students. Thus, ideal learning conditions are contingent upon the organization and structure of group work (Postholm 2008). Fushino (2010) explains that student learning in a group environment is rather unpredictable unless structured guidance is in place. Therefore, Chiriac and Granström (2012) point to the importance of educational leadership and classroom management in designing group work activities. Moreover, Johnson and Johnson (1999) underscore that "placing socially unskilled students in a group and telling them to cooperate does not guarantee that they are able to do so effectively" (82). This rejoinder proposes that community engaged (CE) learning projects are an option that enables students to work cooperatively towards accomplishing a relevant goal. Community engagement encourages individual accountability and positive interdependence in a group setting. Moreover, CE projects also provide homogeneous L2 classrooms with some of the heterogeneity available in mixed classrooms.

Heritage learner populations are increasing in most US universities, but this trend does not account for all institutions. Instructors in L2-dominant classrooms need to be resourceful if they want their students to obtain the benefits of the mixed classroom setting. CE learning projects that foster interaction between L2 learners and native speakers provide a viable option that promotes similar linguistic, cultural, and affective gains to those described in mixed classes. This pedagogy "places the student in an active role . . . promoting the use of the target language in a real-life context" (Caldwell 2007: 465). A project conducted in Pittsburgh by Osa-Melero and

Fernández forged a relationship between primarily upper-middle-class, Caucasian, university students and Mexican and Central American children, ages 5-8, who recently migrated to the city. This CE project enhanced L2 cultural sensitivity, linguistic proficiency, and literary knowledge while assisting newly arrived young Hispanic immigrants to integrate into their new community. Second language learners enrolled in upper-level Spanish language and literature courses worked cooperatively to develop a three-week program on Mexican history and culture for children enrolled in the Casa San José after-school program. They adapted authentic literary pieces in Spanish, such as Mexican Rodolfo Usigli's play Corona de sombra (1943), into dramatic scripts for the children to perform. Writing the scripts helped L2 learners develop their language skills with a purpose that transcended earning a grade. In addition, these culturally rich texts proved meaningful to the children and their families. Benefits for the children included: 1) exposure to Ll and their native culture in an academic setting and 2) personal growth through mentoring relationships with college students. Likewise, L2 learners reported gains in 1) oral, writing, and summarizing skills, and a nuanced appreciation of Hispanic culture; and 2) personal growth, as students reported working with Hispanic communities as one of their future career goals. Transforming group work practices through cooperative strategies following Johnson and Johnson's (1999) guidelines is a first step in eliminating hierarchies in the classroom and the community. Therefore, cooperative CE projects diminish the risk of uneven work dynamics and implicit hierarchies between students and the community.

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# The Impact of Portuguese on the Study of Third Language Acquisition 



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#### Abstract

Over the last several years, we have been witness to a growing body of work that examines the acquisition of Portuguese as a third language (L3). Here in the United States, Spanish speakers account for $45 \%$ of students enrolled in Portuguese classes (Milleret 2012), divided among first language (L1) Spanish speakers, second language (L2) Spanish speakers, and heritage speakers. While these three groups are all speakers of English and Spanish, they differ with respect to the order and context of acquisition of the two languages. In this essay, I propose that access to these three linguistic profiles in Portuguese classes offers a unique opportunity for us to study third language acquisition here in the United States that arguably has not been afforded elsewhere. In L3 acquisition research, a primary interest is in the differences in acquisition processes when comparing learners with a mirror image language pairing (in this case, L1 English/L2 Spanish compared with L1 Spanish/L2 English). More recently, we have also begun to examine how mirror-image groups of sequential bilinguals compare with early bilinguals (in this case, heritage speakers of Spanish). Herein, I review research questions that drive the field and illustrate how we have addressed these questions via examination of L3 Portuguese acquisition.


Keywords: bilingualism/bilinguismo, crosslinguistic influence/influência translinguística, Portuguese/ português, second language acquisition/aquisição de segunda língua, third language acquisition/ aquisição de terceira língua

## 1. Introduction

The study of third language (L3) acquisition, while still a nascent field, has seen an appreciable uptick in attention over the last decade and a half. Multilingualism in the world is the rule and not the exception, as evidenced by an estimated 7,097 languages (Lewis, Simons, and Fennig 2016) distributed among fewer than 200 countries. As Gorter et al. note, this "spread of multilingualism justifies its importance in research" (5). Moreover, it has generally become accepted that the study of L3 acquisition can uniquely inform larger questions of language acquisition that we cannot answer via first language (L1) or second language (L2) acquisition alone. With that said, the majority of research in linguistic approaches to multilingualism has been primarily limited to a European context (see e.g., Rothman, Cabrelli Amaro, and de Bot 2013, for a review). Until very recently, contributions to the study of third language acquisition originating from research conducted in the United States has been minimal, and research from scholars in US universities has primarily focused on the acquisition of English as a third language in European and Asian contexts (see e.g., Flynn, Foley, and Vinnitskaya 2004; Sanz 2000). However, over the last several years we have been witness to a growing body of work that examines the acquisition of Portuguese as an L3 here in the United States. As Milleret (2014) notes, the study of Portuguese is at its "healthiest and most promising point in its history to date" (18), with more than 11,000 students enrolled in post-secondary Portuguese courses between 2006 and 2009 (Furman, Goldberg, and Lusin 2009). She attributes the interest of Spanish speakers as a primary factor responsible for the health of Portuguese language study.

In fact, based on survey data from Milleret (2012), Spanish speakers account for $45 \%$ of students enrolled in Portuguese classes. Of these $45 \%$, L1 Spanish speakers account for $13 \%$, heritage Spanish speakers account for $15 \%$, and L2 Spanish speakers account for $17 \%$. While these three groups are all speakers of English and Spanish, they differ from one another with respect to the order and context of acquisition of the two languages.

In this essay, I propose that access to these three linguistic profiles in Portuguese classes offers a unique opportunity for us to study third language acquisition here in the United States that arguably has not been afforded elsewhere. In L3 acquisition research, one of our primary interests is in the differences in acquisition processes when comparing learners with a mirror image language pairing (in this case, L1 English/L2 Spanish compared with L1 Spanish/L2 English). More recently, we have also begun to examine how mirror-image groups of sequential bilinguals compare with early bilinguals (in this case, heritage speakers of Spanish). Herein, I review a set of research questions that currently drive the field and illustrate how we have addressed these questions thus far via examination of L3 Portuguese acquisition in a US context. I then posit how our understanding of these questions can expand moving forward, calling specifically for large-scale longitudinal studies and collaboration across institutions and study abroad programs.

## 2. Evidence of L2 Ultimate Attainment and a Bilingual Advantage in L3 Acquisition

The question of whether learners are able to acquire properties of an L2 that are not part of the L1 is a core issue in the study of adult language acquisition, and L3 research has shed new light on this question. In studies such as Cabrelli Amaro, Iverson, and Judy (2009) and Iverson (2009, 2010), the study of L3 acquisition at the initial stages has been used as a litmus test to tease apart competing hypotheses that claim that certain grammatical features can(not) be acquired after a so-called critical period. The aforementioned studies examine the initial state of Portuguese in L1 English/L2 Portuguese learners versus L1 English/L2 Spanish/L3 Portuguese learners, with a focus on morphosyntactic properties (e.g., grammatical gender) that are common to Spanish and Portuguese but are not a part of the English grammar. Research of this type has been possible in US universities because, in addition to the $45 \%$ of Portuguese students that speak Spanish, $16 \%$ of Portuguese students are English monolinguals (Milleret 2012). Cabrelli Amaro et al. $(2009)$ and Iverson $(2009,2010)$ all show that the L2 Portuguese groups do not have knowledge of the relevant properties, while the L3 Portuguese groups do. They conclude that the relevant properties that are not part of English must be acquirable in adulthood since the source of their appearance in L3 Portuguese at the onset of acquisition could only be traced back to the learners' L2 (Spanish). This type of evidence also brings new insight to the common question of whether bilinguals are better equipped than monolinguals for subsequent language acquisition, at least in terms of the facilitation of specific linguistic experience. Of course, transfer is not always facilitative, and non-facilitative transfer can potentially lead to early fossilization (see e.g. Simões, Carvalho, and Wiedemann 2004). I address this further in the discussion of the role of the language transferred (L1 or L2) in L3 development.

## 3. Source(s) of Transfer in L3 Acquisition at the Initial Stages

In the previous section, I report on evidence of Spanish transfer to L3 Portuguese by L1 English/L2 Spanish/L3 Portuguese learners. The source of transfer in L3 acquisition is by far the most commonly researched question, particularly in the generative tradition (see e.g., GarcíaMayo and Rothman 2012, for a review). Its value lies in how it affords the chance to tap into how and why previously acquired linguistic knowledge constricts acquisition of a novel language. While in L2 acquisition there is only one possible transfer source, there are two possible sources in L3 acquisition. By identifying the source of transfer at the initial stages of L3 acquisition, we
can begin to disentangle the numerous factors that contribute to the complex and dynamic nature of transfer. A number of factors have been posited to be the determining variable in L3 initial stages transfer. These include a privileged status 1) for the L1 given its entrenchment (The L1 Transfer Scenario; see, for example, Hermas 2014); and 2) for the L2 due to the similarity in which an L2 and L3 are acquired (The L2 Status Factor; see, for example, Bardel and Falk 2007). Rothman's Typological Primacy Model (TPM; see, for example, Rothman 2015) assumes that the source language is that which is determined by the linguistic parser to be structurally more similar to the L3. While these three proposals assume that one linguistic system is transferred in its entirety, the Cumulative Enhancement Model (Flynn, Foley, and Vinnitskaya 2004) claims that the source of transfer can be from any existing system. Transfer happens in a piecemeal fashion and is predicted to only be facilitative. If there is no facilitative source available, transfer will not occur.

In the last several years, a series of studies of different profiles of English/Spanish bilinguals acquiring L3 Portuguese has been published, the majority of which supports Rothman's TPM. This is especially true for the domain of morphosyntax. That is, regardless of whether the learners are L1 Spanish speakers, L2 Spanish speakers, or heritage speakers of Spanish, there is evidence of transfer of the Spanish system. This has been found for word order and relative clause attachment preferences (Rothman 2010), object expression (Giancaspro, Halloran, and Iverson 2014; Montrul, Dias, and Santos 2011), adjective placement (Rothman 2011), and raising phenomena (Cabrelli Amaro, Amaro, and Rothman 2015). Considerably less evidence is available for phonology, although Cabrelli Amaro and Rothman (2010) present evidence of Spanish transfer to Portuguese by two heritage speakers and two adult L2 Spanish learners. Preliminary results from a study by Cabrelli Amaro and Pichan (in preparation) largely support these earlier findings, this time with respect to intervocalic stop realization and vowel contrasts in speech production. In spite of the more uniform evidence we have from the domains of syntax and phonology, research from Koike and colleagues suggests that transfer of linguistic patterns to L3 Portuguese that are impacted by sociocultural norms may come from the L1. For example, Koike and Flanzer (2004) found that heritage Spanish speakers implemented Brazilian-like speech acts more than L1 English speakers in written Portuguese, citing commonalities between speech acts in Spanish- and Brazilian Portuguese-speaking communities. However, an examination of oral data using the same data collection instrument (Koike and Palmiere 2011) revealed that there was no clear-cut source of transfer, with only one pragmatic context showing clear transfer from the L1. Additional research is needed to determine the strength of Ringbom's (1986) hypothesis that L2 transfer is form-related, while meaning-related transfer will originate from the L1 (i.e., the learner's dominant language).

## 4. L3 Development

Given how young the field of third language acquisition is, it is not surprising that much of what we have available to us concerns the initial stages of acquisition, with less research dedicated to development. This could also have to do with the fact that advanced Portuguese courses are not particularly common in the United States, which makes it harder to get data from larger groups at very high levels of proficiency. That said, this is a question of interest to us for a number of reasons, two of which I address here: the role of the language transferred, and the phenomenon of regressive transfer.

### 4.1 The Role of the Language Transferred in L3 Development

Let us consider that initial stages research has shown that in the case of English/Spanish bilinguals acquiring Portuguese, Spanish is most likely to transfer (and according to the TPM, it is assumed to transfer in its entirety). When full transfer occurs, we know that there will be
facilitative transfer as well as non-facilitative transfer. The learning task is then of course to overcome non-facilitative transfer, which, as is the case in L2 acquisition, can be persistent (see e.g., Carvalho and da Silva, 2006 and Montrul et al. 2011 for evidence of Spanish influence in intermediate Portuguese speakers). A newer line of research examines L3 development to better understand what overcoming transfer looks like for the different bilingual profiles that I discuss here. Cabrelli Amaro and Rothman (2010) hypothesized that non-facilitative transfer in L3 Portuguese might be easier to overcome depending on whether Spanish was acquired in childhood or adulthood. While Hermas (2014) and Slabakova and García-Mayo (2015) have shown that non-facilitative transfer can be overcome in L3 acquisition, it was not known how mirror image groups would compare developmentally after initial non-facilitative transfer. Specifically, it was proposed that L1 Spanish learners take longer than L2 Spanish learners to acquire a property in Portuguese because of L1 versus L2 experience. The length of experience with the L1 is thought to (at least temporarily) impede the mechanisms that drive acquisition. Evidence to support this hypothesis has been found for morphosyntactic elements as well as for reaction time in phonological processing. Cabrelli Amaro, Iverson, Giancaspro, and Halloran (forthcoming) investigated the status of differential object marking in L3 Portuguese, and found that initial stages Portuguese learners still rely on Spanish regardless of whether Spanish is the L1 or L2. However, the L2 Spanish advanced Portuguese learners pattern with the native Portuguese control group while the L1 Spanish advanced Portuguese learners pattern with the initial stages Portuguese learners. In a study of raising across a dative experiencer, Cabrelli Amaro (2015) compares initial stages data from Cabrelli Amaro et al. (2015a) with data from advanced Portuguese learners. Similarly to Cabrelli Amaro et al. (2016), the cross-sectional comparison reveals that the advanced L1 Spanish group is different than the native Portuguese control and the L2 Spanish group, while the L2 Spanish group is not different than the control. In spite of this difference, a comparison of the L1 Spanish initial stages and advanced data reveals a significant difference, which is indicative of progression towards the Portuguese target (albeit at a slower pace than the L2 Spanish group). Finally, Cabrelli Amaro (2015b) presents a similar finding in a study of word-final vowel reduction. While there was no difference found between L1 Spanish and L2 Spanish advanced learners of Portuguese in terms of accuracy in an auditory preference task, L2 Spanish learners selected accurate responses significantly faster than L1 Spanish learners. Taken together, these studies indicate that development of mental representation and processing routines may be slower for learners that transfer their L1.

The studies discussed in this section center on differential rates of acquisition driven by age of acquisition and dominance, and assume that the processes involved are unconscious rather than metalinguistic. However, whether learners acquire Spanish in a classroom or naturalistic context may correlate with rate of L3 acquisition. L2 Spanish speakers have been found to count on explicit learning strategies in the L3 Portuguese classroom, while L1 Spanish and heritage Spanish speakers favor implicit strategies (Carvalho and Silva 2006; Child 2017). It would appear that higher metalinguistic awareness helps L2 Spanish learners to overcome non-facilitative surface transfer more quickly (e.g., Johnson 2004) and to capitalize on facilitative transfer of rule-based strategies (e.g., Child 2014). This difference is indicative of the strength of Spanish transfer in L3 Portuguese; these L1 Spanish learners have acquired some of their L2 English in a formal context, but continue to rely on implicit strategies even though they have presumably made use of explicit strategies at some point in the acquisition of their L2.

### 4.2 Regressive Transfer

Just as existing linguistic systems influence the acquisition of a novel system (in this case, an L3), an L3 can also influence the L1 and L2. The phenomenon of Portuguese regressive transfer to the L1 and/or L2 has been investigated in terms of facilitative and non-facilitative transfer, and evidence of regressive transfer has been found in both systems at varying levels of L3 proficiency.

In his study of mood expression, Child (2014) found that data from L2 Spanish learners acquiring L3 Portuguese, unlike those of their L1 Spanish and heritage speaker counterparts, yielded higher rates of accuracy on a Portuguese task taken after 10 weeks of instruction than the Spanish task that they completed at the L3 initial state. Based on this finding, it is possible to speculate that this learner group's Spanish accuracy score would improve if they were to have completed a Spanish post-test at the 10 -week mark. Such an outcome would bolster findings with different language pairings comparing L2 and L3 learners (e.g., Tsang 2015), and points to the possibility that L 3 acquisition modulates non-facilitative L1 to L2 transfer. Cabrelli Amaro (2016) focused on non-facilitative regressive transfer and compared two types of English/ Spanish bilinguals acquiring L3 Portuguese to determine whether L1 or L2 Spanish systems are more vulnerable to L3 influence, that is, whether the constitution of phonological systems acquired in adulthood is less stable than systems acquired in adulthood. Perceptual preferences appeared to remain stable for L1 and L2 Spanish learners. At the individual level, she found evidence of L3 Portuguese reduced vowels in the Spanish productions of L1 Spanish and L2 Spanish speakers at intermediate and advanced levels of proficiency. This is not surprising, given the extensive literature on phonetic/phonological attrition. However, looking at the aggregate means, only the L2 Spanish group produced vowels that were not Spanish-like, evidence of greater instability in speech production patterns in late-acquired systems. Similar findings come from Cabrelli Amaro's (2017) study of raising across a dative experiencer. Testing many of the same learners from Cabrelli Amaro (2016), she shows that L2 Spanish speakers are more accepting of structures that are ungrammatical in Spanish (but grammatical in Portuguese) than L1 Spanish speakers. Thus, while there might be a direct benefit to a previously fossilized L2 in the case of elements that are similar in Spanish and Portuguese but different in English, L2 Spanish speakers might be expected to struggle more to maintain their late-acquired Spanish system than their L1 Spanish counterparts. It remains to be seen how heritage speakers' speech production is affected and the role that Spanish dominance might play in differential stability of the Spanish system.

## 5. Moving Forward via Longitudinal Investigation

Although I would argue that the evidence regarding initial stages transfer is quite convincing for the language triad discussed herein, there is still a lot of ground to cover in order to have a holistic view of the processes that comprise third language acquisition. Via longitudinal investigation, we can cover a lot of this ground and improve upon methodological shortcomings while doing so.

Existing developmental data come from a cross-section of learners. While cross-sectional data are logistically more feasible to collect than longitudinal data, cross-sectional data are less than ideal in third language acquisition research. Even when we control our participant pools so that they are as similar as possible across proficiency levels (and across studies), inter-learner variation is virtually impossible to control for. Relatedly, we face the challenge of establishing the composition of each learner's L3 initial state; if we want to have a better picture of the L3 developmental path, we need to know what each learner's L1 and L2 looked like prior to Portuguese exposure. In studies such as Cabrelli Amaro (2016) and Cabrelli Amaro et al. (2015), the authors assume that the L3 learners had acquired the structures under investigation in both their L1 and L2. This assumption is based on independent L3 initial stages data; the intermediate and advanced L3 learners that are tested are not the same learners as the L3 initial stages learners that they are compared to. It is therefore possible that some of the intermediate or advanced learners had not acquired the structure in the L2, or perhaps that the structure in their L1 has undergone modification due to L2 influence. Many of the L3 studies discussed in this essay were designed so that the phenomenon that is tested presents similarly in Portuguese and English but differently in Spanish. Thus, if an intermediate or advanced L2 Spanish learner appears to
have converged on the Portuguese target, it is possible that the learner transferred Spanish, but that they had never acquired the phenomenon under investigation (thereby relying on English). Cabrelli Amaro (2013) warns of this in her report of a longitudinal L3 case study. She follows a near-native L2 Spanish speaker, collecting Spanish data at the L3 initial state before exposure to Portuguese. She finds that prior to exposure, the speaker had only partially converged on the Spanish vocalic target even though he met the global criteria to be considered a near-native speaker. We therefore cannot assume that learners that are considered near-native have all of the same linguistic patterns as a native speaker or even a separate group of initial stages L3 learners. In a longitudinal investigation, we can use each learner as his or her own control. We can follow them from the onset of L3 acquisition throughout development towards L3 target-like convergence, and we can observe potential regressive transfer to the L1 and/or L2. We can examine each of the questions outlined in this essay for individual learners and present a holistic account of what L3 acquisition looks like for learners from each of the three profiles. Another benefit of longitudinal investigation is that we are not limited to examining near-native speakers of the L2 (or non-dominant language, in the case of most heritage speakers). We can examine the effect of proficiency in transfer patterns and determine whether learners must acquire a specific level of proficiency in order for transfer to occur, whether L3 competence is affected by proficiency in existing languages, and whether less-developed systems will be more susceptible to regressive influence than systems that are native-like. None of these questions have been investigated for the language triad described here.

## 6. Conclusion

In this first part of the twenty-first century, the investigation of L3 Portuguese has made a valuable contribution to the theoretical and empirical foundations of third language acquisition. We have begun to understand how English-Spanish bilinguals (differentially) employ their existing linguistic systems when learning Portuguese, and how Portuguese (differentially) interacts with these learners' English and Spanish systems. The potential to improve upon this mark is very high, but there is no doubt that the call made here for large-scale longitudinal research is a tall order. To realize the goal of modeling L3 development, collaboration between institutions will be paramount. Specifically, joint efforts between programs that offer a Portuguese minor or major (typically doctoral institutions, as noted by Milleret 2012) will allow us to follow students across multiple semesters of study. In addition, we can work with university-affiliated and private study abroad programs in Brazil and stateside immersion programs such as the Portuguese School at Middlebury College to observe learners over time in different contexts of acquisition, comparing the interaction of linguistic systems in a classroom versus immersion setting. We can also follow learners between settings. For example, we can examine learners in an immersion setting and then determine how persistent any observed Portuguese effects on existing systems are once the learner leaves the immersion setting. It will be of interest to follow learners like these more closely to determine the rate at which influence decreases, as well as the rate at which the L3 attrites (see Bardovi-Harlig and Stringer 2010, for a review of attrition of languages acquired in adulthood).

Ultimately, a clearer understanding of the nature of transfer to an L3 and L3 developmental patterns will have direct implications for Portuguese classroom practice. The more we understand about the nature of the existing knowledge that learners rely on and how the learners' Spanish and Portuguese systems interact throughout development, the more efficient and effective our curricula can be. While we have seen evidence of common threads in the three learner profiles, we also see a number of differences that indicate a need for differentiated instruction in order to accommodate late sequential and early bilinguals that share the same classroom. Innovations in
pedagogical practices will in turn inform the questions of L3 acquisition that I have elaborated on herein, propelling a valuable reciprocal relationship that will advance the field.

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Response 1 to "The Impact of Portuguese on the Study of Third Language Acquisition"

## Pedagogical Implications of Research on the Acquisition of Portuguese as a Third Language



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Keywords: bilingualism/bilinguismo, differentiated instruction/instrução diferenciada, pedagogy/pedagogia, Portuguese/português, Spanish/espanhol, third language acquisition/aquisição de terceira língua

Without question, the presence in Portuguese classes of a large number of Spanish speakers offers a fruitful field for research on L3 acquisition. From an applied linguistics perspective, this research suggests important implications for the teaching of Portuguese to Spanish speakers, as briefly discussed by Jennifer Cabrelli Amaro in the last paragraph of her essay. I would like to expand on that discussion by focusing on several specific research findings mentioned by Cabrelli Amaro and their implications for the teaching of Portuguese to speakers of Spanish.

## Offer Separate Portuguese Courses for Spanish Speakers

The most obvious pedagogical implication of research on L3 acquisition of Portuguese is that Spanish speakers benefit from Portuguese classes that are tailored to their needs. Cabrelli Amaro cites research suggesting that bilinguals are better equipped than monolinguals for subsequent language acquisition, and that L3 learners of Portuguese are able to transfer morphosyntactic properties of Spanish. These findings lend empirical support to the popular knowledge that Spanish speakers learn Portuguese more quickly and efficiently than do monolingual English speakers. In light of this evidence, it stands to reason that Spanish speakers merit separate Portuguese classes and curriculum.

Unfortunately, the majority of institutions that offer Portuguese programs do not yet offer separate courses for Spanish speakers, despite the fact that these students comprise $45 \%$ or more of enrollments in Portuguese courses. In a survey of Portuguese programs in the United States, of 107 institutions that completed the survey, only 50 offered separate beginning-level Portuguese courses for Spanish speakers, and only 24 offered intermediate-level courses for these students (see Bateman 2014).

## Adopt a Contrastive Approach

Bateman's (2014) study also found that most textbooks used for teaching Portuguese to Spanish speakers in the United States are designed for monolingual speakers of English. Spanish speakers using these materials are left on their own to develop mental representations of the similarities and differences between Portuguese and Spanish, which the three groups of Spanish speakers-L1 speakers, L2 speakers, and heritage speakers-may not be equally equipped to do.

Cabrelli Amaro cites multiple studies suggesting that L1 and heritage speakers of Spanish take longer to overcome non-facilitative transfer when learning Portuguese than do learn-ers who acquired Spanish as adults. Conversely, L2 learners of Spanish seem to suffer more from regressive transfer from Portuguese, making it more difficult for them to maintain their late-acquired Spanish system. I would suggest that all three groups of learners could benefit from an approach that explicitly compares and contrasts the morphosyntactic, lexical, and phonological elements of the two languages.

Although the value of contrastive analysis has been debated by linguists, such an approach appears to benefit Spanish speakers learning Portuguese. For example, in a survey of 72 students enrolled in a Spanish for Portuguese speakers course, Child (2013) found that all three groups of students wanted more time devoted to grammar and pronunciation, with explicit attention to both similarities and differences between the two languages. Child suggests that this type of contrastive approach can build metalinguistic awareness that helps learners overcome non-facilitative transfer.

## Teach Language Learning Strategies

A related issue is students' use of language learning strategies. According to studies summarized by Cabrelli Amaro, L2 Spanish speakers appear to possess a greater degree of metalinguistic awareness than do L1 and heritage speakers of Spanish, allowing them to make greater explicit use of strategies for learning Portuguese. Native Spanish speakers, and especially heritage speakers who may have never formally studied either Spanish or English, may benefit from instruction on language learning strategies. Such instruction may help these learners to capitalize on facilitative transfer from Spanish and to overcome non-facilitative transfer.

## Teach Sociocultural Aspects of Language

As Cabrelli Amaro points out, research demonstrating that heritage Spanish speakers implement Brazilian-like speech acts more than L1 English speakers do suggests that transfer of linguistic patterns that are impacted by sociocultural norms may come from the L1. It stands to reason, then, that L1 Spanish speakers may benefit from Portuguese instruction linking language with its sociocultural context.

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# The Prospects for Portuguese for Spanish Speakers: Potentializing Multicompetence 

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Keywords: multicompetence/multicompetência, Portuguese/português, Portuguese for Spanish speakers/ português para falantes de espanhol, third language acquisition/aquisição de uma terceira língua, trilingualism/trilinguismo

How much have we progressed in the area of Portuguese for Spanish speakers (PSS) in the United States? The essay provides a thorough examination of previous research, raising issues of linguistic multicompetence also relevant to the field of third language acquisition (TLA). It dialogues with other research being done in Europe and elsewhere (see Aronin and Hufeisen 2009: 4; Cenoz, Hufeisen, and Jessner 2001: 2-3; De Angelis 2007: 10; Lindqvist and Bardel 2010: 87; Ó Laoire 2005: 82, and the role of language transfer in the learning process. PSS in the United States exists since the 1970s, gaining increased attention in the United States in the last decade with the support of associations such as AATSP and ACTFL, and conferences specifically tailored to the field (Carvalho 2013: 1).

The author of the article proposes this particular context in the United States as a unique research setting where we encounter Spanish bilinguals, Spanish heritage learners, and Englishspeakers who learned Spanish as an L2. Rather than focusing on language teaching, the article successfully summarizes main acquisition theories, such as the role of interlanguage transfer, typology, recency, and proficiency of the L1 and L2 as factors that impact L3 learning, and consequently useful to PSS. Also relevant is the order and age of acquisition of the second and third language, as well as the role of metalinguistic awareness to their L3 learning process.

As we know, transfer is a prominent question guiding current research in both TLA and PSS, and a better understanding of the process will allow us to design programs that capitalize on the strengths and address weaknesses of learning a similar language appropriately (Åkerberg 2002: $1-2$ ). I am glad to see a growing concern with this developing field, thus creating this discussion on how to implement a curriculum tailored appropriately to this subgroup of students.

Our main concern when discussing the teaching of similar languages should be on the attention given to form in a contextualized manner, in order to address negative and positive transfer (which is not completely addressed in TLA or SLAT in general) (Carvalho, Luna Freire, and Silva 2010: 73). We need to understand these processes in order to better prepare courses, focusing on language that is relevant to their linguistic background and helping students overcome interlanguage faster. This is particularly visible when the author discusses the need for collaboration for a large-scale longitudinal research, and for more dialogue about the impact of pedagogical practices and L3 acquisition.

Ultimately, the repercussions of this research will create a better understanding of the learners' acquisition processes, and improved pedagogical practices, including for the learning of other

Romance languages. The need to study subsequent language development is evident, and how these theories impacts high intermediate and advanced students (Cabrelli Amaro, Flynn, and Rothman 2012:5) because, as mentioned by the author, most of the research currently available is being done at the beginner levels.

Other concerns, perhaps not mentioned but of equal importance is the maintenance of such an enrolment growth that we have recently experienced in the United States, thinking of program development as we worry about the shrinking numbers in the humanities in general. Would other possibilities exist to collaborate with different departments to become more visible and stronger, and thus continue to boost our presence in academic institutions? Also, how do we capitalize on these Spanish-speaking students and motivate them to add a third language to their linguistic repertoire?

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# Study Abroad, Immigration, and Voseo in the Twenty-First-Century Classroom 



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#### Abstract

Although millions of speakers of Spanish employ voseo, the twentieth century did not see a single article published in Hispania that suggested incorporating instruction on voseo into the language classroom. In contrast, the twenty-first century has already seen three articles published in Hispania that have suggested teaching voseo. At the same time, trends in study abroad and immigration are increasing links between the United States and three voseante nations. This essay investigates the field's evolving treatment of voseo, with a special focus on Hispania's first 100 years, and argues for the need to incorporate voseo into the twenty-first-century classroom.


Keywords: Argentina, Costa Rica, El Salvador, study abroad/estudiar en el extranjero, teaching Spanish as a foreign language/enseñanza de español como lengua extranjera, teaching Spanish as a heritage language/ enseñanza de español como lengua de herencia, vos, voseo

## Introduction

In the inaugural issue of Hispania, the journal's founding editor states that Hispania's mission is to improve the teaching of Spanish in schools, colleges, and universities. He adds that it is imperative that future teachers of Spanish have "a complete and sympathetic understanding of the history and culture of Spain and Spanish America" (Espinoza 1917: 19). Despite estimates from the first half of the twentieth century that voseo (use of the second person singular pronoun vos and corresponding verb forms in familiar address) was present in two-thirds of Spanishspeaking America (Capdevila 1940) and used by approximately half of Latin American speakers of Spanish (Kany 1945), it would be more than two decades after Hispania's debut before Hilton (1938) would publish the first article in the journal to acknowledge the existence of voseo. It would be another eleven years before Mallo (1949) published the first article in Hispania to note the absence of voseo in foreign language curricula. Although stopping short of proposing that voseo be taught, Mallo criticizes the field for believing that voseo is "una modalidad lingüística de calidad inferior" (41). The following year, Hispania published Lechuga's (1950) scathing critique of voseo, in which he describes correctly many of the vos verb forms and their distribution, but labels them an "abominable corrupción" (116). Thirteen years later, in the fiftieth anniversary issue of Hispania, Canfield (1967) acknowledged the work of linguists who had persisted against the belief that "millions of Latin Americans spoke a 'bad sort' of Spanish" (912). In so doing, he cites the countries and regions in which voseo is reported and provides examples of vos morphology in a descriptive, rather than a prescriptive manner.

Arguments against teaching voseo include the notion that observed sociolinguistic and morphological variation make this form of address too complicated to teach. However, this justification may seem less convincing if one delves deeper into the types and distribution of voseo and considers how they relate to emerging trends in study abroad and immigration. Before doing so, the following section considers briefly the history of voseo.

## History of Voseo

The second person singular pronouns tú and vos are known to have existed in Spanish since Medieval times (Fontanella de Weinberg 1977), yet the use of vos has undergone significant change, as has the vos paradigm. Having been used for centuries as the pronoun of respect, it was during the sixteenth century that vos began to take hold in Spain as a pronoun of familiarity and solidarity (Benavides 2003; Fontanella de Weinberg). By the end of the eighteenth century, tú had prevailed as the pronoun of familiar address in Spain and in parts of Latin America that maintained closer contact with the Peninsula. In contrast, vos prevailed in areas of Latin America that were more economically, politically, and culturally isolated from Spain and the power centers of Mexico and Lima, such as Central America and the River Plate region (Benavides).

Although aspects of the vos and vosotros paradigms were identical at the beginning of the colonial period, vos ultimately took on many characteristics of the tú paradigm. For example, the pronoun os has been replaced with $t e$, and the possessives vuestro(a) and vuestros(as) have been replaced with $t u(s)$, tuyo(a) and tuyos(as) in all voseante regions (Fontanella de Weinberg 1977; Lipski 1994). Despite this convergence, differences emerged in the verbal paradigm, which are discussed in the following section.

## Types and Distribution of Voseo

Rona (1967) was the first to propose three types of voseo: those in which verbs marked present indicative are diphthongized, those in which they are monophthongized, and Chilean voseo. Diphthongized vos forms, such as vos habláis and vos tenéis, which were in wide use in Spain at the beginning of the colonial period (Carricaburo 1997), are reported to remain the norm in Western Panama (Quilis and Graell Staizola 1989) and Zulia State, Venezuela (Páez Urdaneta 1981). Páez Urdaneta, Lipski (1994), and Benavides (2003) maintain Rona’s assertion that Chilean voseo constitutes its own category and further differentiate between two types of voseo: regional and national. In countries with regional voseo, such as Panama and Venezuela, tuteo is the dominant form of familiar address. In contrast, national voseo refers to countries in which voseo is more prevalent than tuteo nationwide (or in the majority of the nation) and across many segments of society.

Eight countries are reported to have national voseo: five in Central America (Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua), and three in South America (Argentina, Paraguay, and Uruguay). According to Ethnologue (Lewis, Simons, and Fennig 2015), the L1 Spanish population of these eight countries totals $65,955,000$. Crucially, all eight nations employ monophthongized present indicative vos forms. Examples of how these and other vos forms differ from tú forms are considered in the following section.

## Differences in Verb Morphology for Tú and Vos

Salient differences exist between the tuteo and national voseo paradigms for present indicative and imperative forms. Table 1 illustrates these differences with regular verbs across the three verb classes.

Note that in all cases, vos forms are stressed on the final syllable, whereas tú forms are not. In addition, whereas regular present indicative tú forms employ the morpheme -es with both -er and -ir verbs, vos forms distinguish between these verb classes, employing -és and -ís, respectively. Similarly, whereas regular tú imperative forms employ the suffix -e with both $-e r$ and $-i r$ verbs, vos conjugations also maintain a distinction between these verb classes: -é with -er verbs, and -í with -ir verbs.

Another salient difference across the paradigms is that, unlike many tú forms, vos conjugations do not undergo a stem-change. Table 2 illustrates this difference with present indicative

Table 1. Present indicative and imperative forms with regular verbs

|  |  | Present Indicative |  |  | Imperative |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  | Verb Classes | Infinitive | Tú | Vos |  | Tú |

Table 2. Present indicative and imperative forms with stem-changing verbs

| Stem-change | Infinitive | Present Indicative |  | Imperative |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Tú | Vos | Tú | Vos |
| $e \rightarrow i e$ | cerrar | cierras | cerrás | cierra | cerrá |
| $o \rightarrow$ ue | volver | vuelves | volvés | vuelve | volvé |
| $e \rightarrow i$ | pedir | pides | pedis | pide | pedí |

and imperative forms across three types of stem-changing verbs. In addition to the absence of a stem-change, note that the vos forms maintain the distinction between verb classes outlined in Table 1.

After having considered briefly the history, types, and distribution of voseo, the following section will consider the evolving treatment of voseo in the literature, with a special focus on Hispania's first 100 years.

## The Evolving Treatment of Voseo

By this author's count, over the course of the twentieth century, 26 articles were published in Hispania that mention the use of vos as a familiar form of address. Although several of these articles made important in-roads into understanding voseo (e.g., Pinkerton 1986; Torrejón 1986; Villegas 1963), none proposed teaching voseo. Indeed, the absence of voices in twentieth century Hispania advocating for the teaching of voseo mirrored the absence of voseo in textbooks used in foreign language courses in the United States, as documented by Mason and Nicely (1995).

In contrast to the twentieth century, in only the first sixteen years of the twenty-first century, thirteen articles were published in Hispania that mention voseo, including three that advocate teaching voseo. Pearson (2006) describes projects and materials that can be used to draw learners' attention to vos morphology in a class on Spanish dialectology. Kingsbury (2011) suggests having learners investigate voseo as an extension activity in the teaching of Argentine literature. Shenk (2014) proposes examples of meaning-based activities that instructors can use to teach voseo in the intermediate language classroom. In so doing, she couches the need for such instruction within the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages' objectives for Communication, Cultures, Comparisons, and Communities.

Although members of the AATSP are for the first time publically advocating for the inclusion of voseo in the classroom, it has been demonstrated that voseo remains largely absent in Spanish foreign language textbooks in the United States (Cameron 2012; Shenk 2014), as well as in Spanish heritage language textbooks (Ducar 2006). Internationally, researchers have also
demonstrated and challenged the absence of voseo in textbooks that are in use in second/foreign language programs in Costa Rica (Sánchez Avendaño 2004), Spain (García Aguiar 2009), and China (Song and Wang 2013).

The lack of instruction on voseo in the United States is an issue of increasing importance due to at least two factors: trends in study abroad and trends in immigration. To this end, the following section addresses US undergraduates' participation in study abroad in Costa Rica and Argentina-two of the eight countries with national voseo, and in which the monophthongized vos forms outlined in Tables 1 and 2 are the norm (Benavides 2003; Lipski 1994; Páez Urdaneta 1981).

## Voseo and Trends in Study Abroad

Since 1998, Costa Rica has been one of the ten most popular study abroad destinations in the world for US students. From 1998-2011, Costa Rica was the third most popular study abroad destination in the Spanish-speaking world, and since 2012, has been the second most popular destination (Institute of International Education 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016). Use of tú is reported to be stigmatized in Costa Rican Spanish (Agüero Chaves 1962; Marín Esquivel 2012), which displays covariation primarily between vos and usted in familiar address (Hasbún Hasbún and Solís Hernández 1997; Moser 2008; Solano Rojas 1997).

Since 2007, Argentina has consistently ranked among the five most popular study abroad destinations in the Spanish-speaking world for US students, and from 2012-14, was the third most popular destination (Institute of International Education 2012, 2013, 2014). This increased interest in Argentina is reflected in the AATSP's first study-abroad scholarship in that country, which was announced in 2015. As noted by Lipski (1994), Carricaburo (1997), and Benavides (2003), voseo is the norm across all segments of Argentine society.

In addition to the trend of US students participating in study abroad in countries with national voseo, census data reveal an increase in the number of voseantes living in the United States. In the following section, attention is turned to recent trends in immigration, specifically as they relate to the nation's growing Salvadoran population.

## Voseo and Trends in Immigration

By 2000, El Salvador had become the second Spanish-speaking country to join the list of the ten most popular nations of origin of the US foreign-born population, ranking ninth in that census year (Kandel 2011). Data from the 2010 Census demonstrate that Salvadoran migration to the United States has continued to increase. This is evidenced by the fact that El Salvador has now become the sixth most popular country of origin of the nation's foreign born population, and that Salvadorans are the dominant Latino/Hispanic group in Maryland and the District of Columbia (Ennis, Ríos-Vargas, and Albert 2011). Although it has been reported that Salvadoran Spanish employs a tripartite system of address, in which tú, vos, and usted are in use in familiar address, it is hypothesized that tú is used to signal an intermediate-level of trust, whereas vos is used to indicate maximum trust and to reduce social distance (Lipski 2000; Michnowicz and Place 2010).

## The Future of Voseo in the Twenty-first-century Classroom

The trends in study abroad and immigration discussed in the previous sections have at least two implications for the twenty-first-century classroom: preparing students who will be studying abroad in a country with national voseo, and in preparing future teachers of Spanish. These implications are elaborated upon in the following sub-sections.

## Preparing Students for Study Abroad

At the same time that instruction on voseo remains largely absent in language textbooks, a trend that appears to be emerging is that of researchers creating and making publically available materials that can be used to teach voseo. In addition to such articles by Pearson (2006) and Shenk (2014) published in Hispania, Cameron (2012) offers meaning-based input and output activities designed for teaching present indicative vos forms in a study abroad context in Costa Rica. Given that fact that Costa Rica has ranked as a top-ten study abroad destination for US students since 1998, and based on findings in Cameron (2014) that vos imperatives are the verb forms most present in print advertising in neighborhood grocery stores in Costa Rica, it may be beneficial for students to receive instruction on these forms prior to their arrival in that country. To this end, the following is offered as an example of a meaning-based, matching activity that targets vos imperatives and creates an opportunity for students to learn about some of the experiences that Costa Rica has to offer. The activity is followed by the answer key.

| 1. _Aprendé ... | a. . . . a las Corridas de Toros en Zapote. |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2.__Asistí... | b. . . a bailar el swing criollo costarricense. |
| 3.__Hacé... | c. .. el Parque Nacional Manuel Antonio. |
| 4.__Visitá... | d. ...el patí, el pan bon, y otras comidas afro-costarricenses. |
| 5.__ Probá... | e. . . planes para visitar la Basílica de Nuestra Señora de Los Angeles. |

1.b., 2. a., 3. e., 4. c., 5. d.

## Preparing Future Teachers of Spanish

As trends in study abroad and immigration are increasing links between the United States and at least three voseante nations, now is perhaps a good time to revisit Espinoza's (1917) vision for future teachers of Spanish as it relates to voseantes. To this end, I propose that more teacher preparation programs include a course on Spanish dialectology as part of their degree requirements, and that any such course include a unit that covers the history, types, and distribution of voseo. Rather than continuing to ignore voseo in the classroom, or argue that observed sociolinguistic and morphological variation make it too complicated to teach, I suggest that the field acknowledge this variation, and at the same time, focus on the many cross-dialectal similarities that students and teachers of Spanish in the United States are increasingly likely to encounter. The following are among the points that faculty designing any such unit may wish to include: 1) tú and vos have existed in Spanish for centuries; 2) vos was once the pronoun of formal address, but over the course of two centuries, changed to become one of familiar address; 3) the diphthongized present indicative verb forms that were in wide use in Spain at the beginning of the colonial period are reported to persist in some regions, but have become monophthongized in most voseante regions; 4) Chilean voseo constitutes its own category; 5) there are eight countries with national voseo, in which approximately $65,955,000$ L1 Spanish speakers employ the same present indicative and imperative forms; and 6) these nations include two of the most popular study abroad destinations for US students and one of the ten most popular countries of origin of the US foreign-born population.

## Conclusion

In the inaugural issue of Hispania, Espinoza (1917) defines the journal's mission as the improvement of the teaching of Spanish in schools, colleges, and universities. It is the sincere hope of the author that this essay serves in some way to increase learner success when studying abroad in voseante nations, and in keeping with Espinoza's vision, to help in the preparation of
teachers of Spanish who will have a complete and sympathetic understanding of the Spanishspeaking world.

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Response to "Study Abroad, Immigration, and Voseo in the Twenty-First-Century Classroom"

El Voseo: A Call to Action

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Keywords: pre-service FL teacher education/formación pre-servicio de maestros, Spanish curriculum/ currículo de español, study abroad/estudiar en el extranjero, teaching Spanish as a foreign or second language/enseñanza de español como lengua extrajera, vos, voseo

Robert Cameron's article on the voseo examines quite a timely subject and exhorts the profession to step up and pay attention to this much-neglected form of address. ${ }^{1}$ The article is very appropriate for the centenary edition of Hispania as it provides a review of the literature germane to this topic over the last 100 years. The article speaks to the evolution of the journal itself as well as directly addressing its readers on a matter of key curricular importance today.

## Moving Forward

Cameron provides a history of the voseo that is succinct and inclusive without losing readers who are non-linguists. By narrowing the focus to three countries, he is able to provide salient statistics about each one in terms of the most popular destinations of US students studying abroad and/or immigration patterns to the US, thus generating a strong rationale for the inclusion of the voseo in the Spanish language curriculum in US classrooms. If our students are traveling primarily to Argentina and Costa Rica for language study, and if they are encountering increasing populations from El Salvador on their home turf, it behooves them to learn to use the form of address prevalent in those countries. Said competence is both communicative and cultural and is among the foundational tenets of second language acquisition theory as well as the ACTFL proficiency guidelines and World-Readiness Standards (ACTFL 2012; National Standards 2015). To effect this, the voseo must consistently become a component of Spanish language education in the United States. While vosotros is regularly included in all US Spanish textbooks (Spain having a population of more than 48 million people), the voseo is systematically ignored even though speakers daily using the voseo in Latin America number in excess of 65 million (CIA 2016). This is a curious omission, indeed, because the profession has touted the importance of sociolinguistic appropriateness for almost four decades.

It is also time to abandon the cry of "it's too difficult for our students." The voseo is no more complex than any other subject/verb paradigm already being taught. At the very least the voseo needs to be acknowledged in Spanish textbooks as a living and frequently used form in areas where our students are quite likely to travel and study.

Concomitant with the inclusion of the voseo in the Spanish curriculum is the addition of this topic in future teacher preparation programs, be it through a specific dialectology course as Cameron suggests or, at the very least, a deliberate focus in one of the major's required Spanish courses. The ACTFL/CAEP Teacher Preparation Standard 2 requires that preservice FL teachers internalize the rules for sociolinguistic and pragmatic knowledge-including politeness and the formal/informal dichotomy. The use of the voseo figures largely in this standard.

## A Few More Steps

The table of verb forms provided is useful; however, the present subjunctive and negative command forms are omitted. All forms of the voseo could readily be included in US textbooks of Spanish and thus taken in their stride by students accustomed to dealing with such grammatical patterns.

While Cameron offers an example of one isolated activity that may help to introduce students to the voseo, truly this form needs to be included in all contextualized communicative activities on a regular basis so that students see it as how millions of Spanish speakers address each other on a daily basis. Classroom FL professionals need to give the voseo its due, just as is done with $U d$. and tú.

The inclusion of immigration data to the United States, albeit a bit extraneous, could also be construed as a way for Spanish teachers to concretize for their students the need to learn the voseo even if not studying abroad. Students in many areas in the United States already "pick up" a lot of Spanish from their native speaker acquaintances. Seeing the voseo appear in a prevalent way in their textbooks legitimizes the speech of their community and prepares them for realworld communication.

## Conclusion

Cameron's article makes an important contribution to the literature on the voseo with its extensive bibliography, succinct history, and recommendations for incorporation of the form in the US Spanish curriculum. The profession would do well to take notice and begin immediately to implement the voseo in the Spanish curriculum.

## NOTE

${ }^{1}$ The authors acknowledge that they both contributed equally to this essay.

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# The Role of Technology in Language Learning in the Twenty-First Century: Perspectives from Academe, Government, and the Private Sector 



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#### Abstract

Since the end of the 1990s, teachers of all disciplines have been experimenting with content delivered in a hybrid/blended ${ }^{1}$ format and entirely online. In the general education field, research-whether empirical or action-has been conducted for a number of years on different aspects of blended and entirely online learning, the term "online learning" typically encompassing both. ${ }^{2}$ This essay will provide an overview of developments in online learning at the K-16 levels, in government, and in the private sector, closing with information about technology trends that offer a glimpse into what the language learning field might look like five years from now.


Keywords: acquisition/acquisición, innovation/inovación, input enhancement/mejoramiento de la materia presentada al estudiante, online/en línea, pedagogy/pedagogía, technology/tecnología

## Developments in Online Learning at the K-16 Levels

General Education

Many K-16 programs are now offering some variation of blended and entirely online courses. Teachers are observing that one key "benefit of the online delivery method is that the associated anonymity can result in greater participation from all students, including 'shy' ones" (Appana 2008: 9).

One study in particular about online learning at the K-16 levels by a Department of Education team of researchers and analysts attracted considerable attention in 2010: "Evaluation of Evidence-Based Practices in Online Learning: A Meta-Analysis and Review of Online Learning Studies" (Means, Toyama, Murphy, Bakia, and Jones 2010). The group examined more than one thousand empirical studies between 1996 and 2008 on online learning-both blended and entirely online. The major finding: "on average, students in online learning conditions performed modestly better than those receiving face-to-face instruction" (9).

Since 2012, the "Year of the MOOC" (Massive Open Online Course), academicians such as Nishikant Sonwalkar (2013) at the University of Massachusetts have studied aspects of this new type of course. Recently, a Harvard-MIT research team conducted one of the largest investigations of MOOCs to date ("Massive study on MOOCs" 2015). The report is the second by the team; the first (Ho, Reich, Nesterko, Seaton, Mullaney, Waldo, and Chuang 2014), which appeared in January 2014, examined the first year of open online courses at the secondary and post-secondary levels launched on the joint MIT-Harvard edX, a free non-profit, open source, collaborative learning platform. The second describes sixty-eight certificate-granting courses, its 1.7 million participants who contributed over 10 million participant hours, and the 1.1 billion
participant-logged events. Following edX's lead, a number of learning institutions and enterprises (e.g., Khan Academy, The University of the People, and Coursera) now offer free online courses. Other institutions deliver entirely online courses for a fee.

At the K-12 level, Michael Corry and Julie Stella (2012) proposed the development of the Framework for Research in Online K-12 Distance Education that could serve as the foundation for the development of theoretical frameworks.

## Language Learning

In the field of language learning, a considerable amount of research has been conducted on different aspects of blended and entirely online learning since the end of the twentieth century. Between 1999 and 2010, the National Center for Academic Transformation funded a series of projects in a variety of disciplines, one being Spanish, aimed at converting face-to-face (F2F) curricula to blended. Feedback about the blended curricula was positive. In 2000, Bonnie AdairHauck, Laurel Willingham-McLain, and Bonnie Earnest Youngs pioneered the evaluation of the blended language program at Carnegie Mellon.

A number of researchers have scrutinized blended and entirely online learning primarily at the post-secondary level (e.g., Blake 2002 and 2013; Blyth 2013; Cerezo 2013; Ducate, Lomicka and Lord 2013; Goertler 2013; Rossomondo 2011 and 2013; Rott 2013; Rubio 2013; Rubio and Thoms 2013; Thoms 2013; Young and Pettigrew 2013) Some have focused on the benefits of the use of social media tools such as Twitter (Borau, Ullrich, Feng, and Shen 2009; Castro n.d.; Mork 2009) and Facebook (Blattner and Roulon 2009; Mitchell 2012). Others have looked at the effectiveness of integrating a particular online tool into the F2F classroom (Fogal, Graham, and Lavigne 2014; Work 2014). A smaller group (e.g., Chenoweth, Ushida, and Murday 2006; Rubio 2013; Thoms 2013; Young 2008) has conducted in-depth empirical studies on the effects of blended learning on language proficiency.

Concerning entirely online courses, Robert Blake created a Spanish course using materials from Tesoros in 2002 and Arabic Without Walls in 2012, both for first-year post-secondary learners.

Regarding MOOCs, the most requested language is English, followed by Chinese, Spanish, Arabic, and French. Spanish MOOC offers adaptive, twelve-week post-secondary courses that include a variety of live exercises, grammar instructions, open-ended assignments, and quizzes and tests using authentic materials (Spanish MOOC, n.d.).

At the high school level, in 2014, The National Foreign Language Resource Center (NFLRC) at the University of Hawai'i at Mānoa processed a four-year grant (2014-18) entitled "Professional Development for Online Foreign Language Teachers as a collaborative effort with the North Carolina Virtual High School." According to Sykes (2015), this project may become a model.

## Developments in Online Learning in Government

The Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) has been integrating technology to enhance learning for the last 10 years, starting with the purchase of interactive SmartBoards in 2003 that allowed immediate access to authentic materials in the four skills. In 2011, DLIFLC started the Paperless Classroom Initiative to promote collaborative learning in a blended environment where learners used Web 2 tools such as Glogster (2007-15), Lino (2015), InterVu (InterVu n.d.), and VoiceThread (2015). For the past five years, DLIFLC (2015) has been incorporating a variety of online tools, all of which are available to the general public at www.dliflc.edu/products, into its curricula both as homework and as content preview following the flipped classroom model. One such product is Online Diagnostic Assessment (ODA), a support tool in 17 languages that provides an estimated level of proficiency and a learning profile that provides specific diagnostic information for the learner and teacher about the learner's linguistic strengths and weaknesses.

Since 2006, the National Security Agency (NSA) has offered blended and online language and culture STARTALK programs for K-12 learners in collaboration with the National Foreign Language Center at the University of Maryland (STARTALK 2009).

## Developments in Online Learning in the Private Sector

The private sector has been experimenting for years with blended and entirely online courses. For example, Udacity is a company that offers entirely online "Nanodegrees" (i.e., courses in high tech subjects such as Front-end Web Developer and Android Developer, all designed and developed by leading tech organizations such as Google, Facebook, and Amazon Web Services [Catalog on website 2015]).

A number of language learning companies market blended courses for the $\mathrm{K}-16$ levels (e.g., Heinle Cengage, Middlebury Interactive, and Vista Higher Learning). iLrn Heinle Learning Center is "an all-in-one course management system developed to engage students and elevate thinking through listening, speaking, reading, and contextualized writing activities" (iLrn 2015). Middlebury Interactive Language curricula includes activities grounded in real-life scenarios that incorporate "immersive gaming, social networking and multimedia interactive learning" (Middlebury Interactive). Vista Higher Learning produces pedagogically sound blended courses such as the Intermediate Spanish Program Enlaces that are organized around the national standards and exploit authentic materials.

## Current Trends: Indicators of the Future of Technology in Language Learning

In 2007, Michael Wesch stated that "our walls no longer make the boundaries of our classrooms." Today, most learners expect access to learning $24 / 7$ across a variety of mobile devices that allow them to move in and out of several environments-academic learning sites, the non-academic workplace, and social life. Ever striving for autonomy, learners are now creating their own learning spaces, be it the conventional or virtual classroom, private or public transport, or the living room. Both teachers and learners are communicating on academic matters ever more freely through the use of learning management systems such as Sakai and Blackboard Collaborate.

In 2014, the New Media Consortium (NMC) and the EDUCASE Learning Initiative (ELI) published a report of the research conducted over a decade with "more than 850 internationally recognized practitioners and experts" on key trends in educational technology (Johnson 2014:4). The findings indicate that the flipped classroom, gamification, and virtual assistance technologies are areas of focus over the next five years. In 2015, the NMC was commissioned by the newly-established Language Flagship Technology Innovation Center (LFTIC) at the University of Hawai'i at Mānoa to produce a Strategic Brief on the topic of Innovation in Language Education. The publication, Innovating Language Education: An NMC Horizon Project Strategic Brief, came out on 26 February 2016 and is available through the NMC website. Recommendations from the report include: Integrate design thinking into curricula; build smart partnerships; enhance the user experience; foster more authentic exchanges through collaborative tools; adopt data-driven approaches. Below is information on these and other trends that are indicative of what the future of technology in language learning holds.

## More Blended and Entirely Online Courses

In 1987, Ray Clifford posited: "Technology will not replace teachers, but teachers who do not use technology will be replaced" (13). Every day, more blended and entirely online courses are appearing where both learners and teachers collaborate to construct knowledge by interacting in new and different ways with the content and each other (Bonk and Khoo 2014; Moore
and Keegan 2001). MOOCs, for example, are growing in popularity, the total number having increased 201\% between 2013 and 2014 (Failde 2015). Online instruction allows learners to access information at any time and the instruction is "flexible enough to satisfy many different learning styles" (Lumsdaine 2003: 2).

## More Blended Flipped Classrooms

In the flipped classroom, course content, typically online lectures and presentations, are provided to learners to preview before coming to class so class time can be dedicated to active processing of course content through class discussion. Lower-level cognitive tasks are performed prior to, and outside of class; higher-level cognitive tasks are performed in the classroom (Milman 2014). Learners take a more active role, spend more time on meaningful tasks, independent practice, and collaborative interaction; teachers are facilitators and advisors, helping and encouraging learners during the learning process (Milman 2014; Tomlison 2003; Westermann 2014).

## Greater Interactivity through the Use of Gamification Principles in Lesson and Curriculum Design

Interactive instruction, including the use of games, permits presenting instruction in chunks, "breaking a complex task into manageable steps" (Driscoll 2005: 87). Games and simulation exercises in online learning tools provide "real-time participation"-the highest level of interactivity currently attainable (TRADOC 2013: 95-98).

Research in gamification indicates that learners, whether in general education or language learning, find activities based on game principles highly motivational (e.g., Reinders 2012; Shute and Ke 2012). Gamification principles can be incorporated into F2F, blended, and entirely online courses to increase and sustain motivation. Games provide the learner a sense of control, challenge the user, offer diverse experiences, give praise when earned, and encourage self-reflection. Additionally, they make learning fun, set high yet attainable goals, track progress, and provide opportunities for success (Prensky 2007; Shute and Ke 2012).

However, not all games can be used for education purposes or for second language acquisition (Reinhardt and Sykes 2012). The Taxonomy of Second Language Education Games (TLAG) "can help teachers to categorize games, integrate them into curriculum, and have students achieve certain proficiency levels" (Sarac 2013: 163). Blake (2012) recommends that games and the mechanisms of play be incorporated into teacher training and professional development.

## Increase in the Number of Virtual Assistance Technologies

Kunnen (2015) reports on several advanced virtual assistance technologies that allow real-time collaboration in virtual reality: Oculus Rift, wearable computing with Google Glass; a telepresence-based robot from Double Robotics; gesture computing with Leap Motion; mobile devices such as the Swivl personal video "capture" solution. Leap Motions creates simulations where users interact with virtual objects in a game environment. Swivl collects and delivers content, such as group work in the classroom, as engaging videos through its "robot" that "turns your mobile device into a presentation delivery tool, a front-of-room assistant and automated video solution" (1).

While a number of companies are producing virtual reality products for gaming and social and mobile platforms, Oculus is considered by some to be the industry leader. In March 2016, it released Oculus Rift, a headset that immerses the user in virtual worlds. Using Touch controllers, the customer can manipulate objects in 50 such worlds, with titles like Galaxy Golf, Rec Room,
and Surgeon Simulator. Oculus has recently collaborated with Samsung to produce Gear VR, which offers the user the immersion experience on a Samsung Galaxy smartphone.

Microsoft is exploring the application of holograms to business and education. Its HoloLens headset "enables high-definition holograms to come to life in your world, seamlessly integrating with physical places, spaces, and things. We call this experience mixed reality" (Microsoft 2015). What is especially innovative about the HoloLens headset is that it allows the customer to interact, through holograms, with his/her actual surroundings. These developments have the potential to revolutionize the education field.

While predictions about the future of technology abound, Gartner's list of ten strategic technology trends for 2015 is worthy of note. Below, a summary:

- Among People: progressive merging of the real and virtual world through the massive use of mobile devices (computing everywhere), the Internet stream of data and services, and 3D printing.
- In Business: the proliferation of advanced, pervasive, invisible, analytic, context-rich systems and smart machines to enhance the business experience.
- In Information Technology (IT): cloud computing, agile programing that will accommodate content presentation in support of digitalized business, web-scale IT computing, and risk-based, self-protected security to allow uninterrupted information and work flow (Olcott 2014; Spender 2015).


## Conclusion

In the postmethod era in language learning, where content delivery is F2F, blended, or entirely online, teachers are challenged to create what Kumaravadivelu (2003) terms their own "theories of practice" based on knowledge and experience (1). That knowledge and experience will guide teachers as they selectively choose from a plethora of technology tools and applications only those rooted in sound pedagogy. Ever seeking to maximize learner motivation, teachers will continue to explore new and different ways to enhance learning, (e.g., using game principles in lesson and curriculum design). As is evident from this overview of the technology research and developments in the language learning field, language professionals are every day integrating technology more in the classroom as they strive to determine how best to facilitate understanding of content based on learner needs.

## NOTES

${ }^{1}$ The term "blended" will hereafter be used in this essay.
${ }^{2}$ Rubio and Thoms (2013) and the authors of this essay prefer the definition by Laster, Otte, Picciano, and Sorg (2005): "Courses that integrate online with traditional face-to-face activities in a planned, pedagogically valuable manner; and where a portion (institutionally defined) of face-to-face time is replaced by online activity."

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# The Importance of Creating Theories of Practice in Online Language Learning 

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Keywords: acquisition/acquisición, innovation/inovación, online/en línea, pedagogy/pedagogía, technology/ tecnología, theory/teoría

Christine Campbell and Branka Sarac provide a review of the literature as it pertains to developments in online language learning in various sectors of education. In the final paragraph, Campbell and Sarac call for the development of "theories of practice" (Kumaravadivelu 2003), based on knowledge and experience, among educators specializing in online instruction of languages. Campbell and Sarac cite two principal benefits of the creation of these theories of practice. First is the facilitation of choosing appropriate tools and approaches to teaching and learning, based on a theoretical base. Second is the fostering of a motivated dedication to carry out these endeavors.

Kumaravadivelu (2003) notes several innovations in the profession during the end of the twentieth century, which point educators in the direction of mindfully acting within a theoretical stance. Most notably, in considering the use of technology in the foreign language classroom, the profession should realize that "the artificially created dichotomy between theory and practice has been more harmful than helpful for teachers" (Kuramaravadivelu 2003: 1). In fact, the sudden development of a paradigm to integrate technology into the curriculum has oftentimes been haphazard. The reason is that said paradigms are often quite distant from more generalized "educational theory and practice." Subsequently, online learning programs can often be void of effectiveness.

A relatively dated study by the Pew Research Center (Smith, Rainie, and Zickuhr 2011) indicates that between $94 \%$ and $98 \%$ of college students-be they at the community college, undergraduate or graduate level-use the Internet regularly. Additionally, between $79 \%$ and $92 \%$ of the same group use wireless (laptop or cell phone) services regularly. Within this user demographic, $94 \%$ and $99 \%$ own a smartphone, while between $70 \%$ and $93 \%$ own a laptop computer. The study reports that the highest rates of use and ownership occur among graduate students, while the lower rates of use and ownership occur among community college students.

In a separate study done at the 7-12 grade levels, the figures decrease, but not drastically. Another Pew study indicates that approximately $89 \%$ of teenagers go online at least " $1-2$ days a week" (see "Millennials: A Portrait of Generation Next"). In spite of the divide among different ethnic and socio-economic groups, Internet use is still highly prevalent among teenagers between the ages of 12 and 17 .

These numbers indicate that the majority of students make regular use of technology. In addition to this fact, studies indicate that they are using the Internet as a source for learning.

For example, a study conducted by Head and Eisenberg (2010) indicated that $95 \%$ of college students surveyed used Google searches in their research, while $85 \%$ used Wikipedia.

How do theories of practice and statistics regarding the pervasive technology relate to the future of technology in language learning? First, we need to realize that in 2017, Hispania's one hundredth year of publication, the use of technology is ubiquitous. Not only is it ubiquitous, it is also synonymous with the learning process. For this reason, it is imperative that we think about how to best harness technology in light of second language acquisition theory and pedagogy. Similarly, we should always evaluate digital materials using the same rigorous standards used to evaluate those in print. For example, by March 2016, a very popular mobile phone application for language learning boasts approximately 110 million users worldwide (Velayanikal 2016). While its mobility represents an outstanding innovation, a careful assessment of this tool in the light of language learning theory and proper pedagogical practices would be enlightening. In other words, abundant access should not be the qualifying factor in the evaluation of language learning materials. The future of online learning provides opportunity and challenges; the profession needs to make careful choices in how to move forward.

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# Not What It Used to Be: The Future of Spanish Language Teaching 



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#### Abstract

Since 1970, higher education in general, and Spanish departments in particular, have experienced a seismic shift, with skyrocketing student enrollment and dramatic increases in the numbers of non-tenuretrack faculty. While contingent faculty numbers have continued to rise since 2000, over the past several years, enrollments in college-level Spanish courses seem to have stabilized. I will examine historical and current data, as well as projected statistics, before exploring possible consequences of these recent trends, in particular, how a more stable body of non-tenure-track faculty relates to enriched departmental culture and improved student learning in Spanish departments.


Keywords: enrollment/matrícula, faculty status/situación del profesorado, non-tenure-track faculty/ profesorado titular (sin cátedra), Spanish departments/departamentos de español, student learning/ aprendizaje de estudiantes

## Introduction

Higher education has changed dramatically since 1970, particularly in terms of enrollment and faculty status. Nationwide, university programs-including Spanish departmentshave witnessed increases in student enrollment and expansion of faculty off the tenure track. As a point of departure, this essay will place Spanish departments in a historical context, ${ }^{1}$ and then explore potential directions for our future. By offering a brief overview and possible forecasts, my aim is to spark conversation about how Spanish programs can evolve as higher education travels deeper into the twenty-first century.

Federal data illustrate the dramatic increase in student enrollment at post-secondary institutions since 1970. Collected by the US Department of Education's National Center of Education Statistics (NCES), data on full-time-equivalent (FTE) enrollment in four-year public and non-profit private institutions reveal 5,145,422 in enrollment in 1970; by 2014, that number had essentially doubled ("Full-time" 2016). Likewise, postsecondary institutions awarded more degrees, with the number of Bachelor's degrees more than doubling between 1970 and 2014. Master's more than tripled, and even doctorates (including MD, JD, etc.) nearly tripled, rising from 60,000 in 1970 to more than 177,000 in 2014 ("Degrees Conferred" 2016).

With higher enrollment, the number of faculty in the classroom necessarily increased. Across institutions nationwide, between 1975 and 2011, the number of faculty increased by 130\%, with over $90 \%$ of that growth attributable to contingent positions (Curtis 2014). ${ }^{2}$ In addition to reporting on the increase of part-time and full-time non-tenure-track (NTT) faculty, Curtis observed a dramatic increase of $122.8 \%$ in the employment of graduate students during that same period (2014). Certainly, national data trends differ according to institutional category, part- or full-time status, and disciplinary field. Yet, scholars have underscored that, although the numbers of tenure-track positions nationwide increased, the largest increase has occurred among NTT ranks, primarily part-time faculty (e.g., Curtis 2014; Kezar and Sam 2010).

## Spanish Departments since 1970

Anyone who has taught in a Spanish department during the past fifteen years has witnessed an increase in overall enrollment, as statistics from the Modern Language Association's (MLA) Language Enrollment Database illustrate. There were 386,000 enrolled nationwide in Spanish in 1970; that declined slightly before rising dramatically by 1990 to over 530,000. By 2013 there was nearly double the 1970 enrollment ("Spanish" 2014). This increase in higher education echoes changes in secondary schools, where NCES found that the percentage of high school graduates who take at least one unit of Spanish more than doubled between 1982 and 2009 ("Percentage" 2007; "Number and Percentage" 2014). Likewise, the numbers of Advanced Placement (AP) tests taken in Spanish Language and Literature have increased thirtyfold since 1980, when some 5,000 exams were taken ("Advanced Placement" 1980); by 2015, there were over 166,000 ("AP Exam" 2015).

Enrollment increases have impacted hiring into Spanish departments; however, pinpointing faculty status in Spanish departments is difficult due to a lack of data. The Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), an arm of the NCES, offers data on faculty status from before 1970. However, IPEDS categorizes faculty by their primary function (e.g., instructional, research), rather than specific field of instruction. Between 1988 and 2004, the National Study of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF) collected higher education data, including fields of instruction. Drawing on NSOPF statistics, David Laurence (2008) found that the number of full-time tenure track/tenured faculty in foreign languages (FL) increased by 27\% between 1993 and 2004; full-time NTT faculty increased by $69 \%$; and part-time NTT faculty, by $25 \%$ ( 27 , Table 1 ). Furthermore, in 2004, NTTs in four-year institutions comprised 50\% of FL faculty; at two-year institutions, nearly $87 \%$ (Laurence 2008: 2). While the presence of graduate Teaching Assistants (TAs) is not accounted for in the NSOPF data, the MLA's own 1999 survey of FL departments found that in doctoral departments, full-time tenured/tenure-track positions comprised $28 \%$ of faculty, with full-time NTTs at 12\%; part-time faculty at $12 \%$, and TAs at $48 \%$. Yet, at bachelor's institutions, $46 \%$ of FL faculty members were tenured/tenure track; $15 \%$ were full-time NTTs; $35 \%$ were part-time and only $4 \%$ were TAs. Two-year colleges employed the most contingent faculty, with only $26 \%$ tenured/tenure track; $5 \%$ full-time NTT; $69 \%$ part-time; and $0 \%$ TAs (Laurence 2001: 213, Table 1). Thus, while data on faculty status specific to foreign languages are limited and vary with institutional category (Laurence 2001:214), these statistical snapshots indicate an increase in both TAs and NTTs in our FL classrooms. Here, my focus is the role of NTT faculty, but further examination of TAs is needed to thoroughly understand instructional trends in many Spanish departments.

## Recent and Future Trends

Given the tremendous changes in higher education since 1970, recent trends will help focus our discussion of the future. From 2000-12, FTE enrollment across institutional categories increased 38\% nationwide ("Full-time" 2014), with an increase in Bachelor's degrees of about $45 \%$; data from $2000-12$ show $63 \%$ and $43 \%$ respective increases in master's and doctorates ("Degrees Conferred" 2016). Federal forecasts predict a slower and steadier increase-15\% across categories-in FTE enrollment by 2025, with variation according to institutional type ("Full-time" 2016). Looking ahead to 2040, however, Gary Saul Morson and Morton Schapiro (2015) expect enrollment to "increase to record levels," as college graduates continue to benefit from higher lifetime earnings relative to those with high school education (170).

Future changes in Spanish enrollment are difficult to foretell; however, recent data suggest that dramatic increases have leveled off, at least for now. Between 2002 and 2013, Spanish enrollments increased, but only by 6\% ("Spanish" 2014). A recent MLA report showed that university
enrollment in Spanish declined 8\% since the all-time high in 2009 (Goldberg, Looney, and Lusin 2015: 2), with a $5.7 \%$ decline in undergraduate and a $20.5 \%$ drop in graduate enrollments (5). Moreover, the authors observed a nearly 10\% decline in first majors in Spanish since 2009 (81, Table 14). At the secondary level, between 2000 and 2009 the percentage of high school (HS) graduates with at least one year of Spanish doubled to $69 \%$; however, the average number of HS credits taken -2.2 -has remained relatively stable ("Number and Percentage" 2014). Finally, although the number of AP Spanish exams increased $127 \%$ since 2000, the percentage of Spanish exams among all AP exams has declined steadily, dropping from an all-time high of 5.8\% in 2000 to $3.7 \%$ in 2015 ("AP Exam" 2010; "AP Exam" 2015), putting the current percentage at 1980 s -era levels.

More students, thus, are taking high school Spanish courses, but a smaller percentage of AP students are taking AP Spanish exams. Meanwhile, fewer four-year institutions require foreign language (FL) for admission: Natalia Lusin (2012) notes that in 1965-66, one-third of four-year institutions required FL study, but by 1982-83 that number had fallen to $14.1 \%$. Since then, language requirements for university admission have rebounded slightly but steadily, with 2009-10 levels at almost $25 \%$ for four-year institutions (1-2). At the same time, four-year institutions requiring a FL course for graduation hit a low of $47 \%$ in 1982, rebounded to $68 \%$ in 1994, and again dropped to $50 \%$ in 2009. So, at the same time that FL admission requirements have trended slightly upward, fewer institutions require foreign language for graduation (Lusin 2012: 1), suggesting that university language study is not incentivized (Goldberg, Looney, and Lusin 2015: 15). Finally, a projected decline in humanities degrees (Morson and Schapiro 2015: 161-64) also suggests that fewer students may pursue FL graduation requirements, as many non-humanities degrees do not require language study. When combined with a slower, national increase in FTE, these trends suggest that nationally, Spanish enrollment should hold relatively steady, or perhaps decline, in the near term.

As we have seen, national faculty status trends are impossible to identify in Spanish departments, and until data can be collected nationwide, individual institutions must collect and analyze their own statistics to reveal possible directions. Without this information for all institutions, however, we have to rely on general trends to inform forecasts. As enrollment across disciplines and in Spanish increased since 2000, the percentage of NTT faculty continued to increase nationwide, with the most significant increase in part-time faculty (Curtis 2014). However, in looking across institutional categories, Steven Schulman (2015) found a slight decrease in part-time positions ( $1.7 \%$ ) and in untenured, tenure-track faculty ( $1.4 \%$ ) from 2005 to 2013, while full-time NTT positions increased by $2.7 \%$. Despite variations according to institutional category, Schulman found that contingent faculty overall have increased from $62.6 \%$ to $63.6 \%$ since 2005 (2015). Regardless of whether this blip in solidifying multiple part-time positions into full-time posts becomes a trend, it is clear that faculty primarily hail from NTT ranks. And, in looking toward the future, this trend will likely continue, with Morson and Schapiro estimating that by 2040 , only $10 \%$ of faculty will be on tenure track (2015: 160).

Higher education funding clearly plays a crucial role in the continued increase in NTT faculty nationwide, but is too complex to address in this essay. Yet, along with revenue trends, sociopolitical shifts have resulted in scholars, as well as social and mainstream media, examining the role of NTT faculty. The topic is ubiquitous in outlets such as Inside Higher Ed, The Chronicle of Higher Education and The Wall Street Journal. Scholarly associations like the MLA explore the role of NTTs, and organizations such as New Faculty Majority ensure that the relationship of adjunct faculty to undergraduate education is at the forefront of any discussion of academia. Labor unions (SEIU, AFT, etc.) have ramped up efforts to unionize contingent faculty; and, even where their efforts to unionize have been challenged (Duquesne and Pacific Lutheran, among others), the process itself has focused attention on the role of adjuncts. Some accreditation agencies likewise are examining various factors related to non-tenure-track faculty as part of their
criteria. As scholars have noted, "the impact of the changing faculty . . . provides the rationale for the accreditation community's involvement" because "student outcomes have been a main focus in accreditation for the last fifteen years" (Kezar, Maxey, and Eaton 2014; 9). Further, these authors both identified those accreditation agencies that have incorporated NTT-related criteria, and outlined future steps for accrediting bodies. Enhanced media presence, unionization efforts, and accreditation reform also have resulted in attention to these issues from the US Congress and the Senate. And, as national conversations on student debt continue to unfold, further discussion of faculty status is inevitable.

## Possible Outcomes for Spanish Departments

Admittedly, the statistics examined here highlight the difficulty of making clear predictions about the future of higher education. Yet in this uncertain climate, we can choose to view the glass half-full, at least for Spanish departments. With projected increased stability in undergraduate enrollment, Spanish programs nationwide can more effectively determine staffing needs, and, when combined with external pressures, can participate in more purposeful hiring practices of NTT faculty that improve overall teaching outcomes. Whether relying on multiple, part-time positions or fewer, full-time ones, departments can offer multi-term contracts for a core group of Spanish faculty. In turn, administrators can highlight this practice to students, accreditation agencies, even the media. Without question, external forces will ebb and flow, and enrollment will vary from one term to the next-departments will always need to be agile to address fluctuations. However, if departments and institutions collect and review enrollment and faculty status data annually, then individual patterns should emerge. And, with this information, Spanish programs can make a better case with deans, human resources (HR), and others for a thoughtful and stable approach to hiring-ensuring that departments and their students benefit from the consequences.

For students, faculty, and institutions, there are several benefits of stabilized enrollment and staffing. First, if departmental and/or HR administrators and staff are freed from frantic, last-minute hiring each term, they can redirect resources towards other matters, positively impacting efficiency. Moreover, identifying faculty members on course schedules, websites, etc., acknowledges the key role that these professionals play in the educational mission, and demonstrates to students that institutions care about their learning. Students could also more actively choose their instructor, potentially resulting in better alignment of student expectations with instruction, as well as in enhanced learning.

Another benefit concerns teacher feedback and interaction. If a department hires a majority of its Spanish language faculty on multi-term contracts before August, it knows how many faculty members will use a physical office throughout the academic year. A current challenge for many contingent faculty, access to office space directly affects student learning. Studies on learning repeatedly point to the important role that teacher feedback plays in learning outcomes (e.g., Shute 2008). And, by holding office hours in a consistent location that allows for some confidentiality, faculty have the chance to ensure this reliable interaction with, and tutoring of, students. Likewise, an office promotes informal communication with colleagues and TAs; these conversations, in turn, can result in curricular collaboration, as well as in mentoring and professional support. This can also be true for part-time faculty who may need to leave after office hours to teach elsewhere. Even brief, personal interaction with colleagues can boost virtual collaboration on course design and implementation. Finally, office space facilitates interaction with tenure-track colleagues, allowing both groups of faculty the chance to better understand and appreciate each other's role in the department's mission.

A steady group of Spanish language faculty-whether part- and/or full-time-will also lead to curricular initiatives that appeal to student learning needs and goals. Spanish language
faculty inevitably apply their expertise in second language acquisition (SLA) and pedagogy, as well as in other fields, to the courses they teach. Faculty who feel invested in a department can reinvigorate introductory/intermediate curricula and practice with current pedagogy and technology. A department can also capitalize on these specializations to strengthen its curriculum at all levels-by offering new courses, such as a sociolinguistics or creative nonfiction class; by revising standing courses to better integrate linguistic and cultural proficiency goals; or by relying on NTT expertise in SLA to train TAs. Through their diverse connections in the world beyond the university, NTT faculty also may enhance internship and/or service learning opportunities for students. Thus, departments can broaden their appeal to students, especially within today's context of Spanish as an increasingly secondary major.

A core group of Spanish language faculty also allows the department to both diversify and strengthen its faculty profile. Incorporating NTT faculty into a department's culture, even its website, more clearly demonstrates the program's wide breadth of expertise. Departments can benefit from varied expertise through NTT participation in committee work and shared governance. The department's faculty profile may encompass literary and cultural studies, as well as SLA, linguistics, and other fields such as business or creative writing. This diverse faculty profile is then clear to both students as well as to faculty from other departments-reinforcing the Spanish department's role as a leader in interdisciplinary approaches to teaching, learning, and research. In sum, faculty availability and curricular initiatives are just a couple ways that our future Spanish students can benefit from stable hiring practices.

## Conclusion

We have seen marked changes in higher education generally, and Spanish departments specifically, since 1970. In the last fifteen years, the world of post-secondary education has continued to change, with the twin upward trends of student enrollment and instruction by NTT faculty. Yet in Spanish departments more specifically we have seen enrollment slow down somewhat since 2000, with our first drop since 1980 taking place 2009-13. Although predictions of the future are risky at best, university Spanish enrollment nationwide should hold relatively steady over the coming years. Declining percentages of AP exams in Spanish, as well as slow increases in the percentage of four-year institutions that require foreign language both for admission and for graduation suggest that university foreign language study is not highly incentivized. This is echoed in the increasing number of students whose Spanish major is secondary, rather than primary, and even in the recent decline of graduate study in Spanish.

This more steady enrollment trend, when combined with external pressures, ought to result in more stabilized faculty hiring nationwide. It seems clear that Spanish language faculty will continue to hail from non-tenure-track ranks, yet individual programs and institutions should track and review their own data to forecast hiring needs, as enrollment trends in specific departments and institutions vary from national numbers. A purposeful and systematic approach to hiring Spanish language faculty will result in enhanced learning for our students, as well as in enriched departmental curricula and faculty profiles. Ironically, these same improvements could very well lead our future Spanish departments back to the enrollment increases of recent decades-leading us full circle and ensuring continued self-reflection on our role in higher education.

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# Being Ready Means Responding to the Question of Who Is Enrolling 

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Keywords: curriculum/currículo, curriculum design/diseño curricular, enrollment/matriculación, foreign language/lenguaje extranjero, pedagogy/pedagogía, Spanish/español

Who is teaching is significant to any discussion about the future of Spanish and all foreign language programs, as highlighted by professional organizations like the Modern Language Association and the Association of Departments of Foreign Languages, to name just two. Certainly the roles and stability of non-tenure-track (NTT) faculty are fundamental questions moving forward. Last minute hiring benefits no one and often does not allow our NTT colleagues the opportunity to contribute fully at all levels of the educational enterprise.

Still, in light of disquieting recent events on college campuses across our nation (e.g., protests against racial injustices and the rescission of Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA), confederate and historical monument controversies, trigger warnings, and debates about free speech), the profession must not underestimate the meaning of both who our departments will be teaching and what it is that population of students desires from college more generally in the twenty-first-century context. Being "student-ready," as Byron P. White (2016) calls it, would not represent a mere reaction to the demands of the moment; but rather, the acknowledgement of demographic and sociocultural realities as relevant to the lenses through which current and future college students view higher education. The students, who swelled the overall enrollments in Spanish during the last fifteen years, are not the same as those who will occupy the classrooms of the next decade and likely beyond.

Data from the United States Department of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES), Digest of Educational Statistics reveal that from 2012 to 2023 the number of students twenty-five and over is forecasted to increase at a higher rate than that of students under age twenty-five (2013). Furthermore, a recent report from the Education Advisory Board (EAB) explains, "A large rise in the proportion of underrepresented minority high school graduates will permanently change the undergraduate enrollment base. About 75 percent of the net increase in total enrollment over the next eleven years will come from Black and Hispanic students. By the 2019-2020 academic year, 45 percent of public high school graduates will be non-white, compared to 38 percent in the class of 2009" ("Future Students, Future Revenues" 2013).

On the one hand, these statistics about who will be enrolling in college underscore the need for our programs to carefully consider transfer credit policies and methods for engaging those learners returning to complete a degree as well as international undergraduates who may be studying a third, fourth, or even fifth language, according to EAB projections about "potential growth segments" (2013).

On the other hand, the changes in the age and ethnic profile of the student population are inextricably linked to the calls for justice and reform on our campuses. Spanish programs
and foreign language departments are exceptionally equipped to offer a curriculum-centered academic response by the very nature of what we do. In many instances foreign language departments have been greatly diversified by the addition of NTT colleagues who reflect the shifting student population.

With regards to curriculum specifically, the "21st Century Skills World Languages Map" that resulted from the "Partnership for 21st Century Skills" makes clear that FL study fosters not only the communication and cultural competencies necessary for college success and productive, inclusive community engagement; but also, relevant and invaluable multicultural proficiencies marketable in the globalized economy. Raquel Oxford (2010) emphasized that the skills "must form part of the conversation as modifications move forward in the language curriculum" (68).

As students and academic institutions seek to engage more meaningfully across differences, FL programs achieve learning outcomes perfectly aligned with constructive dialogue and skills that function to promote understanding in and beyond a Spanish classroom. Faculty and departments need to be attentive to changes in enrollments, not just in numerical terms; but also, with regards to person and disposition. The recent turmoil at colleges and universities nationwide signals an urgency to develop, practice, and apply (in as many languages as possible) the skill sets outlined by "Partnership for 21st Century Skills."

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# Spanish for the Professions and Specific Purposes: Curricular Mainstay 



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#### Abstract

Building on its substantial and sustained evolution over the past thirty-plus years, Spanish for the Professions and Specific Purposes (SPSP) should flourish in the future as a paradigmatic curricular mainstay. A characteristic of its steadily emerging theory-based maturity within the Language for the Professions and Specific Purposes (LPSP) curricular ecosystem will be the increased thickness and granularity of SPSP in continual response to evolving learner needs. Development of SPSP as an adaptable signature feature of future Spanish curricula represents a fundamental, renewable long-term investment in the relevance, and therefore the centrality, of the study of Spanish. It is a commitment to curriculum development activism.


Keywords: certificate in Language for Specific Purposes/certificado de lenguas para fines específicos, curriculum/currículo, professions/profesiones, Spanish/español, specific purposes/fines específicos, curriculum development activism/activismo en el desarrollo curricular

## Looking Back, Leaning Forward

Thinking forward into the coming decades, and building on its substantial and sustained evolution over the past thirty-plus years, Spanish for the Professions and Specific Purposes (SPSP) should flourish as a paradigmatic curricular mainstay. ${ }^{1}$ A characteristic of its steadily emerging theory-based maturity within the Language for the Professions and Specific Purposes (LPSP) curricular ecosystem will be the increased thickness and granularity of SPSP in continual response to evolving learner needs (Doyle 2010, 2012a and 2012b, 2014; Fryer 2012). The gathering momentum of LSP and SPSP has been well chronicled for over three decades in the work of scholars such as Uber Grosse and Voght (1982, 1985, 1990, 1991), Doyle (1987, 1992), Melton (1994), Branan (1998), Fryer and Guntermann (1998), and Schorr (2000); the more recent research of scholars such as Grosse (2009), Grosse and Voght (2012), Domcekova (2010), Doyle (2010, 2012a and 2012b, 2013, 2014), Fryer (2012), Long (2010, 2011, 2014), Long and Uzcinski (2012), Sánchez-López (2010, 2013, 2014), and Hertel and Dings (2014); and in recent monographic publications such as the Hispania (2010) "Special Section: Curricular Changes for Spanish and Portuguese in a New Era"; the 2012 Modern Language Journal Special Issue on Languages for Specific Purposes in the United States in a Global Context (Lafford); the 2013 University of Alabama at Birmingham refereed conference volume, Scholarship and Teaching on Languages for Specific Purposes (Sánchez-López); and the 2014 special issue of Cuadernos de ALDEEU on Spanish for the Professions and Other Specific Purposes (Doyle and Gala).

In her incisive 1994 essay "Foreign Language Interdisciplinary Programs and Alliances: Some Observations," Melton references Uber Grosse and Voght who in 1991 concluded in "The Evolution of Languages for Specific Purposes in the United States" that the "field of languages for specific purposes (LSP) in the United States has come of age" (Melton 19; Uber Grosse and Voght 181). Focused on the CIBER-propelled development of business Spanish, by far the
largest subcategory of non-English LSP-business language at the time, in 1992 Doyle referred to such developments as "the overdue birth of a new educational epistemology in the United States" (6). ${ }^{2}$ Two decades later, in her 2012 follow-up, "Languages for Specific Purposes in the United States in a Global Context: Commentary on Grosse and Voght (1991) Revisited," Lafford cautioned that the phrasing "has come of age" reflected "an optimism that the past 2 decades have yet to fully substantiate" (4). Long and Uzcinski's findings in "Evolution of Languages for Specific Purposes Programs in the United States: 1990-2011," a 2012 update of the Uber Grosse and Voght 1991 survey, reconfirmed "that LSP is a permanent aspect of the foreign language curriculum in US higher education," but that the earlier "optimistic, almost euphoric hopes for the reenergizing and internationalization of the US education system (and LSP's role in that process) have yet to be fully realized" $(187,188)$. They predicted "a continued steady presence of LSP in university curricula for years to come," characterized by an ongoing "deepening and focusing in the sophistication and variety of offerings in response to broader needs" (188). Uber Grosse and Voght, coauthors of "The Continuing Evolution of Languages for Specific Purposes," a 2012 retrospective on their own groundbreaking work in 1991, reissued their abiding conviction, based on survey data, that

> [ $t$ ]he evolution of LSP will continue as the field leads the profession further in the direction of a more holistic approach to language learning through its integration of language, culture, communication, content, and context for real application in fields such as business, engineering, medicine, law, hospitality, and community service. (200)

The narrative of SPSP evolving into a curricular mainstay remains a work in progress-it is still coming of age, still in the process of more fully substantiating itself-but the evolving story, which it should be always if it is to ensure its relevance and centrality, is much farther along than ever before. The plot has become more interesting (more relevant for diverse stakeholders) and thickened considerably. Substantial development has no doubt taken place in terms of Branan's visionary goal in 1998 that "the [business language] movement will spread, as it has already begun to do, to all the professions: medical and health care, social work, law, science, and technology" (5). ${ }^{3}$

## SPSP as an Adaptable Signature Feature of Future Spanish Curricula

Development of SPSP as an adaptable signature feature of future Spanish curricula represents a fundamental, renewable long-term investment in the relevance, and therefore the centrality, of the study of Spanish in future decades. Status as a signature feature means that SPSP becomes a full partner sharing in the space of curricular importance and exceptionalism claimed traditionally by other emphases, such as literary studies, that benefit from a longer developmental history. SPSP optimizations in a quickening era of "glocal" (global and local taken simultaneously), experiential, intercultural, and digital didactics will require faculty and administrative leadership whose curricular vision and implementation are continually and nimbly re-balanced according to the needs of the times to better prepare students for the world they will encounter upon graduation (Doyle 2010: 84). Moving forward, SPSP will require greater needs-grounded imagination-curricular dreaming, so to speak-regarding possibilities for different academic institutions, departments, and programs, whose potential SPSP portfolios will vary according to educational missions and contexts. Curriculum design will become more responsive, developing within, across, and beyond current course and program architectures and features (see Doyle 2012a and 2012b). ${ }^{4}$

As an example of pushing beyond existing curricular models-such as SPSP as a freestanding Spanish major, a track or concentration within the Spanish major, or as part of an interdisciplinary or double major, or as a minor or certificate-, SPSP could form part (or serve as the pilot
and hub) of a polyglot certificate program that would promote the translingual and transcultural competence endorsed by the Modern Language Association of America in its 2007 report titled Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World. A consolidated, generic rubric such as "CLSP: X" would serve as an integrative curricular conduit funneling interests shared across languages, as opposed to keeping them separate as certificates in each language per se. The X sub-rubric after the colon specifies the profession or purpose for which a given language has been studied. Indeed, embedding a CERTIFICATE IN LANGUAGE FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES: X, names-certifies on behalf of a program, department or institution-a particular subject knowledge and associated language skills, as a specialty within the degree program that otherwise remains vague.

An adaptable curricular vehicle could be something along the lines of a CERTIFICATE IN LANGUAGE FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES (CLSP): X; that is, a broadly inclusive LSP rubric (as opposed to the exclusionary limitations of language-specific rubrics) with the flexibility to adjust the specific purposes as warranted, pivoting across an evolving range of possibilities, such as:

CERTIFICATE IN LANGUAGE FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES (CLSP): ENGLISH-SPANISH
TRANSLATION AND/OR INTERPRETING (adaptable for other language pairs or multi-
lingual combinations such as English-Spanish-French, etc.)
CLSP: BUSINESS SPANISH (to offer greater granularity, for example, via an emphasis on particular functional business areas such as management, human resources, marketing, etc., adaptable for other languages)

CLSP: SPANISH FOR MEDICAL AND HEALTH CARE (perhaps broken out into particular medical and health care professions such as dentistry or optometry, adaptable for other languages as warranted)

CLSP: SPANISH FOR LAW ENFORCEMENT AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE (adaptable for other languages)

CLSP: HISPANIC LITERATURE (adaptable for French, German, Japanese, Russian literatures, etc., or a combination thereof along the lines of comparative literature)

CLSP: SPANISH FOR X (X to designate any warranted specific purposes, for example, as SPSP reaches forward in the coming decades to develop collaborative curricular opportunities with STEM [science, technology, engineering, and mathematics])

In the future, a degree in Spanish might read as:

> BACHELOR [or MASTER] OF ARTS IN SPANISH
> With a
> CERTIFICATE IN LANGUAGE FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES: BUSINESS SPANISH and MARKETING

A motivated learner could earn multiple "specific purpose" designations, whether embedded or not in a major, just as many students today add minors or certificates to their major/s. In an "all things considered equal" world, in which differentiations often constitute the determining factor in a hiring or placement outcome, the holder of additional credentials is typically better positioned in terms of employment and professional opportunities.

A generic LSP certificate might also facilitate interdisciplinary and/or multilingual curriculum development, such as combining concurrent emphases into new freestanding majors. For example, a CERTIFICATE IN LANGUAGE FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES: ENGLISH-SPANISH TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETING and a CERTIFICATE IN LANGUAGE FOR SPECIFIC

PURPOSES: ENGLISH-FRENCH TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETING could easily be combined into an interdisciplinary major in translation and/or interpreting across the three languages, virtually ready-made because of the two pre-existing certificates. In this example, the curricular matrix stretches the fabric of particular LSP discourse domains, translation and interpreting, cutting across languages and re-knitting them together in a productive and collaborative manner.

An attractive feature of CLSP options is that they are readily available to learners out in the community (a glocal community via online delivery) who are interested in obtaining only that particular credential, and therefore do not have to be enrolled in any degree-granting program. An option such as a CLSP: X has a powerful potential for a program or department to strengthen its town-and-gown (town-and-professional communities, town-and-potential employer/donor) relationships, which in turn nourish the program's institutional relevance and centrality.

A generic and adaptable CLSP: X houses the particulars of X language for X purpose within a general, mainstay-oriented LSP rubric. The rubric syntax names the centrality and importance of LSP up front, as emblematic of the conceptual, applied, and political (for curricular purposes) significance of LSP.

## Leaning SPSP Forward into a Prominent Cohesive Space

Bending Toury's (2000) "Norms in Translation" toward the SPSP theme, curricular paradigms coexist in an uneasy but potentially productive dialectic between a fluid and overlapping triad of possibilities:

1. Mainstream norms, the status quo that dominates the center of the system
2. Remnants (vestiges, lingering power) of previous sets of norms
3. Rudiments of new norms hovering in the periphery. (205)

Thus, national curricula such as Spanish are shaped and mutually influenced, by the pressures exerted along the following cline:

$$
\text { Past Norms } \leftrightarrow \text { Mainstream Present Norms } \leftrightarrow \text { Emerging New Norms }
$$

which also may be viewed in terms of one cycle of norms leading to the next one,

$$
\text { Past Norms } \rightarrow \text { Mainstream Present Norms } \rightarrow \text { Emerging New Norms }
$$

each in turn having occupied the center.
As it continues to evolve from new to mainstream norm status-that is, from marginal or outsider origins, to a smaller and then a larger presence within the curriculum-SPSP will settle into a prominent cohesive space shared by other mainstream curricular norms. As new "professions" or "specific purposes" emerge, SPSP can better position programs to engage in interdisciplinary opportunities with other academic disciplines, departments, and programs, premised on the fluid exigencies of the real world. The cohesive space is that of being in tune with and included in such possibilities.

## Leaning SPSP Studies Forward in Terms of Theory

A significant element in LSP and SPSP Studies coming of age will be its requisite maturation as a "theory-based field of scholarship," extending a call for such maturation in Business Language Studies (Doyle 2012a: 105), to be characterized by a growing body of scholarly research and empirical findings. Fryer (2012) concurs that the pressing need for theoretical maturation has been "[p]erhaps the greatest hurdle" confronting the legitimization of LSP within the academy
(113). In the "Future Directions" section of their 2012 retrospective, Uber Grosse and Voght also address "the need for more theoretical grounding of LSP research in the United States in languages other than English." There remains a pressing need for continuing theoretical cartography, which should spur and support the continual development of methodology, curricula, pedagogy, and teaching materials, and which will be required to "anchor the field [LSP/SPSP] more adequately in US higher education" (Doyle 2012a: 114, and 2013: 11).

Leaning SPSP studies forward in terms of theory draws from, informs, and helps to better understand the considerable curriculum and methodological development that has occurred to date, albeit too often without an adequate articulation of underlying or implicit theoretical presuppositions. SPSP (and of course LSP) without theory is akin to conceiving of literary studies, linguistics, or translation studies without theory, which is difficult to imagine today in those disciplines in higher education. More extraction and articulation of the intrinsic and extrinsic theory implicit in didactic praxis will complement ongoing and evolving LSP-SPSP curricular and methodological development.

## Leaning SPSP Forward as Responsiveness to Societal Needs

To remain responsive to learner and societal needs, SPSP will need to be nimble in terms of content domains and related skills development. Any status it aspires to as a mainstream curricular norm is provisional, subject to emerging new norms around it, which means that SPSP itself must remain an emerging new norm, constantly reinventing and repositioning itself. Together with specific professions and purposes, responsiveness to societal needs will call for overarching themes-such as leadership with integrity, negotiation, conflict resolution, sustainability, and civil and human rights-to permeate SPSP. Indeed, because of its fundamental importance to all areas of the curriculum, it has been proposed that "leadership, leadership principles, and leadership development-general, localized, comparative, diachronic and synchronic, personalized, and self-critical-should become a core LSP/SPSP consideration" (Uribe, LeLoup, Long, and Doyle 2014: 212-13).

## Conclusion: Curriculum Development Activism

A curricular portfolio must be rebalanced continually to ensure its relevance and therefore its centrality. A most compelling curricular narrative is one that evolves with the times and remains needs-based. This is the enduring promise of, and challenge to, SPSP in the coming decades. Is there a single storyline to be developed or prescribed in the process? Of course not. The future success of SPSP as a curricular mainstay will require more thought, imagination, research, energy, collaboration, experimentation, courage, and implementation: a collective effort harnessed by an academic leadership committed to responding to the needs of the learner and society. Curricular vision and leadership will be crucial to the critical and unique role of SPSP in the ongoing repositioning and rebranding-the renewal of relevance and centrality-of Spanish. A commitment to LPSP and SPSP is a commitment to curriculum development activism in language pedagogy on behalf of the legitimate needs of society and the real-world needs of the learner. In this sense, we must be lifelong SPSP curriculum development activists.

## NOTES

${ }^{1}$ In "Guest Editor's Remarks: Adding Thickness and Granularity to SSP," Doyle (2014) proposes SPSP in order to more adequately situate the well-established emphasis on Spanish for the Professions (SP) as a key subfield of the broader inquiry domain known as Spanish for Specific Purposes (SSP), itself a component of Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP).
${ }^{2}$ CIBER is the acronym for the federally funded Centers for International Business Education and Research.
${ }^{3}$ This was already beginning to occur, as documented in Part 2, "Emerging Areas in Spanish and Portuguese for Special Purposes," of Fryer and Guntermann's Spanish and Portuguese for Business and the Professions (1998).
${ }^{4}$ Appendix A (Doyle 2012a) "summarizes the eight most common types of BL [business language] courses in US higher education, as currently taught at the beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels of instruction, with their relative advantages and disadvantages. These courses range from generic courses that cover the waterfront in terms of business content, to regional or prevailing industry-specific, functional area-specific, hybrid, and business and culture courses taught in English rather than in the target foreign language" (118). Appendix B (Doyle 2012a) "outlines 11 types of existing curriculum design in a progression from the more simple and limited program (testing the waters with modules) to the more complex and vastly more rewarding transnational degree program" (119).

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# Response 1 to "Spanish for the Professions and Specific Purposes: Curricular Mainstay" 

## Spanish: A Language for Scientific and Technical Communication



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#### Abstract

Keywords: curriculum/currículo, Spanish for the Professions/español para profesiones, Spanish for Science and Technology/español para ciencias y tecnología, Spanish for Specific Purposes/español para fines específicos, technical Spanish/español técnico


In the last two decades, the demand for a curriculum that reflects the diverse needs of language learners has furthered the growth of SSP (Spanish for Specific Purposes) programs and courses across the United States, especially in areas such as law, business, and medicine (Sánchez-López 2010). And, as suggested in the article at hand, "collaborative curricular opportunities with STEM" are expected to grow in upcoming years, in fact, the expansion to scientific and technological fields was proposed to be the next natural step of SSP curricular offerings almost two decades ago (Branan 1998: 5). However, the question of what form will these collaborations take is critical, in a time where it has been stated that "English is not only the dominant form of international scientific publication and oral communication at conferences and in multinational laboratories-it is almost always the only language of such communication" (Gordin 2015: 293). Although overly generalizing, such a declaration highlights the perception that languages other than English have a peripheral role when it comes to scientific applications, raising questions about the future of Spanish for Science and Technology (SST) education.

In this respect, two volumes are key to understand the challenges and prospects of Spanish as a language of scientific communication: El español, lengua para la ciencia y la tecnología (AriasSalgado Rosby et al. 2009), and the more recent El español, lengua de comunicación científica (García Delgado, Alonso, and Jiménez 2013). Both collections describe the state of the language in contemporary science, drawing attention to the significant number of publications in Spanish, especially in the health sciences and other experimental fields. Furthermore, many authors seem to agree on the important role that Spanish plays, and will continue to play, in the dissemination of scientific and technological knowledge. In addition, it soon becomes clear that when most scholars talk about ciencia, they are discussing a broader domain than that defined by the term "science," which often refers to the physical sciences exclusively (Gordin 2015: 3). As a result, and taking the evolution of Spanish for the Health Professions (SHP) as a model (Hardin 2015), SST offerings in the United States will most likely focus on one or more of the following areas:

1) Technical translation and interpretation, to address the specialized needs of such professionals in an era of digital globalization.
2) Technical communication among peers, to facilitate the flow of knowledge across linguistic borders.
3) Communication of science and technology, to foster scientific literacy and the public dissemination of scientific and technological knowledge.

In terms of pedagogical models that could support such offerings, possible approaches include content-based instruction and languages across the curriculum (Klee and Barnes-Karol 2006), along with project-based (García González and Veiga Díaz 2015) and service-based learning (Sánchez-López 2013), either as part of stand-alone SSP certificates, as proposed in Doyle (2017), or within more general programs. And although colleges and universities are natural settings for this SSP development, one can also expect private-sector initiatives, as more and more scientists, engineers, communicators, and policy makers see the value of SST education. If we are to truly embrace cultural competence in a globalized world, the science and technology domain of language learning cannot be ignored.

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# Respuesta 2 a "Spanish for the Professions and Specific Purposes: Curricular Mainstay" 

## Hacia el asentamiento del Español para las Profesiones y Propósitos Específicos



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#### Abstract

Palabras clave: professions/profesiones, Spanish/español, Spanish for the Professions/español para profesiones, specific purposes/propósitos específicos


En este ensayo magistral, "Spanish for the Professions and Specific Purposes: Curricular Mainstay", basándose en la evolución histórica del Español para las Profesiones y Propósitos Específicos (EPPE) de los últimos 30 años, Michael Scott Doyle apuesta por el florecimiento y asentamiento de este campo como uno de los pilares curriculares paradigmáticos del futuro en programas de español. Doyle enfatiza que el éxito de los diseños curriculares de EPPE dependerá de su flexibilidad y relevancia constantes, de su continua evolución y adaptación en respuesta a las necesidades de la sociedad global del momento. Partiendo de esta acertada premisa, proponemos además reflexionar de forma émica sobre otras consideraciones de índole crítico necesarias para que EPPE avance y alcance la "normalización" disciplinaria que requiere (Lafford 2012; Lafford, Abbot y Lear 2014; Long 2013), y al mismo tiempo poder reclamar y defender el papel fundamental de la humanidades en la educación universitaria (José 2014). El campo de EPPE disfruta de un presente importante, pudiéndose predecir un futuro, cuando menos, interesante. A medida que la demanda de elementos, cursos y programas de EPPE (de grado y posgrado) continúe aumentando, deberá existir una proliferación paralela de investigación en la acción que documente, densifique y aporte "granularidad" (Doyle 2013, 2014) al desarrollo de modelos curriculares basados en la investigación de campo y en la práctica. Para que esto ocurra, será crucial que profesores de EPPE de todos los rangos consideren llevar a cabo investigación en la acción en el aula, así como otros estudios científicos para ampliar los recursos bibliográficos y pedagógicos existentes, y para mejorar las prácticas educativas (Lafford 2012, Sánchez-López 2012).

Además, deberemos reflexionar sobre las diferentes corrientes curriculares en EPPE que se hoy plantean, para así escoger la que mejor se adecúe a las necesidades de nuestra propia situación curricular, institucional y comunitaria del momento, tales como: 1) la integración de elementos de EPPE en el programa de español general por todo el diseño curricular de principio a fin; 2) la creación de cursos o programas de EPPE separados o paralelos a los de español general; 3) la integración uniforme y ecológica de las dos anteriores; y/o 4) la búsqueda de los elementos comunes entre EPPE y el Español para Fines Generales (en lugar de las diferencias) para diseñar modelos curriculares que se centren en destrezas de liderazgo aplicables a cualquier profesión. Las instituciones de educación terciaria, y en particular los departamentos de idiomas, deberán otorgar a EPPE el lugar que merece en términos de reconocimiento y financiación para poder reclamar el valor de las humanidades dentro del currículo y de la educación universitaria. Por otra parte, los programas de formación de profesorado en las facultades de pedagogía y en los programas de posgrado de español deberán invertir tanto en formación del profesorado como en entrenamiento de métodos de investigación multimodales para así romper con el sistema
autodidacta existente (Lafford 2012; Long 2013; Sánchez-López 2012; Ruggiero 2014). En suma, departamentos de idiomas universitarios más tradicionales deberán reflexionar de forma émica y mirar hacia el futuro de manera proactiva y flexible al planificar diseños curriculares a corto y largo plazo con el fin de atender las demandas y necesidades de estudiantes, comunidad, y sociedad global. Por último, EPPE no conseguirá instituirse como disciplina universalmente reconocida y valorada a menos que se establezca una estrecha comunicación y colaboración entre educadores, investigadores y organizaciones profesionales a nivel internacional. Solo abordando todas estas consideraciones lograremos asentar a EPPE en el centro del currículo de forma sistemática y universal.

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# Language Proficiency: Envisioning the Win in the High School Spanish Classroom 



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#### Abstract

This current study suggests that future secondary Spanish language teachers must be more like athletic coaches to ensure student success and score a so-called win in the classroom. Teachers must retool and redesign outdated and ineffectual curricula and instructional strategies to improve student performance. Focusing on language proficiency, measurable performance, and the development of life skills, as ACTFL's Teacher of the Year in 2014, the author reflects on myriad changes in the educational landscape such as dual language immersion programs and the adoption of the State Seal of Biliteracy. Pressures to produce a multilingual workforce are causing secondary teachers to rethink their traditional classroom practices to motivate students to perform. The abandonment of the verb charts and stale grammar lessons for the inclusion of real-world tasks and intercultural experiences in and beyond the classroom produces a win for teachers and students.


Keywords: dual language immersion/inmersión en dos lenguajes, proficiency/proficiencia, Seal of Biliteracy, secondary education/educación secundaria

The education world is experiencing a paradigm shift in which schools, programs, and teachers are being evaluated based on performance rubrics. Since the State Seal of Biliteracy became effective in January of 2012, 26 US states and the District of Columbia have adopted a State Seal of Biliteracy, which recognized high school graduates with a high level of proficiency in English and another language. The win in today's language classroom is dependent upon what students can do in Spanish. Language learning is increasingly recognized as a skill, rather than a knowledge bank of vocabulary lists and verb charts. If we want to develop users of Spanish, our focus must be on increasing student proficiency and retention by embracing the strategies used by athletic coaches to strengthen and grow player performance.

Schools have long been judged and rated based on test scores in English, mathematics, social studies and science, but due to new metrics for teacher evaluations, student outcomes in the language classroom are, for the first time, also under scrutiny. Teachers in a growing number of states are tasked with demonstrating growth in student performance. Because this is a new territory for language professionals, we have the opportunity to establish the guidelines and principles by which we will be evaluated. I propose that we begin to measure our success the way coaches do: focusing on results. The skill acquisition theory distinguishes between declarative knowledge, knowledge that consists of facts or mental performance (think vocabulary lists and verb conjugation charts), and procedural knowledge, knowledge of how an activity is done (VanPatten and Benati 2010: 149). The theory is espoused by those who study second language acquisition (SLA) theory as well as theorists in the world of athletics studying how skilled behaviors become routine and automatic (Hodges 2012: 26), similar to memorized, highly practiced novice language. The shared goal is proficiency; creating an environment in which every student can achieve their personal best, envisioning our win as the learner who leaves our classroom as a user (or future user) of the language we teach.

Language proficiency is most essential outside of the academic environment. The twentyfirst century offers our students a real world opportunity to use their language skills, but our traditional high school language sequence has failed to produce language users who can compete against their global counterparts. Consider these statistics from the US Department of Education (2010) and Eurostat (2012):

- $73 \%$ of Europeans claim to speak two or more languages well ( $46 \%$ in Great Britain), but only $25 \%$ of Americans speak a language other than English. ( $87 \%$ of those say they learned it in their childhood home-sadly only $7 \%$ cite school as setting.)
- In Europe, $90 \%$ of children begin language study at age 6 where elementary second language education is required by 20 countries. In contrast, only $15 \%$ of US public elementary schools offer language programs, even fewer are proficiency-based.
- $42 \%$ of Europeans begin learning a third language after age 12. In the United States, $91 \%$ of high schools offer world language courses, but only $44 \%$ of students enroll. Furthermore, only $50.7 \%$ of higher education institutions require foreign language study.

In spite of a growing demand for job candidates that speak one or more languages in addition to their native language, most states do not require language study at the high school level (NCSSFL 2016). The federal government has been outspoken-but neither funding nor national initiatives support their call for increased language study. Mohammed Abdel-Kader, former Deputy Assistant Secretary, US Department of Education, in his 2015 keynote speech to language advocates stated, "Language learning is not a nice to have, it's an essential." Abdel-Kader added that, "one in five jobs in the US is linked to international trade." He summed up the problem by stating that, "language learning is a civil rights narrative." In other words, when competing for jobs, students without an opportunity to learn a second or third language are now at a disadvantage.

The twenty-first century goal for all learners has changed from what students know to what students can do with that knowledge. In the past decade, educational theorists and innovators have brought us Common Core State Standards and P21.org-both are linked to preparedness for the workplace. Grant and Wiggins's (2011) Understanding by Design has become a widelyaccepted approach to creating curricula and asks the teacher to first determine what students will be able to do at the end of a unit (assessment) and then design "backward" to determine the instruction and the activities leading up to the assessments.

Other student-centered methodologies have emerged such as Project-Based Learning (PBL), which focuses on student performances of real-world tasks rather than a traditional paper and pencil test. Markham (2011) writes, "PBL integrates knowing and doing" (39). Current assessment trends in language include Integrated Performance Assessments (IPA) that mesh individual activities in each of the three modes: interpretive, interpersonal and presentational. Students combine information and perspectives gleaned from reading and listening activities (interpretive) to interact with others (interpersonal) and/or synthesize in a cohesive speech or essay (presentational). This shift to performance has spread to other curricular areas through inquiry-based labs in science and evidence-based questions in social science and provide world language departments an opportunity to take the lead and showcase our exemplars.

For far too long I have hosted Parent-Teacher Conferences during which one or more parents say, "I took two (or more) years of language and can't say anything." We need to reframe our curricular area-not as knowledge (how much vocabulary I can list or how many verbs I can conjugate), but as a skill I can use for the world of work and real communication. Avant Assessment data from 2010 suggest that many students in a two- or three-year sequence are leaving our classrooms with only a novice level of proficiency. Sadly, until students reach the Intermediate Mid proficiency range or above, their language skill is insufficient for the workplace. Vince Lombardi, legendary coach of the Green Bay Packers, when interviewed after a defeat said, "We didn't lose the game. We just ran out of time." The same can be said for language acquisition.

Language educators at the lowest level need to help students understand their language acquisition journey and include students in the goal-setting process.

I have often confessed that I have coach envy. Our student athletes demonstrate both awe and unconditional respect for whatever "coach says." A coach can be demanding and still garner loyalty and passionate obedience. I began to consider how I could adapt coaching strategies to my Spanish classroom. After some investigation, I have learned that coaches:

- are positive.
- develop confidence in every player.
- set expectations early.
- minimize coaching during the game (i.e., assessment).
- aim for improvements they know they can achieve.
- watch game footage with the players.

Claire Tristam (1996) wrote in Fast Company Magazine, "All coaches have one thing in common, it's that they are ruthlessly results-oriented" (145). According to the previously cited US Education Department data, our results have been dismal. Yes, many of us can brag about those students who scored 5s on Advanced Placement exams or who have become language teachers. Unfortunately, those successes represent only a small portion of students who began language study. The US Department of Education study The Condition of Education 2010 (Aud et al. 2010) reported that only $44 \%$ of high school students enroll in language classes and only half continue study past the second year, meaning that only $25 \%$ of our students have an opportunity to reach an Intermediate or higher level of language proficiency. We must ask ourselves why they leave before they have had enough practice to make their language skill useful. Amongst ourselves, we point to a number of reasons; the most common is that "students believe they only need 2 years of language for college entry." As high school teachers, our challenge is to make classroom learning relevant. It is time to see our students not as test-takers, but as language users; and to see ourselves as opportunity providers. We must help our students see language not as a "college entry requirement" but as a "life entry requirement." If they are to stay in our classrooms long enough to acquire language, they must be made aware of the possibilities. As educators, are we offering students rewards bigger than a transitory A on a report card?

Robert Frost said, "I am not a teacher, but an awakener" (Quotery). Our most important role is that of a visionary. We must help students envision themselves using the language with real speakers. When lesson planning, it is critical to ask: How, when, and in what real life situation will this vocabulary or structure be needed? To grow learner motivation and stamina when the task is difficult, teachers need to help students connect classroom learning to the world beyond. It is our task to help students visualize themselves using the language in the future. It takes creativity, but it is important to identify the real-world job tasks associated with your lessons to earn student buy-in. Casting a vision of what can be is what coaches do. At the beginning of the season, they plan and assess how to reach the playoffs. By setting expectations early, coaches create the notion of a team striving for the same goal.

The championship ring for a growing number of high school students across the country is the new State Seal of Biliteracy. First awarded in California, the Seal of Biliteracy is an award given by a state, district, or school to students who have demonstrated a high level of proficiency in two or more languages, one of which is English. It supports both English-language learners as well as those learning a language other than English, no matter how that language was acquired. As of January 2017, 26 states and the District of Columbia have adopted the Seal of Biliteracy and several other states are in the process (see State Seal of Biliteracy). In other states, the Seal of Biliteracy is being developed at the district level and efforts have begun to support the Seal of Biliteracy movement at the national level. In March of 2015, four organizations (e.g., ACTFL, TESOL, NCSSFL, NABE) released their collaborative Seal of Biliteracy

Guidelines, which recommend that the threshold for the award be at the intermediate-mid level or above. Rules for implementation vary by state, but in most proficiency for languages other than English will be measured through Type 1 testing such as Advanced Placement Language Exams, ACTFL's Assessment of Performance toward Proficiency in Languages (AAPPL) and STAMP (Avant Assessment), or their equivalents. Utah has chosen a two-tiered recognition that would recognize those with longer dual language or immersion sequences and those in a traditional four-year high school program. Washington awards Seal of Biliteracy recipients at Intermediate Mid (or higher) four semesters of college credit. By offering the Seal, students are made more aware of their journey toward proficiency and have increased motivation to grow their skills. Though just anecdotal at this time, after two years of adopting the Seal of Biliteracy, my school district has seen a measurable increase in upper level enrollment across all languages. Increasing retention past the second year of high school study is key to changing the monolingual paradigm and the Seal of Biliteracy can play an important role. In fact, the Illinois Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ICTFL) has created a hashtag to communicate the message: \#2bilit2quit.

Because most students in the United States do not begin second language learning until middle or high school, their counterparts around the world have the advantage of beginning a third language when our students are finally learning their first foreign language (if it is offered). When it comes to the competitive global stage, they begin behind. Though their number is increasing, there are relatively few dual language and immersion programs. Dual language and immersion programs teach content, especially sciences and social studies, in the second language. These students come to high school with broad vocabularies and can use their higher cognitive abilities to do engaging tasks in the language. For example, Advanced Placement Spanish Language and Culture standard students may struggle with the interpretation of authentic texts on world challenges such as deforestation and the scarcity of water because, unlike the contentrich materials found in an elementary language program, they may have not yet learned the words for tree, forest, or recycling. Without the strong foundation of an elementary language program, students may be able to write an organized essay, complete with transitions, but are challenged by their lack of science and social studies vocabulary to discuss important topics such as ethics in science and technology or the political and economic challenges facing the world. And yet, for my students to achieve the Illinois State Seal of Biliteracy, they must reach the intermediate-high proficiency level, which, by description, requires them to address world topics at the advanced level of proficiency at least $50 \%$ or more of the time. My hope is that states and districts adopting the Seal will expand their language programs and lengthen the learning sequences available to all students.

For those districts with dual language and immersion programs, curriculum at the high school level poses a different challenge. These students come to high school equipped with a breadth of content vocabulary (perhaps possessing more than a non-native high school language teacher), but have not had the traditional grammar sequence taught in a standard textbook curriculum. As a result, language teachers may find that the interpretive skills of these students are high, but that their presentational skills, especially with regards to accuracy, are low. For these incoming students, accustomed to content courses taught in the target language, a new four-year vertical language curriculum must be designed that includes the possibility of continuing content coursework in other curricular areas in the target language. In both scenarios, higher-level retention resulting from the Seal and an influx of Intermediate level ninth-graders, school districts may find it difficult to find staff prepared to teach advanced levels of language or qualified to teach other content and still address the students' language-acquisition needs. Envisioning the win for these language learners will require school districts to retool educators and redesign appropriate curriculum. The end result will be competent language users who will be able to use their second language alongside of whatever career path they choose to follow.

For our heritage Spanish students, the emerging need for bilingual content-area faculty may provide career opportunities.

So what about grammar? Coaching is all about personalized learning. A good coach does ongoing formative assessments to determine the skills needed, or that need to be improved, to win the game. Winning coaches plan strategically to develop athletes; preparing for future seasons. Likewise, we need to coach students as they spiral up the pathway towards language proficiency. When I asked my student athletes, "How are coaches different from teachers?" common responses included that coaches want the team to win and that coaches figure out what you need to do to improve. A lively discussion followed in which I was personally challenged to reevaluate how I differentiate instruction. Coaching manuals dictate that a coach determine the one thing can be improved that will impact the whole performance. On the other hand, like many of my peers, I have carefully graded student writing, clearly marking each error and now read that great coaches prefer to fix one "error" at a time. Metaphorically, personalized instruction means that we need to "watch the game tape" with the student and, through reflection, identify the one error that can most improve their performance. So, when it comes to grammar errors, try to focus on two aspects: 1) what Heilenman and Kaplan (1985) refer to as "conceptual control, partial control, and full control" (63); and 2) what the ACTFL performance descriptors say the student can do at their level.

Conceptual control means that a student can describe the rule, but only applies it in highly practiced, memorized contexts. A good example is adjective agreement. Students may describe themselves with regular adjectives accurately, but struggle to describe someone else-especially of the opposite gender. When describing anything other than a person, the student will demonstrate very little control. Partial control means that most of the time, regular adjectives agree, especially when describing people, but frequent errors occur when modifying gender irregular nouns and adjectives or plurals. With full control, occasional errors occur but without pattern. Language acquisition expert Steven Krashen (1982) supports the idea that in addition to knowledge of the rules, the student must have "sufficient time" in language study for the "monitor" to control output (23). This concept is supported by rubrics used to measure language performance:

- Oral Proficiency Interview: Accuracy column for Superior level performance has, "No pattern of errors in basic structures. Errors virtually never interfere with communication or distract the native speaker from the message." (See ACTFL 2012)
- ACTFL Performance Descriptors: Rubric states that the Intermediate Mid performance has "evidence of simple sentence syntax and basic present tense verb forms." The Advanced Mid performance has "frequent errors in complex sentences, spelling and punctuation." (See ACTFL 2012)
- College Board Advanced Placement Exam: A rubric score of 4 demonstrates "general control of grammar, syntax and usage; with some errors that do not impede comprehensibility." (See College Board AP Central 2016)

The hallmark of the novice language user is highly practiced, memorized language. A leading indicator that a student is moving from novice to intermediate is an increase in errors. Students begin to mix and match their acquired language chunks to "create with language." They feel enough competence to communicate their own original messages using whatever vocabulary and structures they have acquired. For students, that often means using infinitives rather than conjugated verbs during interpersonal speaking. After completing the oral proficiency interview workshop and follow-up rater training, I realized that I had often rewarded a highly memorized accurate novice performance and scored down an emerging Intermediate because of errors. I had not rewarded growth or risk-taking and may actually have inhibited it. Language educators must be more realistic when grading for accuracy or we risk sending the message to students that
they are "not good at language" and they will drop our classes before they've had enough time to acquire language. Think sports: the ball doesn't need to be dead center to score. Rather than grading for full control, look for evidence of growing control of linguistic structures. "Taught isn't caught." Caught or acquisition only comes with practice over time; do not assess for full control unless it is proficiency-level appropriate.

After much reflection on the coaching metaphor, I've changed my teaching practice to coach toward proficiency. Beginning with the premise that the teacher cannot control a student's grammar but can look to the performance descriptors to determine what is proficiency-level appropriate and what growth the teacher can foster in student language production. First, establish learning targets based on language functions and how they spiral up the proficiency ladder. Can students describe people? Places? Things? If so, they can ask and answer questions about them. They can compare and contrast. They can share a descriptive narrative. Second, expand vocabulary and the number of topics on which they can describe, ask and answer questions, compare and contrast, and narrate. Student growth can be demonstrated by the breadth of topics as well as the depth of functions and grammar. Third, seek to expand text-type to move students from the Novice word level, to the Intermediate sentence level, to the advanced paragraph-length level. Even with level one students, do not accept single word production. Gone are translations, fill-in-the-blanks, or simple identification assessments. Ask for sentences that answer multiple questions: why, where, when, how often, with whom, how well, etc. To support sentence-level production, teach simple connectors and transitions. Rather than ask level one students a variety of short answer personal questions, ask them to write a descriptive paragraph about themselves, putting the sentences in logical order. Increase how much students produce by doubling the blank lines or providing word count goals. This fostering of text-type creates a guided paragraph that builds student confidence in their growing language abilities. The same applies at upper levels. If the descriptor for an intermediate-high level and above is past narrative, begin early telling stories in the past with memorized language (e.g., "Yesterday, I went to. . . ." or "I saw . . .") Do not greet AP students with novice level questions like "Hi! How are you?" But rather, "Hi! Tell me about your weekend" to elicit past narrative. Endeavor to teach two proficiency sub-levels above students, giving them sufficient time to practice before assessment.

If I follow the coach's model, the assessment is "Game Day": an authentic situation that would happen outside of classroom walls. The practice leading up to the game would be similar, but not identical, to the assessment. Performance would be measured in all three modes: interpretive, interpersonal and presentational, ideally in an Integrated Performance Assessment (IPA). Most importantly, students would be able to see themselves doing the task in the future with a native speaker. For language educators, developing language users is the win!

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# Response 1 to "Language Proficiency: Envisioning the Win in the High School Spanish Classroom" 

# Proficiency and Languages for Specific Purposes in the K-12 Classroom 



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Keywords: agents of change/agentes de cambio, careers/carreras, interdisciplinary/interdisciplinario, Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP)/lenguas para fines específicos, professional development/ desarrollo profesional

Indeed, our students must graduate better prepared for the realities of the twenty-first-century workplace and our global society. Whether based in the United States or abroad, language and culture skills are crucial for individuals to navigate an increasingly interconnected world. In addition to the language-learning benefits of enriching the intellectual and personal components of student lives, it is paramount to emphasize real-world application of language use in everyday situations and across diverse workplace contexts. How do we collectively reach this goal as language educators?

While keeping in mind the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) frameworks and language acquisition principles, we need to introduce and model new ways of engaging our students within the classroom and beyond, showing them the relevance of language use in a myriad of personal and professional circumstances.

We must supplement curriculum with relevant, authentic resources and engage students in project-based learning. Technology is a user-friendly, interactive tool that we can use to synchronously or asynchronously collaborate on projects with classrooms anywhere in the world in the target language and culture (Redden 2014). Bringing in speakers from diverse fields, virtually or in person, who can share how they use language and cultural competence will help students reflect on future career possibilities. Interdisciplinary collaboration, particularly with individuals from career academies who regularly connect with outside professionals, also has the potential to mutually benefit all.

Whether organizing course activities with external organizations through service learning or encouraging students to get involved on their own, we should inform students of global opportunities such as participating in study abroad and volunteering with global organizations like Sister Cities, Rotary, Bi-National Chambers, and other global initiatives. Experiences like these make clear to students the relevance of language and culture in the real world.

There is a long history of the Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) approach at the postsecondary level (Lafford 2012: 3), which focuses on meeting the specific language needs with students' future goals. LSP at the K-12 level has been gaining ground, and there are now models to reference and integrate into schools as entire courses or through select lessons. Sample courses include Spanish for Healthcare, Spanish for Leadership, Spanish for the Workplace and the Community, and World Language and Business Leadership (Risner and Egúsquiza 2016: 26; Risner, Swarr, Bleess, and Graham 2017).

This process of integrating LSP concepts in mainstream courses may seem daunting and does require educators to collaborate with those in fields different from their own. However, just as we ask our students to take risks in learning, we, as educators, must be open to new challenges. Similar to scaffolding to guide students, support must be in place to guide the shift in world language educator mindset and practices. Support should be provided through renewed and relevant professional development at multiple levels-from schools to districts to professional associations. Some examples would be interactive events with dialogue resulting in action to improve teaching and learning, exposing educators to non-academic contexts through industry site visits, and demonstrating the use of technology to bring the world to the classroom through telecollaboration. These kinds of activities would model effective practices in the classroom, empowering educators to implement them. Through professional learning networks, we must also find effective methods for sharing and disseminating innovative materials that are meeting the demands of the future by collaborating and maximizing time and resources.

I invite teachers and administrators to accept this challenge as leaders in the advancement of the field of world language education to prepare our students for twenty-first-century realities. How will you become an agent of change by taking risks and innovating in your classroom; at your institution; or as a member of state, regional, and national professional associations?

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# Response 2 to "Language Proficiency: Envisioning the Win in the High School Spanish Classroom" 

# Monolingualism is the Illiteracy of the Twenty-First Century 



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#### Abstract

Keywords: cultural competence/competencia cultural/competência cultural, dual language/dos lenguas/ duas línguas, multilingual skills/destrezas multilingües/habilidades multilíngues, university coursework in high school/cursos universitarios durante escuela secundaria/cursos universitários no ensino médio


Monolingualism is the illiteracy of the twenty-first century. On today's world stage, multilingual skills and cultural competence have taken lead roles in building a future global workforce. In response, the state of Utah is implementing an ambitious and unprecedented initiative to ameliorate language skills that address the state's business, government, and education needs. In 2008, under the visionary leadership of former Governor Jon Huntsman and State Senator Howard Stephenson, the Utah Legislature passed Senate Bill 41 (2008), providing funding for Dual Language Immersion (DLI) and charging the Utah State Office of Education (USOE) with creating a world-class DLI program. Utah's quest is to provide all students with the opportunity to become linguistically proficient and culturally competent in multiple languages. This means mainstreaming DLI for students of diverse abilities across all socioeconomic, ethnic, rural, urban, large and small school communities throughout the state (Leite and Cook 2015). Legislators and business leaders believe this to be a critical long-term investment in the viability and vitality of Utah's future economic competitiveness.

In addition, Utah is committed to being responsive to the priorities of the native-speaking and heritage populations thriving in its communities (Eaton 2016). Utah is favored with the significant presence of a large Hispanic community and a fast growing Brazilian community, for whom the priority of preserving and passing on to future generations the rich tapestry of their language and culture parallels the state's goal of eradicating monolingualism. Therefore, both the Spanish and Portuguese DLI programs have intentionally grounded their respective literacy programs in the principles of responsive curriculum and instruction by 1 ) adopting authentic programs developed by and designed for native speakers, rich with cultural references; 2) embracing pedagogy that is highly student centered; 3) creating channels to facilitate meaningful interpersonal connections for the students through school partnerships with Brazil and Spanish speaking countries; 4) purposely hiring highly qualified international teachers from Brazil, Mexico, Peru, and Spain, who bring their native language and culture live to the classroom, validating the cultural and linguistic identity of our native-speaking and heritage students!

DLI in Utah enjoys broad-based, cross-sectional support from our state community. Currently, there are 87 Spanish ( 30 two-way, 29 one-way, 28 secondary) and 6 Portuguese DLI schools in the state. With a rich diversity of languages, Utah also has 47 Chinese ( 33 one-way, 14 secondary), 20 French ( 13 one-way, 7 secondary), and 2 German DLI schools, with plans to add Russian and Arabic in the future. Utah DLI will serve over 32,000 students for the 2016-17 school year across 22 school districts and four charters from every corner of Utah. Despite the rapid increase in the number of schools, the state still falls short of meeting the current demand, as seen by the long wait lists that are common throughout the state.

Utah educational leaders thoughtfully and intentionally selected a model that is not only rooted in research-based principles and practices of second language teaching, but is also responsive to the political landscape of the state and best meets its students' needs. Utah's DLI schools implement a fifty-fifty, two-teacher model for grades K-6, in which students spend half of their school day in the target language and the other half-day in English (Watzinger-Tharp, Swenson, and Mayne 2016). In grades seven and eight, the program offers a world language honors course and a culture, history and media course. In grade nine, participating students are expected to enroll in Advanced Placement (AP) language coursework and complete the AP exam or its language specific equivalent.

Recently, Utah's K-12 program became a K-16 reality with the passage of Senate Bill 152 (2016), sponsored by State Senator Howard Stephenson. Utah students will continue accelerated learning with the opportunity for accelerated rewards through access to upper division, 3000 level university coursework. These courses will be available to students in grades ten, eleven, and twelve through a blended learning model offered by an alliance between public and higher education, including six state universities. This opportunity is available not only to DLI students, but to any student who passes the AP test, particularly thousands of native speakers of Spanish and Portuguese across Utah. Students will continue enhancing their language proficiency in high school while earning 9.0 university credits, nearly completing a minor in the language by the time they graduate and thus forging a bridge forward to their college education. The goal of this articulated $\mathrm{K}-12$ curriculum is to see the state's students enter universities equipped with language skills at the advanced level of proficiency. To plan for this, specific proficiency goals for every DLI language program have been set at each grade level in all four language modes: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

The DLI Initiative is a win-win undertaking for Utah because it builds capacity for economic prosperity, gives parents choice in education, better meets the instructional needs of EL students, honors the cultural and linguistic heritage of its native-speaking populations, and provides Utah's students with the skills they need to be competitive in twenty-first-century academia and the global marketplace. Our goal is to eradicate monolingualism, since it leaves our students under-skilled and unrehearsed to star on the stage of a global environment. Moreover, Utah has embraced the responsibility to make DLI a national priority by leading collaborative efforts, building language networks, and mentoring other states to make DLI programs equally accessible to students outside of Utah. In the pioneering spirit of its history, Utah is undaunted in its quest to mainstream DLI for all students everywhere.

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# Writing in Spanish as a Second and Heritage Language: Past, Present, and Future 



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#### Abstract

In recent years, writing in Spanish as a foreign or heritage language has assumed more prominence in research and curricular policy in the United States. Increasing numbers of heritage language learners, the emergence of social media tools, renewed interest in writing genres, and changing instruction methods have all influenced how we understand writing and writers. This article provides a brief overview of the aspects of writing that are currently pertinent in pedagogical and research contexts, and suggests what writing practices might look like in the future.


Keywords: literacy/alfabetización, multimodality/multimodalidad, social tools/herramientas sociales, theoretical frameworks/marcos teóricos, writing in the heritage language/escritura en la lengua de herencia, writing in the second language/escritura en la segunda lengua

## Introduction

Inclined heads over phone, tablet, or laptop while fingers run across keyboards: this is a very typical image of today's world and today's classroom. People are actually writing more frequently, even though their messages might be fragmented or brief, and often unintelligible to people outside their immediate community. Not since communicative approaches to teaching foreign languages (FLs) dominated our pedagogical scene has writing in Spanish as a FL attracted our attention so keenly. Our understanding of the act of writing is being shaped in different and exciting ways by the acknowledgement of FL and Spanish heritage language (SHL) learners' different needs and the integration of social tools in the FL classroom that foster writing as the preferred form of communication. Yet, despite our renewed attention to writing practices, our specific knowledge of writing in Spanish as a FL or heritage language (HL) is still limited. Instructors still have an incomplete understanding of how students approach writing in languages that are not their L1 (or dominant language in the case of HL learners in the United States). Thus, this essay aims to identify issues in FL and HL writing contexts that are currently pertinent in language education pedagogy and to propose what writing practices might look like in the future. Because interest in Spanish language education is increasing, especially in the United States, this is a good time to explore how pedagogical inquiry and research can help develop writing literacy in Spanish in a way that meets the academic, professional, and personal needs of all learners (Elola 2007).

## The Status of Writing in the Spanish-language Classroom

Even though writing in Spanish as an FL or HL has been less explored in comparison to English as a second language (ESL) or as L1, writing as a skill has been incorporated into US curriculum frameworks, operated under the National Standards, and assessed by guidelines
created by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. From a pedagogical perspective, there is a tendency to regard writing primarily as a language exercise rather than as a complex act in which linguistic accuracy is intertwined with considerations of genre, organization, content, style, and multimodality (O'Donnell 2007). Traditionally, elementary-level FL textbooks have used writing activities to practice aspects of grammar and vocabulary use, whereas intermediate and advanced-level textbooks have focused on writing genres and provided grammar and vocabulary to support learners as they experiment with their use.

The view of writing as either a language exercise or a rhetorical endeavor has also shaped instructional approaches. Writing as a way to practice linguistic skills has been the usual approach (O'Donnell 2007); however, this traditional view has been expanding from process-based approaches, where the writing process is broken into interrelated stages such as planning, drafting, and revising, to the incorporation of task-based approaches, which offer holistic activities to further language learning by means of a process, a product, or both (Bygate and Samuda 2008). These approaches, in turn, have allowed instructors to start perceiving their role as writing instructor as much as language instructor.

In parallel with changing instructional approaches, writing research in Spanish has moved in new directions: it has explored aspects of language production, such as accuracy within FL populations (Elola and Oskoz 2010; Félix-Brasdefer and Greenslade 2006), SHL populations (Lado and Yanguas 2012), or both (Elola and Mikulski 2016; Potowski 2007); appropriateness of register (Colombi 2009); or the use of contrastive rhetoric within SHL or FL writers' practices (Elola and Mikulski 2016; Spicer-Escalante 2007). Within cognitive frameworks, several studies have looked at FL learners' interactions during writing tasks (Lee 2012) as well as FL and HL learners' interactions (Bowles 2011; Giglio-Henshaw 2013); the impact of feedback on FL learners' accuracy (Elola and Oskoz 2016; Félix-Brasdefer and Greenslade 2006) and on composition conventions (Elola and Oskoz 2010); and HL learners' writing processes through think-aloud protocols (Schwartz 2003) and time allocation (Elola and Mikulski 2016). Some recent sociocultural studies have focused on collaborative writing, comparing FL individual versus collaborative writing (Elola and Oskoz 2010) and observing FL and HL learners' interactions when writing collaboratively (Valentín-Rivera 2015); assessing FL language production improvement (Castañeda and Cho 2013; Valentín-Rivera, 2015); analyzing cooperation through the use of feedback (Lee 2012); evaluating tasks' effects on FL writers (Oskoz and Elola 2014); and documenting interrelationships between FL writers and social tools (Elola and Oskoz 2014). Finally, following semiotic perspectives, multimodal texts (including text, images, and sound) have been created through digital storytelling (Oskoz and Elola 2016). In the last decade, research into the status and nature of Spanish FL or HL writing, as well as tailoring instructional approaches to the challenges of writing in Spanish in the twenty-first century, has thrived mainly on the basis of the integration of technology in classroom practices and the notable increase of heritage language learners in US Spanish language courses, either in mixed or specific HL classes.

## Heritage Language Learners' Writing

From a historical research perspective, research on SHL writing has focused on the reasons for grammatical and orthographical deficiencies and how to address them. Although these issues have been observed through a variety of analyses, such as text analysis (Teschner 1981) and corpus analysis (Beaudrie, 2012), through interventions such as think-aloud protocols (Lado and Yanguas 2012; Schwartz 2003) or the use of screencast devices (Elola and Mikulski 2016), an unevenness can be observed in overall proficiency across a variety of registers in SHL learners' written Spanish. This appears to be linked to the fact that these learners develop their language skills in informal settings and have usually received their formal education in English (Colombi 41: 2009). Typical linguistic issues may be orthographical mistakes stemming from gender agreement (Bowles 2011) or where single phonemes have several graphemic representations (Beaudrie
2012)—issues which are understandable when learners write by ear (Callahan 2010). Asking SHL learners to make their writing resemble standard forms, however, raises questions about 1) the role of vernacular language in contemporary writing conventions; 2) judgments about correctness made on the basis of non-linguistic considerations, such as social prestige (Carreira and Potowski 146: 2011); and 3) variations in learners' language selection and production that are influenced by considerations of genre (Martinez 39: 2007).

Since most SHL learners are being taught in mixed classes, it is essential to consider the dynamics of these groups and to adopt approaches to writing that are anchored in research. Cognitive studies, for example, indicate that SHL learners depend on their FL partner to resolve language-related problems associated with orthography and accent placement, whereas FL learners rely on SHL learners to solve lexical problems (Bowles 2011); FL learners not only incorporate more linguistic information in matched FL-FL dyads than in FL-SHL ones, but SHL learners benefit less than their FL counterparts (Giglio-Henshaw 2013); or following activity theoretical perspectives, both FL and SHL learners benefit at the linguistic and writing convention levels when using specific tasks (Valentín-Rivera 2015). Yet, these results may be inconsistent due to some learners using controlled activities (cloze tests) rather than free writing tasks (open-ended prompts) or may be due to differences in learners' proficiency levels. Furthermore, the type of learner interaction, such as dominant-dominant, dominant-passive, or collaborative-collaborative (as explored in Valentín-Rivera's 2015 study) may trigger better linguistic and writing performance than traditional pairings based solely on linguistic proficiency. Thus, sharing metalinguistic knowledge appears to bring different degrees of mutual benefits to learners and has the potential to promote the writers' own learning.

The writing process is another area that has been explored within cognitive parameters. Schwartz's (2003) study using think-aloud protocols showed that SHL learners tend to rehearse and repeat the text in their attempt to express their ideas better, perform more surface than deep-level revisions, and plan and revise throughout the writing process. In screencast analyses of SHL writers' Spanish and English writing processes that compared time allocation, Elola and Mikulski (2011) noted that learners tend to allocate similar amounts of time to composing and revising in each language but spend more time planning between sentences when writing in Spanish, and they write more fluently and accurately in English. These results signal several pedagogical implications: 1) the need to use process-writing approaches in the SHL classroom to encourage learners to take advantage of their acquired knowledge from their home communities as well as to transfer writing processes acquired in L1 English composition courses; and 2) the application first of low-stakes writing assignments to familiarize SHL learners with writing in Spanish, allowing them to draw upon personal experiences before introducing more formal, academic assignments.

Besides writing approaches, few SHL studies have explored instruction methods. In Jill Jegerski, Kara Morgan-Short and Kim Potowski's (2009) study, for instance, SHL learners generally did not seem to benefit from traditional or input processing instruction regarding linguistic gains as much as their FL peers. However, Valentín-Rivera (2015) found that SHL learners benefited more than their FL counterparts from explicit or implicit instruction on aspectual distinction (preterit versus imperfect) as well as from the use of explicit or implicit feedback. Traditionally, efficacy of instruction has been assessed through the measurement of linguistic gains, but this view limits SHL learners' exploration of writing as a complex act that encompasses the many structural, contextual, and organizational features inherent in a text. Hence, more holistic approaches are needed to better promote and value SHL learners' writing.

## Technology in the Spanish Language Classroom

Acknowledging the ubiquity of technology in the language classroom, educators and researchers have been keen to investigate how technology can be best integrated into the FL
writing curriculum. Two areas have dominated current research: 1) web platforms and software that support the Spanish language curriculum (hybrid courses) and foster independent learning (flipping courses); and 2) the use of social tools, such as wikis, Facebook, and blogs that support individual and collaborative writing and the emergence of new genres. Online platforms, programs, assessment tools, and games are being used increasingly because of their potential to aid learners' linguistic development by allowing for out-of-classroom learning experiences. Spanish hybrid courses are able to support higher-level functions, such as more complex writing (Saury and Scida 2006); improve learners' writing more efficiently than face-to-face classrooms (Thoms 2012); and promote linguistic development through writing activities (Moreno 2007). These platforms allow learners to improve their writing through resources such as better-assisted linguistic references and automatic feedback (Elola and Oskoz 2014).

Similarly, introducing the use of social tools has been advantageous from a linguistic point of view (Elola and Oskoz 2010; Lee 2012); however, it has also brought two other areas of practice into sharp focus: the inclusion of collaborative work as a complement to individual writing and the emergence of new (digital) genres. Collaborative writing in FL classrooms has thrived due to the advent of social tools that allow learners to work synchronously or asynchronously with others inside or outside the classroom. Studies in this area have explored Spanish-American intercultural exchanges using blogs, Moodle, and podcasts (Lee 2009); collaborative versus individual writing tendencies (Elola and Oskoz 2010); the affordances of social tools in Spanish academic contexts-the use of discussion boards for idea generation and wikis and chats for developing content, structure, and accuracy (Elola and Oskoz 2010); the effect of tasks (argumentative versus expository essays) on linguistic and structural performance (Oskoz and Elola 2014); and the impact of different types of corrective feedback when delivered in online intercultural projects (Muñoz and Vinagre 2011), in blogs (Lee 2012), or in GoogleDocs (Valentín-Rivera 2015).

More recently, the notion of genre has received well-deserved attention due to new concepts of text that integrate several modalities (e.g., written words, images, sounds). Although traditional academic genres adapt well to the use of social tools, such as wikis and Google Docs (Elola and Oskoz 2010; Valentín-Rivera 2015), there is a growing interest in how to introduce the creation of texts that integrate non-verbal modalities. Certainly, learners are familiar with multimodal texts in their daily lives, and so bringing these modalities into the classroom will be increasingly relevant to learners' expectations. As a result, the burgeoning number of studies on digital stories (i.e., creation of written scripts integrating print, sounds, and images) reflects our changing understanding of literacy, assessment practice, and genre (Oskoz and Elola 2016). Without a doubt, technology and, particularly, new (social) tools are altering how our Spanish learners approach writing; thus, Spanish instructors need to explore how academic assignments can be combined with non-traditional genres, such as blogging, storytelling, and postings, and how they can be integrated into the curriculum to enrich linguistic development.

## The Next Step

The current focus on writing in Spanish language classrooms reflects recent exploration and innovation in the area of writing instruction and performance. The integration of new technologies and acknowledgement of the diversity of learner populations has initiated welcome dialogue and change. Although the pedagogic aim is still to write well and accurately in Spanish, we also need to acknowledge the authenticity of vernacular language in student writing; this acknowledges Spanish language varieties and also questions language standardization. In practice, this means shifting our notions about errors when SHL learners follow norms from their spoken communities that differ from traditional academic or class-based norms.

Future SHL and FL writing curricula and instructional changes should:

1) see the act of writing as a step-by-step process of planning and composing.
2) create tasks based on both academic and new or less-academic genres.
3) incorporate and value learners' opinions and reflections about writing in Spanish, which may well reflect their future professional or personal needs (Hedgcock and Lefkowitz 2011) or aspirations to attain language mastery or avoid language loss (Callahan 2010).
4) include collaborative work not only for metalinguistic purposes but also to expand learners' experience with new or unfamiliar genres.
5) tailor individual writing needs through the development of hybrid courses or flipping-classroom-like programs that meet the needs of both FL and SHL learners.
6) prepare learners for new technologies, such as gaming and virtual reality, insofar as these encourage linguistic growth and creativity.
7) help our learners to be multiliterate and effective writers.

To support these changes, it is imperative to increase research on instructional approaches, to connect research findings to the realities of the FL and SHL classroom, and to make highly technical research findings accessible to instructors with no background in theoretical linguistics or second-language acquisition (Carreira and Potowski 2011). At the same time, we need more research in the areas of genre and semiotics to understand how diverse modes may be intertwined and integrated to create new kinds of text; similarly, we need to see the development of effective assessment tools for texts created in a variety of registers. Only then can we guarantee that our learners will become effective communicators in tomorrow's collaborative and multi-literate learning environment.

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# El español como lengua de herencia 



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Palabras clave: heritage language/lengua de herencia, sociolinguistics/sociolingüística, Spanish/español, United States/Estados Unidos

El español como lengua de herencia constituye hoy un foco investigador emergente para distintas disciplinas. Dicho foco eclosiona en el contexto educativo de las lenguas minoritarias en los Estados Unidos. Como es sabido, en este país, demográficamente, el español lidera el grupo de las lenguas no nativas. Pero, recientemente, se cuestiona que en el medio académico se otorgue al español dicho estatus de lengua no nativa y se reivindica la necesidad pedagógica de diseñar programas específicos para los alumnos de herencia hispánica. En efecto, en las aulas estadounidenses de español como lengua extranjera se revela este hecho diferencial: el alumnado hispano, genealógicamente, posee vínculos con el español y sus variedades, obviados, hasta ahora, en el diseño educativo.

Esta circunstancia está cobrando particular énfasis en el actual panorama investigador de la didáctica y de la pedagogía. Los primeros avances proceden de estas disciplinas y se cifran, principalmente, en diagnosticar dos sistemas de adquisición en las clases de español como lengua no nativa: el de los alumnos monolingües de inglés, por una parte, y el de los alumnos diglósicos de herencia hispánica, por otra. Sensu estricto, la didáctica de lenguas extranjeras es adecuada solo para el primer grupo, mientras que para el segundo resultaría más idóneo introducir algunos postulados didácticos de lengua materna. Este primer diagnóstico incluye también los principales rasgos de los estudiantes de herencia hispánica en el contexto estadounidense, a saber: 1) adquisición extraescolar de impronta oral, con débil base gramatical; 2) baja autoestima del español adquirido por herencia, al identificarlo con una variedad estigmatizada social y académicamente; y 3) idealización del español peninsular, identificado como único estándar prestigioso para la norma escrita.

Toda vez que ese perfil de alumnado revela el arraigo de creencias idiomáticas desmitificadas en la lingüística hispánica actual, esta disciplina incursiona, tímidamente, como complemento en los programas pioneros para estudiantes de herencia. Pese a estas incipientes experiencias didáctico-lingüísticas, el primer status quaestionis sobre este nuevo foco investigador señala como próximo reto un diálogo interdisciplinar, que, verdaderamente, conecte en un programa de actuación coherente los campos de la pedagogía, la psicolingüística, la sociolingüística y la lingüística hispánica (Díaz-Campos 2014).

A este respecto, seguidamente, se indica qué puede aportar la lingüística hispánica en ese nuevo reto de diálogo interdisciplinar. Según el diagnóstico ya presentado, el estudiante de herencia necesita objetivar su conexión con el contexto sociohistórico y cultural del español, en perspectiva intra- y extranacional. Se trata de que el alumnado desmitifique los falsos prejuicios sobre su vernáculo, a la luz de los conceptos técnicos de variación y cambio lingüísticos, presentados en el aula de forma muy divulgativa. Para ello, la lingüística hispánica ofrece herramientas
teóricas y descripciones idiomáticas adecuadas para que el alumno de herencia ponga en valor su propia adquisición del español en el contexto social inmediato. El acercamiento lingüístico a hechos básicos de variación diafásica, diastrática y diatópica favorece una incipiente reflexión técnica sobre el vernáculo, que suele ser deficitaria en el estudiante de herencia. Ilustrar esos parámetros variacionales con ejemplos prototípicos del geolecto estadounidense y sus variedades internas entraña también potenciar las conexiones culturales relevantes del entorno idiomático (Escobar y Potowski 2015: 265). Un caso práctico, en lo atinente a la escritura, podríamos encontrarlo en actividades que involucren el paisaje lingüístico estadounidense, atendiendo a las recientes descripciones lingüísticas. En definitiva, se trata de acercar estratégicamente al alumno de herencia al idearium plurinormativo internacional de la lengua española, partiendo de su realidad nacional.

Desde la perspectiva lingüística, el marco teórico subyacente a este planteamiento se sustenta en los conceptos de estandarización policéntrica y de política panhispánica. El primer concepto supone ampliar el número de focos estandarizadores del español en ambas márgenes del Atlántico. Consecuentemente, la visión eurocéntrica del español que establece la norma centropeninsular como único referente de prestigio carece de vigor en los planteamientos de la lingüística hispánica actual y desbarata los falsos mitos perpetuados, aun hoy, en los estudiantes de herencia. Por otra parte, el concepto de política panhispánica se vincula con la última codificación oficial del español, que implanta un nuevo enfoque plurinormativo. Las últimas obras gramaticales y lexicográficas de la Real Academia Española, oficialmente, censuran el respeto a la diversidad de modelos lingüísticos en la geografía de la lengua española.

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# Spanish and Portuguese for All in Twenty-First-Century Community Colleges in the United States 



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#### Abstract

The challenges and opportunities facing Spanish and Portuguese faculty, students, and programs in the twenty-first century are both numerous and significant. A careful consideration of the realities of teaching and learning in this sector, combined with an examination of current and future trends and statistics, provides a framework for identifying and addressing challenges and maximizing opportunities going forward to provide quality programs in Spanish and Portuguese for all students and faculty at community colleges in the United States.


Keywords: community college, completion agenda, free community college/universidad de dos años gratis, Spanish and Portuguese enrollment trends/tendencias de matriculación en programas de español y portugués, twenty-first century/siglo XXI

TThe community college sector promises to be an important and dynamic component in the matrix of higher education in the twenty-first century. Currently, there is intense focus on these institutions, their missions, their importance in terms of economics, and their value within the landscape of higher education in the United States. Internationally, countries as diverse as India, China, and several countries in Latin America are working to establish this uniquely American model within their own systems of higher education. At the same time, there have been loud and clear calls from significant voices, including that of former President Barack Obama, within the United States, to provide free community college for all. In fact some states, including Tennessee and Oregon, have already moved to do so. At the national level, America's College Promise Act of 2015, which would make two years of community college free and provide affordable access to a four-year degree, was introduced in July of 2015 by Sen. Tammy Baldwin (D-WI) and Rep. Bobby Scott (D-VA), although it was not voted on in that legislative session.

The community-college-for-all initiative coincides with a growing clamor to provide languages for all within the United States and in other English-speaking countries to meet a current shortage of language specialists (see The Heart of the Matter 2013; Succeeding Globally 2012; and Demand and Supply of Language Skills in the UK 2013, America's Languages, 2017). It is likely that much of this task will fall to community colleges in the United States. Certainly Spanish and, to a growing extent, Portuguese will have a prominent role to play.

## The Current Community College Reality

It is an exciting and challenging time for community colleges-and for language programs within these institutions. In What Excellent Community Colleges Do: Preparing All Students for Success, Joshua Wyner (2014) describes the complex mission of these institutions: "The community college has emerged as the primary 'on-ramp' to a bachelor's degree as well as the
'off ramp' to a job. It is the interface not only between high school and a four-year college, but also between would-be workers and employers. The modern community college is the gateway for poor, minority, and immigrant students who seek to realize the American Dream." (141) The importance of the sector cannot be denied, nor can the fact that these institutions are at a crossroads. Paradoxically, funding is dwindling at the same time that outside regulation is expanding, while community colleges continue to be, as one president of a large community college in Maryland puts it, "a destination of hope" for nearly half the undergraduates in the United States (Pollard 2015). While recent political developments may threaten to undermine this dream, many forces are at work to maintain and strengthen the community college role in US higher education.

The American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) publishes data annually regarding US community colleges, their students, and faculty. These data are revealing, not only in terms of the numbers of students served- 12.3 million between credit and non-credit offerings, but also in terms of the demographics of the students served. 7.3 million of these take credit-bearing transferable offerings. The most recent data available reveal that community college students represent:

- $41 \%$ of all US undergraduates
- $40 \%$ of all first-time freshmen
- $56 \%$ of all Native American students
- $40 \%$ of all Asian/Pacific Islander students
- $43 \%$ of all Black students and
- $52 \%$ of all Hispanic students in the United States (up from $49 \%$ in 2011)

This last statistic-and the fact that it has risen dramatically in recent years while all other groups besides Black students have dropped-is of particular importance in considering curricula at community colleges in the twenty-first century.

In terms of language enrollments within the sector, in the most recent Modern Language Association (MLA) Survey (2013), Spanish represented $60 \%$ of all two-year college language enrollments. Total Spanish enrollments in two-year colleges, which had risen steadily between 1983 and 2009, were at 201,154 in the fall of 2013 , a $14 \%$ drop since the previous survey. (Spanish enrollments in four-year colleges experienced a $5.7 \%$ drop and enrollments in graduate programs experienced at $20.5 \%$ drop since the previous survey.) This is the first time that this number has dropped in the history of the survey. Of particular note is the fact that $34.7 \%$ of total undergraduate Spanish enrollments are at two-year colleges. This is down dramatically from nearly $42 \%$ in 2009. Total Portuguese enrollments in two-year colleges, while modest in numbers, had increased $35.4 \%$ between 2002 and 2009, but experienced a precipitous decrease of $27.7 \%$ between 2009 and 2013 while Portuguese enrollments in four-year colleges increased $13.5 \%$ in the same period. This is another statistic that bears watching within the community college sector.

Some of the possible reasons for this decline in Spanish and Portuguese enrollments may be fairly straightforward. It certainly reflects a decrease in college enrollment overall, a general drop in community college enrollments, which is due in part to an improving economy (community college enrollments typically surge under difficult economic conditions) and in part to demographic shifts in the high school population. The latter is a shift that will be reversed in the next few years. The decline in Spanish also reflects a decrease in all undergraduate Spanish enrollments-a first in the history of the MLA survey. Of greater concern is the possibility that this steep decline in Portuguese at the community college level, and to a lesser extent, the drop in Spanish, may also be an unfortunate consequence of the implementation of "completion agenda" initiatives, as described below, sweeping the nation's community colleges.

Faculty at community colleges are also a diverse group of professionals who are dedicated to the art and science of teaching. The AACC reports that $28 \%$ of all full-time faculty in the humanities hold terminal degrees and $69 \%$ hold masters' degrees. (Those not holding advanced degrees often teach in very specific programs and are accomplished professionals with deep experience.) Of concern, however, is the fact that nationwide the majority of instruction is delivered by qualified part-time faculty who frequently teach at several institutions and are often on campus only to fulfill their classroom responsibilities. While the growing use of part-time faculty is an issue at all levels, the problem has been particularly acute at community colleges. Some institutions, like Maricopa Community College, are taking active steps to reverse this ratio and support the centrality of teaching in the community college mission (see AACC 2013). It should be noted that the full-time to part-time faculty ratio can be even less desirable in language departments that rely on part-time faculty to teach less highly enrolled languages. This is certainly the case with Portuguese at many community colleges.

## Challenges and Opportunities for the Community College in the Twenty-First Century

In addition to swings in demographics and enrollments, the twenty-first century community college faces a number of very real challenges. As noted in a previous article in Hispania on the topic of languages in community colleges, a primary challenge for these institutions is a seemingly perennial issue-the lack of proper articulation agreements in many areas between two- and four-year institutions, a problem that plagues community college students nationwide (Fechter 2010: 76). The call for clearer articulation in language education between community colleges and four-year schools is also underscored in the white paper Languages for All? Final Report. (Abbott, Brecht, Davidson, Fenstermacher, Fischer, Rivers, Slater, Weinstein and Wiley 2014). There are wildly different systems of transfer and articulation from state to state and students definitely lose time, credit, and money, an undeniable impediment to student success and completion. Bailey, Jaggars, and Jenkins (2015) in Redesigning America's Community Colleges: A Clearer Path to Student Success cite sobering evidence that speaks to the seriousness of this issue (27-31). The fact that in many cases students cannot seamlessly progress in a language between these two types of institutions is not only a disservice to the more than 200,000 students studying Spanish and Portuguese at community colleges, but also negatively impacts upper-level enrollments and matriculation in language majors and minors at four-year institutions. (Fechter 2010: 79).

Increasingly, however, states are mandating smoother articulation policies and procedures between and among state institutions, and community colleges are vigorously developing and signing tight articulation agreements with their four-year counterparts. There is a golden opportunity going forward for Spanish and Portuguese community college faculty to actively participate in these efforts and to take advantage of these initiatives to ensure that their courses become part of these agreements, either as part of a major or in fulfillment of general education requirements.

As noted above, a significant challenge to community colleges and to Spanish and Portuguese programs in this sector has been presented by what is known as The Completion Agenda and corollary mandated "pathways" to degree completion. The Completion Agenda represents a nationwide effort to support the goal to increase the number of students who complete degrees, certificates, and other credentials by $50 \%$ within the next decade. A strategy that is quickly gaining attention from legislatures nationwide and from foundations that support The Completion Agenda is the incorporation of mandated pathways-set educational plans that will guide students through a curriculum to degree completion. While Bailey, Jaggars, and Jenkins (2015) present convincing evidence of the effectiveness of such plans, Spanish and Portuguese programs in two-year colleges would do well to monitor this trend carefully as the twenty-first-century
progresses. Set pathways to completion may or may not include languages at the two-year level, but students will certainly be less likely to stray from these paths and choose to explore the study of a language on their own. When these pathways do include languages, community colleges are likely to see increased pressure on Spanish programs, possibly to the exclusion of others. Finally, recently adopted federal financial aid regulations require that federal funds can only be used toward courses that are required for a student's program of study. If languages do not fulfill an element of a student's declared program of study, that student is far less likely to enroll. Once again, it is imperative that language faculty be at the table as guided pathways through programs are articulated.

Assuming that the completion agenda initiatives take a more inclusive and expansive path for student choice and do not relegate less-commonly enrolled languages (or languages in general) to the category of impediments to completion, there is likely to be a return to the previous trend of steadily increasing enrollments in both languages at the community college. Spanish, in particular, may experience a surge when pathways to the undergraduate degree are specified as part of the Complete College America agenda. It is the case currently in some states, including Washington and North Carolina, that students are advised to complete their undergraduate language requirement at the community college. A very positive outcome of the completion agenda is the fact that the unfavorable ratio of full- to part-time faculty is increasingly seen as an impediment to student success and completion. Ideally, increased efforts to rectify this situation will begin to take funding priority.

Adding to the host of challenges facing community colleges and the language programs in that sector is The Development, Relief, and Education for Alien Minors (DREAM) Act. The DREAM Act, should it survive, also presents exciting opportunities for community colleges in the twenty-first century. The act provides tuition benefits for undocumented students who completed high school in the United States. Most "dreamers" begin at community colleges; in fact, in some states, such as Maryland and Florida, they are required to begin at a community college and complete their degree in order to be eligible for the tuition benefit at four-year institutions in the state. The vast majority ( $88.6 \%$ ) of "dreamers" are heritage speakers of Spanish and, of these, most are from Mexico (see American Immigration Council 2012). At the writing of this current essay, more than twenty states have passed DREAM legislation. The influx of these students, coupled with the fact that $57 \%$ of all Hispanic undergraduates in the United States study at community colleges, has clear implications for curricular offerings at these institutions. Spanish faculty at community colleges have a tremendous opportunity here to reshape their current curricula for heritage learners, to create these offerings if they do not currently exist, and to fully develop a coherent program for heritage learners that articulates with their transfer institutions. While this is a situation that bears watching in the current political climate, the trend to this point has been unmistakable. It is certainly prudent to prepare to adequately meet the needs of these learners.

The ever-increasing numbers of Hispanic students on community college campuses coincides with a national focus on the disparity in completion rates between Hispanic and African American students and their white and Asian counterparts at all levels of education. Given the statistics noted above, this is especially acute at community colleges. Closing the achievement gap initiatives are being developed and closely monitored at community colleges nationwide. Spanish programs at community colleges here are facing a golden opportunity to improve the success rates of their Latino students whose first language is Spanish, but who were educated primarily in English. While it has been understood for some time that literacy in the first language can be a high predictor of academic success in children (e.g., Cummins 1991; Cook 1990), heritage learner programs are languishing, with many community colleges offering one or two courses at best. There are few well-articulated, coherent programs at this level, yet there is reason to believe that increasing first-language literacy can positively impact student success.

Dual (or simultaneous) enrollment in high school and community colleges represents a significant and growing trend in the sector. In some districts, dual enrollees earn both high school and college credit; in others, they are completing their last high school requirements and have time to take a college course for college credit only. For example, in the state of Maryland, dual enrollment increased $47 \%$ between 2013 and 2014 (see MLDS Center 2016). Some high schools are seeking offerings in languages other than Spanish and French. There is an opportunity for increasing enrollments in Portuguese through this avenue. There is also some unrealized potential for offering more credit-bearing advanced Spanish courses through dual enrollment.

The sector is also experiencing constant calls for innovation in delivery systems and course formats, including online and hybrid or blended offerings. The profession is witnessing a surge in the use of app-based technologies to bring languages to hand-held devices and community college instructors increasingly utilize these technologies in both face-to-face and online offerings. The contributions of technology in teaching language and culture are undeniable (Abbott et al. 2014) and the opportunities for authentic, immediate exchange of language and culture abound.

In 2010, Fechter (2010) notes:

> Often lacking at the two-year level in world languages is a true sense of a coherent program of study, as many community colleges do not specifically offer an Associate of Arts degree in languages. The call for such coherence provides community college faculty with a challenge and an opportunity to develop meaningful, vertically articulated curricular offerings that both allow students to systematically progress beyond high school Spanish and to flourish in the university environment, which will result in an increase in enrollments in upper-level courses, and in the workforce. Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World demands that increased attention be paid to the constitutive view of language rather than an instrumentalist or application of language and cultural skills. Many community colleges offer language for specific purposes courses, which some may consider to be purely functional or instrumentalist. The important role these courses play in the community and the workforce should not be ignored, but a thorough reexamination of these curricula to assure that they do, in fact, appropriately incorporate cultural inquiry, as called for in both reports, is in order. The community college provides a fundamental link in the K-20 curriculum and in the workforce. Community college language faculty should embrace this responsibility. (77)

While in the constitutive view the focus is on literary and cultural traditions and historical knowledge, the instrumentalist view focuses on the practical, real-world use of the language. That community colleges are instrumental in bringing language to the work force in the real world is increasingly the case. Abbott et al. (2014) note the increased emphasis on functional language use in higher education in general: "First, undergraduate learning is no longer focused primarily on preparing students for graduate school and academic careers in language and literature. In fact, universities now are providing greater support for second language learners who may not be majoring in the language at all. Second, there is greater emphasis on functional proficiency (linguistic and cross-cultural)" (28; emphasis in original).

## Twenty-First-Century Initiatives in Education Affecting Community Colleges

The Languages for All? effort referenced earlier embodies a sweeping initiative to advance language in the United States at all levels and to bring language to every citizen, encompassing $100 \%$ of graduates of the education system. Abbott et al. (2014) note specifically the growing internationalization of the community college sector:

Another example of the growing presence of language and global focus in higher education is the strong momentum for the "internationalization" of community colleges, as witnessed by the growth of the Community Colleges for International Development (CCID), currently at
approximately 150 domestic and international institutional members, and the International Programs and Services office of the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC). Language teaching and learning are an integral part of internationalization.

Just as in the community college for all initiative, Spanish and Portuguese will play an ever more important role in bringing language and culture to all going forward.

Another twenty-first-century trend in higher education that bears watching is the re-focusing of attention on general and liberal education and essential skills. The American Association of Colleges and Universities' Liberal Education and America's Promise (LEAP) initiative articulates four "essential learning outcomes essential for success in life and work in the twenty-first century. The first of these is "Knowledge of Human Cultures and the Physical and Natural World" which is accomplished "through study in the sciences, mathematics, social sciences, humanities, histories, languages, and the arts," (American Association of Colleges and Universities 2005). Of particular significance here is that languages are singled out as a discreet area and not simply subsumed under the humanities. Spanish and Portuguese programs at the community college will play a fundamental role in shaping that promise. In the publication A Crucible Moment: College Learning and Democracy's Future (2012), the National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement, commissioned by the United States Department of Education, cites as an essential skill "the ability to communicate in multiple languages." This task force counted with the participation of 134 people representing 61 community colleges, four-year colleges, and universities; 26 civic organizations; nine private and government funding agencies; 15 higher education associations; and 12 disciplinary societies. While the specific inclusion of this skill may have been controversial, language advocates prevailed. All language faculty members should align themselves with these developing trends.

Finally, if the recommendations of the congressionally commissioned report of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, America's Languages: Investing in Language Education for the 21st Century are carried out, two-year colleges should expect to see increased languages instruction on their campuses. In fact, the Commission on Languages in the report on America's Languages is advocating for instituting a language requirement: ". . . the Commission urges two- and four-year colleges and universities to continue to offer beginning and advanced language instruction to all students, and to reverse recent programmatic cuts wherever possible. It also applauds recent efforts to create new undergraduate language requirements on two- and four-year campuses" (viii). The study also calls for two-year colleges to provide opportunities for advanced study of languages (18) and to advance teacher education programs to help fill the deficit in this area (17).

If, as Fareed Zakaria (2015) declares in In Defense of a Liberal Education, "Our age is defined by capitalism, globalization, and technology" (165), then surely the task of language educators and humanists must be to assure that going forward these trends are married to linguistic and cultural proficiency. Zakaria (2015) describes the effect that attacks on a broad-based liberal education have had: "There is today a loss of coherence and purpose surrounding the idea of a liberal education" (20). As language professionals in the twenty-first century, language faculty need to restore that sense of coherence and purpose in the study of Spanish and Portuguese at the community college and beyond.

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# Encrucijadas y tensiones lingüístico-culturales en la era de la globalización 

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#### Abstract

Palabras clave: corporate spirit/corporativismo, culture/cultura, geopolitics/geopolítica, globalization/ globalización, otherness/otredad, utilitarism/utilitarismo


Si bien crisis significa oportunidad para el cambio, y el resultado de toda crisis dependerá siempre de cómo los actores sociales involucrados conjuguen oportunidades y apremios, la situación actual de los community colleges en Estados Unidos pone al $50 \%$ de la matrícula de los estudiantes de pregrado en el ojo de la tormenta. La bibliografía sobre educación superior suele presentar a estas instituciones destacando su carácter articulador-ya sea entre etapas educativas o actores sociales-o su carácter de tierra prometida de la educación, en la que la población de bajos recursos, las minorías o los inmigrantes encontrarán herramientas para lograr el mentado sueño americano. La realidad muestra, sin embargo, que los community colleges no escapan de las reglas generales que el corporativismo global ha impuesto sobre la educación en general: reducción del presupuesto educativo, flexibilización laboral de la planta docente, reestructuración interna en busca de una organización más eficiente en términos utilitarios.

En este contexto es que se da la discusión por el lugar de las lenguas extranjeras en generaly del español en particular-en el diseño curricular universitario así como el planteo por el enfoque que su enseñanza debe adoptar: utilitarista vs. humanista. Obviamente, el primero es el privilegiado por las administraciones que se inclinan a subyugar a los colleges a las pragmáticas demandas del mercado, mientras que el segundo se concatena con el deseo de un número de docentes que perciben la imperiosa necesidad de articular contenido significativo y pensamiento crítico al interior de los programas de lenguas para así salir del ostracismo en que por lo general se encuentran sus departamentos. El tercer actor social en cuestión, el estudiante, suele percibir a la lengua extranjera como un requisito para nada relacionado con su especialización y por lo tanto, un obstáculo en el camino hacia su graduación. Aquellos cuyos programas no exigen la lengua extranjera como requisito suelen sentirse aliviados de que así sea. Finalmente, los hablantes nativos suelen acercarse a los programas de lenguas como un modo de obtener créditos sin realizar muchos esfuerzos o para aliviar la pesada carga horaria a la que su situación financiera suele someterlos.

El caso del español se ha vuelto particularmente complejo no solo debido a la transformación demográfica por la cual los latinos se han convertido en la primera minoría de los EE.UU.según los números arrojados por el censo nacional de 2011, el número de hispanos asciende a 51.927.158, de los cuales 33.138 .858 han nacido en los EE.UU. (Motel) - sino también por las circunstancias históricas y geopolíticas que han atravesado la asimétrica relación LatinoaméricaEstados Unidos, relación que (ya avanzada la segunda década del siglo XXI) parecería estar lejos de cambiar de rumbo. Si bien la centralidad que los community colleges han logrado en la
nueva coyuntura nacional ofrece ventajosas oportunidades para demandar que el español sea parte de los acuerdos de articulación vigentes (PATHWAYS, DREAM Act, Dual Enrollment), los desafíos seguirán siendo crear e implementar lineamientos pedagógicos coherentes que articulen todos los niveles así como lograr una discusión crítica y sincera de lo que en EE.UU. denominamos "cultura hispana". En tiempos en que la cultura ha sido promovida a la categoría de recurso utilitario privilegiado del consumo productivo, debemos interrogar el concepto mismo de cultura que hoy hegemoniza nuestra praxis áulica y coloniza el material didáctico derivando en la reproducción de estereotipos y exotizando las geografías y los pueblos latinoamericanos. ¿Es posible escapar de la funcionalización de la producción cultural característica de las dinámicas globales a la hora de configurar los programas de español en un contexto de no inmersión? ¿Es factible dejar de pensar en la cultura hispana como ente homogéneo y direccionar la práctica pedagógica hacia lo cultural como campo de lucha por las (re)producciones de significados sociales en el que se dirimen identidades colectivas e individuales? ¿Somos capaces de trabajar a contrapelo de los estereotipos y en función de poner en evidencia las contradicciones sociales aun cuando esto implique contrariar la maquinaria mediática que nos habita? ${ }^{1}$ Enfrentar estos interrogantes se vuelve una necesidad imperiosa si postulamos la responsabilidad ética del discurso pedagógico en función de posibilitar un encuentro igualitario con el otro y así lograr grados de entendimiento como sujetos deseantes en un ámbito que, de esta manera, dejará de ser artificial para devenir en liminar.

## NOTAS

${ }^{1}$ Piénsese cuán diferente sería la presente reflexión sobre el español como lengua extranjera en los EE.UU. si esta lengua se hablara solo en España. Me atrevo a afirmar que su situación no sería muy distinta del griego o el alemán.

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# The City as Organizing Principle in Twenty-First-Century Luso-Hispanic Studies 



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#### Abstract

Luso-Hispanic studies has responded ambivalently to the commonplace that the globe has passed the tipping point of urbanization. While disciplinary traditionalism poses challenges to scholars linking artistic production to urban contexts, interdisciplinary work on the city has nonetheless found terrain in which to thrive. This brief article thus explores the recent history and future potential of urban directions in Luso-Hispanic scholarship with an eye toward twenty-first-century academic shifts. These urban directions are a sign of increased interdisciplinarity within language and literature fields at the same time that they are a catalyst for social scientists to embrace literary forms of culture.


Keywords: cities/ciudades, conferences/conferencias, cultural studies/estudios culturales, interdisciplinarity/ interdisciplinariedad, publications/publicaciones, textbooks/libros de texto, the urban/lo urbano

## Introduction

One of the great sea changes of the twenty-first century in humanistic disciplines involves their increasing connection to the social sciences. High-profile and public scholarly arguments regarding interdisciplinarity from some fifty years ago still resonate in our contemporary academic landscape (Collini 1993; Kagan 2009; Leavis 1972; Snow 1993). Key among the many paths toward interdisciplinarity that Language and Literature fields have taken is one that privileges specific urban areas as the crossroads for connecting artistic, cultural, literary, filmic, political, economic, sociological, geographical, and anthropological concerns. We need not look to far to see how Luso-Hispanic studies is organized around urban centers in Europe and Latin America.

The first section of this concise article explores the current state of urban scholarship in Luso-Hispanic studies, documenting a trend in existing monographs, rooting that trend in key moments from the 1980s and 1990s, and tying interest in cities to methodological shifts in the discipline. The second section goes beyond the production of scholarship with an urban focus to look at the current and future opportunities to organize publishing, textbooks, conferences and teaching around cities of the Luso-Hispanic world. In the end, the digital humanities also lend themselves to reinforcing this urban paradigm through the creation of multilayered digital cities projects.

## Luso-Hispanic Scholarship

The twenty-first century will see a progressive urbanization of both humanities and social science scholarship, and Luso-Hispanic studies will be no exception. As a characterization of this growing trend-though not meant as an exhaustive nor geographically representative list-I offer the following context. An increasing number of significant studies published within

Hispanic studies over the last two decades employ such urban centers as a way of organizing interdisciplinary approaches to culture in a broad sense. In Spain, for example, critics have focused on Segovia (McGrath 2012), Madrid (Baker 1991, 2009; Baker and Compitello 2003; Frost 2008; Haidt 2011; Larson 2011; Parsons 2003; Ramos 2010; Ricci 2009; Ugarte 1996), Barcelona (Epps 2002; Illas 2013; Resina 2008), or some combination of the latter two (B. Fraser 2011, 2015a; Mercer 2012). In Latin America, the number of studies of Buenos Aires (Chamorro 2011; Foster; H. Fraser 1987; Garth 2005; Page 2009; Podalsky 2004) is plentiful and one can find instances of scholarly work on Rio de Janeiro (Carvalho 2013; M. Conde 2011), multiple cities (Holmes 2007), or even the appearance of Paris in Hispanic narrative (Schwartz 1999). These are merely examples.

If we reflect upon the recent past, it is clear that the 1980s and 1990s serve as anchors for such contemporary interest in urban themes. ${ }^{1}$ In particular it is useful to link rising literary interest in the urban experience with three events: from 1982, 1983 and 1984, respectively. The year 1982 saw the publication of Marshall Berman's All That Is Solid Melts Into Air, which brought an urban Marxism to bear on Anglophone literary production. This important work was digested not merely by English department scholars but by Language and Literature fields across the board. In fact, two days in late October, 1983-at the ninth annual Hispanic literature conference on "Los escritores y la experiencia de la ciudad moderna"-twenty-eight Luso-Hispanic scholars presented a series of original and quite novel papers on the city. ${ }^{2}$ And Ángel Rama's oft-cited work La ciudad letrada was first published in 1984. This interest in the urban experience was further stimulated, for example, by the English translations of Michel de Certeau's The Practice of Everyday Life, by Steven Rendall in 1988, and Henri Lefebvre's The Production of Space, by Donald Nicholson-Smith in 1991. Looking backward from today's perspective, there is no shortage of scholarly landmarks from the 1980s and 90s to which contemporary urban cultural studies can link.

Even without an understanding of such landmarks, this turn toward the urban in Language and Literature fields seems simple enough on its face. It may be explained by the brute fact that our world is increasingly urban. As of 2007, the majority of the globe's population lives in cities. Recalling a now classic statement by Louis Wirth written in 1938, David Harvey remarks in Rebel Cities (2012) that " $t \mathrm{t}]$ hough there are plenty of residual spaces in the global economy where the process is far from complete, the mass of humanity is thus increasingly being absorbed within the ferments and cross-currents of urbanized life" (xv). People are continuing to move to urban areas, and urban forms of life are spreading even to rural areas-a general shift that goes by the name of urbanization and that has been explored in great poetic, material, and theoretical detail through writings dating back at least a century (see B. Fraser 2015b). But in scholarly (i.e., methodological) terms, the underpinnings of this trend toward the urban are a bit more nuanced.

First, the digestion of cultural studies methods by Luso-Hispanic studies as a whole has played a major role. The intent to give equal weight to art and society (the "project" and the "formation" in the words of Raymond Williams) has resulted in approaches to literature that link text and context more systematically than had been done in the past. Putting aside, for one moment, the difficult and intriguing matter of what is meant by cultural studies-a question that may have as many answers as respondents-there should be no question that our approaches to literature have diversified considerably since the 1960s. Whether these approaches employ Williams's definition of cultural studies or not, the result in all cases has been to cross the borders of the text and move more concertedly toward larger issues of social cultural production and embodied reception.

Second—not unrelated to the first, but I think distinguishable for our purposes here-our operative notions of how the cultural product to be analyzed is defined have changed. Since 1917 when Hispania was first published we have experienced a progressive move away from traditional understandings that largely limited analysis to literature in its prose, poetic and dramatic forms. While narrative, poetry, and theater continue to be bedrocks of our discipline, it is increasingly
difficult to identify scholars who do not also include film, music, graphic novels, popular culture, cultural practices and/or collective imaginaries in their work.

Third, along with the development of cultural studies approaches and an expansion of how cultural production is defined, we must also admit the progressive interdisciplinarity of Luso-Hispanic studies. Much more so than in the past, our published work culls insights from specific disciplinary traditions, whether those are anthropology, geography, health sciences, law, philosophy, political science, psychology, or sociology, for example. This is true whether one looks at articles published in journals, chapters that form part of edited volumes, or monographs appearing in book series. Moreover, many of our colleagues today situate their work within a wider interdisciplinary field—disability studies, gender and sexuality studies, migration/mobility studies, science fiction studies, and of course urban studies-staking out a vantage point from which to speak about Luso-Hispanic culture in particular, but often times culture as defined globally, transnationally, or in relation to areas that might fall outside of even the most inclusive definition of our shared discipline's linguistic and cultural foci.

In truth, each of these three methodological shifts in our field are intertwined, and all are deeply relevant for understanding why cities are fast becoming an organizing principle for Luso-Hispanic studies. As my own research in urban cultural studies has attempted to demonstrate for humanities scholars, cities are an organizing principle that can fuse with other interdisciplinary fields that allow scholars to move beyond traditional notions of literature to include other cultural products, and that promote a cultural studies method by linking urban art forms with urban society.

## Publishing, Conferences, Teaching, Textbooks, Digital Humanities

Moving beyond the scholarly concerns of research content and method, cities hold great potential for bringing scholars together into a shared dialogue. One possible critique of our academic landscape regards the increased fragmentation of perspectives on Luso-Hispanic culture. Scholars may be doing similar work but not seeing each other's research as relevant. For example, one may be looking at early twentieth-century Argentine dictatorship through a contemporary film, and another may be looking at that same early twentieth-century Argentine dictatorship through less-recent poetry. One may use a gender studies framework for analyzing a nineteenth-century Brazilian novel, and another may approach that same nineteenth-century Brazilian novel through its resonance with a philosophical issue. One may use a political economy approach to a medieval manuscript on the Iberian peninsula, and another may use a political economy approach to an early-modern manuscript mentioning that same location on the Iberian peninsula. The distance seemingly produced by the distinction in form of cultural product, in method/approach, or in time period, may seem to be irreconcilable to one or more of the hypothetical pairs mentioned. Seeing the article pairs as work on Buenos Aires, Rio de Janeiro, or on Madrid, however, potentially changes the perspective. In the rich tradition of urban studies, cities are, after all, defined by difference. They have the potential to bring together all manner of seemingly disparate work for researchers who specialize in a common location.

In publishing, it is clear that the rise and future interdisciplinary potential of urban-centered work is bringing literature, film, and cultural production as a whole into contact with social science perspectives on cities of the Luso-Hispanic world. It is important to note that new book series and new journals with a robust editorial presence from Hispanic studies scholars are creating outlets for such work-as a complement to urban-centered studies published here and there in general journals, including Hispania. ${ }^{3}$ Outside of Hispanic and Luso-Brazilian studies, well-regarded institutions are embracing this interdisciplinary urban paradigm in the formation of new centers, programs and research clusters. ${ }^{4}$ Conferences in our own field could follow suit in their organization. It is not uncommon, in the twenty-first century, to see individual presentations on urban themes and even panels on cities listed on the programs of
numerous regional, national and international conferences in our home discipline. ${ }^{5}$ Will there be a Luso-Hispanic cities conference in the near future boasting divisions for the research that has unfolded to date on La Habana, São Paolo, and Madrid? Or perhaps a conference drawing scholars from multiple fields to discuss a given city in all of its interdisciplinary complexity?

In our teaching, it has helped many of us to sculpt classes around cities, now seen as containers for all manner of linguistic issues, cultural products, temporal conflicts, and converging methodological approaches. Consider how well an undergraduate class on "Barcelona" would attract students, or how well a graduate class on art in Mexico City seen across time and genre could train future professors in the nuances of different cultural forms, methodological approaches and variations of textual analysis. By and large, however, textbooks in our discipline have not followed suit. In point of fact, lower- and mid-level textbooks remain moored in a nationalistic paradigm. In Hispanic studies, at least, textbooks regularly isolate Spain, Mexico, Argentina, and Cuba, for example, reaffirming through their structure, if not also their message, the myth that nations are bounded and internally homogenous with a shared culture that is continuous through time. ${ }^{6}$

Moreover, a hallmark of interdisciplinary research and education in the twenty-first century needs to be its digital resonance. Aware of the opportunities offered by digital humanities approaches, we must admit, too, the potential of digital city projects to speak to interdisciplinary concerns. The currency afforded to practices of thick mapping and deep maps (Bodenhamer et al. 2015, Presner et al. 2014) provide a real incentive to form collaborative partnerships that cross, for example, Luso-Hispanic studies with history, geographic information systems, computer science, and digital art/animation. As with digital humanities approaches in general, digital city projects can synthesize research and teaching. Projects can be co-created by students who collaborate with faculty to create narrative, audio, and video for DH projects; these projects can be turned around and used in subsequent classes as a source of information for learners, even as a textbook of sorts. In expanding and revising such projects over time, these projects may also galvanize cross-disciplinary interests as well as communities external to university structures.

In the end, however, it is the urban as a cohesive and communitarian paradigm that breathes life into all of these aspects of our shared field. ${ }^{7}$ As Louis Wirth wrote in 1938,

> The influences which cities exert upon the social life of man are greater than the ratio of the urban population would indicate, for the city is not only in ever larger degrees the dwellingplace and the workshop of modern man, but it is the initiating and controlling center of economic, political, and cultural life that has drawn the most remote parts of the world into its orbit and woven diverse areas, peoples, and activities into a cosmos.

The lessons long inherent to urban studies scholarship-and to which Luso-Hispanic studies scholars themselves have gravitated while moving toward this interdisciplinary area-teach us that the urban is defined by heterogeneity, diversity, difference, multiplicity, conflict, struggle, and even dissent. Accepting the city as an organizing principle does not elide the very real differences of method, of theoretical ground, or of form of artistic production with which our shared field must grapple-it merely provides a pretext for considering each of these differences in relation to the others. The opportunity here is for Luso-Hispanic studies to lead the twenty-first-century shift toward seeing knowledge, as in Henri Lefebvre's own urban thinking, as an interdisciplinary totality.

## NOTES

${ }^{1}$ In fact, using JSTOR's "Data for Research" (DfR) tool one can perform a text-mining analysis of all Hispania issues going back to 1917, searching for the term "urban" with this result (results reported here are from the period spanning 1919-2012): the years with the highest relevant article count were 1992 (24 articles), 1984 (20), 2008 (20), 1978 (19), and 1985 (19).
${ }^{2}$ Edited by Cruz Mendizábal and sponsored by the Spanish section of the Foreign Languages Department at Indiana University of Pennsylvania, the proceedings of that conference were assembled in a 377-page packet with black plastic spiral binding and a green cardstock cover. Contributors to that volume were: Alborg, Anderson, Angerosa, Brown, David Conde, Donoso, Eberle McCarthy, Espadas, Forbes, Fraser, Keenan, Lamson, Lichtblau, Moreiras, Mujica, Muncy, Murray, Ordóñez, Ouimette, Oyola, Pérez, Taño Manning, Sears, Shirley, Sims, Soberón, Varona-Lacey, and Vilarós.
${ }^{3}$ Such outlets explicitly devoted to urban research include the Hispanic Urban Studies book series with Palgrave Macmillan, the Journal of Latin American Urban Studies, and the Journal of Urban Cultural Studies, all of which boast faculty from Hispanic Studies on their editorial boards. Recent urban special sections have appeared also in the Journal of Spanish Cultural Studies and the International Journal of Iberian Studies, among others.
${ }^{4}$ For example, University of Cincinnati; New York University; University College London; London School of Economics; University of Pennsylvania; University of California, Santa Cruz; University of California, Berkeley; and the Technical University of Berlin. What remains to be investigated, however, is the degree to which these programs integrate humanities methods into their curricula.
${ }^{5}$ See, for example, the Modern Languages Association, the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, the Kentucky Foreign Language Conference, the Mountain Interstate Foreign Language Conference, the Society for Cinema and Media Studies, the Popular Culture Association, in addition to the American Association of Geographers conference, whose membership is beginning to integrate humanities topics with greater regularity.
${ }^{6}$ This structure tends to cater to a largely but not exclusively Anglocentric understanding of global tourism, thus ignoring historical and contemporary transatlantic crossings as well as the diversity to be found within national borders and identities. It is reasonable, too, to suggest that the national vantage point of textbooks is tied to the national perspective that may still be embedded in departmental curricula.
${ }^{7}$ Here I invoke Lefebvre's distinction between the urban and the city, replicated in the work of Delgado Ruiz.

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Response to "The City as Organizing Principle in Twenty-First-Century Luso-Hispanic Studies"

# The Pedagogy and Politics of Twenty-FirstCentury Luso-Hispanic Urban Cultural Studies 

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Keywords: capitalism/capitalismo, cultural studies/estudios culturales, pedagogy/pedagogía, space/espacio, urban studies/estudios urbanos

Since the 1980s Anglo-American scholars in the field of Luso-Hispanic Studies have had plenty of time to think through the so-called "spatial turn" that built disciplinary bridges between the Humanities and the Social Sciences. It took approximately 20 years for key texts written in French (those of Michel Foucault, Henri Lefebvre and Michel de Certeau, for example) to be translated into English and work their way into the field. One example of such a text is "Of Other Spaces," (a 1967 lecture of Foucault's that was not published in English until 1984) on the everyday experience of space, where he explains that
[ $t$ ]he present epoch will perhaps be above all the epoch of space. We are in the epoch of simultaneity: we are in the epoch of juxtaposition, the epoch of the near and far, of the side-by-side, of the dispersed. (22)

Foucault's ideas about space had such an impact on academics in many disciplines because he explained that space was neither a mere empty container nor a backdrop for events and actions (see Tally). Rather, as Benjamin Fraser reminds us in his essay above and in much of his work on Henri Lefebvre, space is at the same time a product and a creative process. It produces each one of $u s$, in fact, through a complex network of economic, political, social and cultural forces.

Fredric Jameson (2001) subsequently took this concept of the spatial and used it to better explain the culture of late modernism, calling on cultural critics to

> rethink these specialized geographical and cartographic issues in terms of social space, in terms, for example, of social class and national or international context, in terms of the ways in which we all necessarily also cognitively map our individual social relationship to local, national and international class realities. (585-86)

If Jameson wasn't exactly celebrating the postmodern in his The Cultural Logic of Late Capitalism, he acknowledges that its combination of high and low culture forced us to stop thinking of art as autonomous like many of the artists and cultural critics of the Modern period tended to do. Jameson encouraged us to get our hands dirty-to "abolish all sort of critical distance" (580). Jameson called this an "aesthetic of cognitive mapping-a pedagogical political culture which seeks to endow the individual subject with some new heightened sense of its place in the global system" (586, emphasis mine). Much of the recent history and future potential of urban and spatial directions in Luso-Hispanic scholarship that Benjamin Fraser outlines in his essay
is the inevitable outcome of this spatial turn. These philosophies of space from decades ago and this call of Jameson's to a "pedagogical political culture" are at the heart of how many of us now think about how language, image, sound and all other possible systems of meaning can and should be understood in our scholarship and should be taught in our classrooms.

Urban studies and the broader spatial turn have given literary critics, film scholars and linguists in Luso-Hispanic Studies the tools to better connect the complex workings of written, visual and spoken systems of meaning to social life. It's given us the inspiration to get our hands dirty. I strongly suspect that this has happened in no small part as a response to some of the pedagogical realities we currently face. We can't ignore that our students themselves are inherently interdisciplinary. In Luso-Hispanic studies the vast majority of our students are double-majors or minors with no intent to pursue their studies in the Humanities. As professors we've had to let go of aesthetic practices and values elaborated on the basis of historical situations and elitist dilemmas which are no longer ours (if they ever were). Cognitive mapping forces us to consider the real world in which we and our students live and how to best prepare them to understand where they are located as individual subjects in a global system and the role of language in how these systems are produced. The fact that literary studies and indeed the book itself have been revolutionized by digital culture, the national literary canon is a quaint relic and even the feature-length film as created for public viewing in the space of the movie theater is a dying art, all demand that we find new ways of explaining why our field matters. Talking about space has and will continue to allow us to find new and revolutionary ways of doing just that.

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# Meeting Twenty-First-Century Needs: Spanish for the Professions as the Future of Spanish Graduate Education? 



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#### Abstract

A possible model for future graduate education, the Spanish for the Professions, Master of Science program, which some may consider a terminal degree, was designed to meet the growing need for employees with a high-level of Spanish language proficiency and cultural competency. This exploration of the fully online Spanish for the Professions graduate program outlines program development and provides a preliminary evaluation of the program's ability to respond to learners' needs and job market demand. Program enrollment and a preliminary qualitative assessment provide evidence that the program is a sustainable and adaptive model for Spanish graduate education in the twenty-first century.


Keywords: distance learning/aprendizaje a distancia, Master's degree/título de maestría, online graduate education/educación graduada en línea, Spanish for Specific Purposes/español para fines específicos, Spanish for the Professions/español para profesiones, teaching with technology/docencia con tecnología

As the Spanish-speaking population in the United States has continued to grow in the past few decades, so does the market demand for professionals in a wide range of fields with advanced levels of Spanish proficiency and intercultural competence (Davies, Fidler, and Gorbis 2011: 9; Gonzalez-Barrera and Lopez 2013; Kejsefman and Barnhart 2014: 7). In 2011, a study conducted by the University of Phoenix Research Institute reported that 70\% of surveyed employers in a wide range of economic sectors-including corporate, education, government, healthcare, non-profit, and manufacturing-asserted that Spanish would be a high-demand job skill in the coming decade (Fraleigh 2011: 50; Heitner 2011; Light 2011; Miller 2011). Although historically Spanish Master's programs are typically designed to prepare graduates for doctoral programs or to provide professional development for K-12 instructors, the demand for liberal arts education to produce students with real-world capabilities for a twenty-first-century global society coupled with changing US demographics have fostered the development of an innovative, fully online, Spanish Master of Science degree at a mid-sized public Midwest university. The Master of Science Spanish for the Professions (SPMS) program suggests an alternative model for a Spanish graduate education that is uniquely positioned to meet current and future market demand for professionals with advanced levels of Spanish proficiency ${ }^{1}$ and intercultural competence. ${ }^{2}$

The development of the fully online SPMS degree, preceded by a comprehensive undergraduate degree of the same name, was driven by two principal factors: the market demand for professionals with advanced Spanish proficiency and intercultural competence, and the growing need for changes in graduate humanities education (Contag 2011; "Report" 2014: 6). These factors are closely related, as dropping enrollment in graduate humanities programs, such as traditional Spanish Master's and doctoral programs, are likely correlated to the shrinking job market in traditional faculty positions and the diversification of language graduates' career paths (Patel 2014). An examination of these factors provides justification for development of the program, the fully online mode of delivery, and the competency-based curriculum.

In the United States, a record-making 37.6 million people ages five and up speak Spanish at home, largely due to growth of the domestic Hispanic population (Contag 2011; Fraleigh 2011: 50; Gonzalez-Barrera and Lopez 2013). This growth has fueled demand for professionals with Spanish skill and intercultural competency. However, despite growing demand, from 2009 to 2013, the number of university students studying Spanish dropped by about 70,000, the current workforce has low to no reported Spanish skill, and $60 \%$ of surveyed workers currently in government, non-profit, corporate, manufacturing, and healthcare sectors indicated they were unlikely to become proficient in Spanish in the next ten years (Davies, Fidler, and Gorbis 2011: 9; Fraleigh 2011: 50-51; Goldberg, Looney, and Lusin 2015: 2; Light 2011). In order to meet market demand for professionals with advanced Spanish skill in a variety of economic sectors, it was essential to develop a degree program that could produce students with advanced skills and that could be accessible to students in diverse career paths, who cannot relocate, or who are unable to attend as full-time students. The Spanish for the Professions graduate-level program provides advanced Spanish skill development and the fully online format provides flexibility.

Blake (2007) reports that although few world language teachers would speak out against technology use in the classroom, many have deeply-rooted doubts regarding the effectiveness of hybrid and fully online language learning (83). Despite concerns, there is research providing evidence that instructional media alone, for example, delivering instruction online, has no significant effect on student learning outcomes (Clark and Salomon 2012: 41-42). Instead, many researchers argue that it is the methodology and the attributes of a given technology tool that are most likely to contribute to student learning (Clark and Salomon 2012: 43). There is some evidence to support these assertions in post-secondary online language courses (Guarnieri 2015: $14-15$ ). Computer assisted language learning (CALL) researchers have also identified various benefits of computer mediated communication (CMC) on language development and intercultural competence (Mroz 2014: 331). For example, CMC has potential benefits for language learning including: 1) lowered anxiety; 2) increased second language (L2) output; 3) improved noticing and self-regulation; and 4) increased learner motivation (Lai and Li 2011: 502-06). New technologies, such as multi-modal videoconferencing and 3-D virtual environments, have made immersion interactions via the web much more verisimilar with potential to foster intercultural analysis (Jauregi and Bañados 2008; Mroz 2014: 334-35). The fully online SPMS has not only expanded access to the program by eliminating residency requirements, ${ }^{3}$ it has also harnessed the benefits that CMC has for both language and intercultural competency development (Duplat 2015; Gordillo 2015). This non-traditional approach to graduate language education was also motivated by the need to adapt traditional graduate programs to match the changing discipline.

Despite record 3.5\% growth in Master's and doctoral programs in all fields in the United States from 2013 to 2014, graduate education in the arts and humanities has seen a decline during that same time period (Patel 2014). Patel reported that various factors have contributed to these decreases, including intentional reductions in program size and diminishing career prospects for arts and humanities graduates. For example, the Modern Language Association (MLA) reported that since 2008, full-time tenure-track faculty positions in languages have dwindled ("Report" 2014: 6). Despite the shrinking job market for tenure-track faculty, many traditional doctoral programs have not adapted to the needs of students facing a transforming job market ("Report" 2014: 6). In the same MLA (2014) report on graduate education, there were ten recommendations for change, the first of which is a redesign of programs to meet the needs and career goals of students, such has been undertaken with the SPMS degree program (2). Although the SPMS is not a doctoral degree, these recommendations are applicable insofar as some may consider this program a terminal degree, and that in general, Master's programs share certain outcomes with their doctoral counterparts, albeit at a different expected level of performance. As another example, the MLA report recommends that programs validate diverse career paths and SPMS has enrolled students from a spectrum of career fields including law
enforcement, education, and social work (Gordillo 2015). Further, the program curriculum supports individualized instruction so that each student can focus course work on their area of specialization. Although the tasks, skills, and outcomes of a given course are the same for all students, many assignments within a course are purposefully designed to be flexible enough to allow students to focus on pertinent topics or tasks to their field (e.g., one student may choose to do a translation project using a parent-teacher conference letter, another may translate a police report) (Duplat 2015). Table 1 demonstrates select MLA task force recommendation alignment with the SPMS program development, faculty roles, and curriculum. The MLA recommendation that does not appear in this table is "Strengthen teaching preparation."

Table 1. Alignment of Spanish for the Professions, M.S. program with MLA recommendations

| MLA |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Recommendation | Description | | Redesign the program |
| :--- |
| "align them [programs] with the <br> learning needs and career goals <br> of students and to bring degree <br> requirements in line with the <br> evolving character of our fields" |
| Engage more deeply <br> with technology |
| "programs should support <br> technology training and provide <br> ways for students to develop and use <br> new tools and techniques" |
| Reimagine the <br> dissertation <br> [capstone project] |
| "Departments should expand the <br> spectrum of forms the dissertation <br> [capstone project] may take" |
| Reduce time to degree | | "Departments should design |
| :--- |
| programs that can be completed |
| [in a timely fashion]" |

Alignment of Spanish for the Professions, M.S.

The program was designed to build advanced writing, oral communication and cultural competency skills that can be applied in a variety of careers where communication in Spanish is required (Contag)
Presentational skills with technology (SPAN 654) is designed for the development of presentational skills using digital technology for a Spanish-speaking audience in a variety of cultural settings.
Portfolio (SPAN 690) is a capstone project documenting research, creative, or other projects that demonstrate performance in program competency areas.

The fully online format and yearround course offerings create a flexible and accessible program for timely completion (Gordillo)

Internship: Engagement in the Profession (SPAN 698) is an elective course designed to provide students with real-world transformational experiences in their chosen field.

Faculty have consulted with various experts across campus for example, instructional design staff and library faculty (Duplat, Contag, Gordillo).

Continued on page 146

Table 1. (continued)

| MLA <br> Recommendation | Description | Alignment of Spanish for the <br> Professions, M.S. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Redefine the roles of <br> faculty advisors | "The director of graduate studies <br> should be a leader of change who <br> helps transform the program to <br> meet the objectives outlined in <br> this report." | The Spanish for the Professions <br> M.S. curriculum was developed by <br> the then graduate studies advisor <br> who lead a transformational <br> shift in both undergraduate <br> and graduate education in the <br> department (Contag). |
| Validate diverse | "give students a full understanding <br> career outcomes the range of potential career <br> oftcomes and support students" <br> choices." | Courses are designed for <br> individualized instruction, allowing <br> each student to focus coursework <br> in their chosen career path (Duplat, |
| Rethink |  |  |
| admissions practice | "calibrate admissions to the changing <br> character of doctoral education <br> and the broadened range of <br> career opportunities" | The program has admitted students <br> from a wide range of career paths, <br> e.g. education, law enforcement, <br> social work (Gordillo). |

Given the potential range of entering students' skill sets (e.g., oral proficiency, academic and/or professional writing) and varied areas of professional focus, a competency-based model was chosen as the framework for the SPMS degree (Contag 2011). A competency can be defined as the collection of skills, abilities, and knowledge necessary to carry out a given task (Vorhees 2001: 8). Competency-based learning allows students to progress as they demonstrate mastery of a given competency area, with greater flexibility in terms of time, place, or pace-an approach that fits well with a fully online graduate program (Vorhees 2001:8). A flexible and individualized approach to instruction, such as is afforded by a competency-based approach, is also supported by an adult learning theory that suggests that adults are most motivated to learn when their learning is immediately applicable to their own real-life situations (Knowles, Holton, and Swanson 2012: 66). The SPMS prepares graduates in three central competency areas for working with Spanish in professional contexts: writing, oral production, and intercultural competence.

According to Contag (2011), the three core competency areas of the SPMS degree were chosen based on a needs analysis of professionals working across cultural contexts in the Spanish-speaking world and consideration of faculty expertise and resources. Of note is the intentional inclusion of a multicultural literacy component in all three competencies. For example, to fulfill the competency area of oral proficiency, students are expected to perform at an advanced (or higher) level of oral proficiency as well as develop the ability to select communicative strategies that are appropriate for the context and setting, a component of intercultural competency (Hammer, Milton, and Wiseman 2003: 422). Table 2 demonstrates the alignment of program student learning outcomes with the three core competency areas of the SPMS degree. The fifth program outcome of "The student will evaluate information, synthesize and create knowledge in the discipline, and/or apply knowledge of the discipline to solve complex issues" is not included in the table as it refers primarily to the graduate capstone thesis or portfolio project. A discussion of the program as a visionary model for future Spanish graduate education follows.

Program enrollment and preliminary qualitative analysis of faculty perspectives support the notion that SPMS is a sustainable model for future graduate education. At this mid-sized

Table 2. Spanish for the Professions, M.S. competencies alignment with program student learning outcomes

Program Competency
Multicultural Literacy The student demonstrates ability to assess and evaluate the literature of the discipline and major cultural issues and apply that knowledge.

Oral Proficiency The student demonstrates ability to communicate orally about disciplinary issues with peers, practitioners and/or the public.

Writing Proficiency The student will communicate in writing about disciplinary issues with peers, practitioners and/or the public.

Related Program Student Learning Outcomes

1. Recognize and use appropriate communicative strategies in Spanish in professional and social contexts for a variety of settings and countries where Spanish is spoken.
2 Formulate opinions and discuss writings in coherent and culturally connected ways

1 Recognize and use appropriate communicative strategies in Spanish in professional and social contexts for a variety of settings and countries where Spanish is spoken.
3. The student will demonstrate advanced language skills for academic and professional interaction.

1. Recognize and use appropriate communicative strategies in Spanish in professional and social contexts for a variety of settings and countries where Spanish is spoken.
2. Develop advanced writing skills for professional and academic interaction

Midwestern public university, the Spanish graduate student capacity is approximately 30. Within the first full year (2014) of offering the SPMS the total graduate program enrollment increased from 15 students to 24 students, indicating an $37.5 \%$ increase in a single semester, due entirely to SPMS enrollment (Minnesota State University, Mankato). This rise in student interest provides evidence that the SPMS is filling a demand for flexible, accessible, and individualized graduate education in Spanish. Although market trends would predict greater variety in student career paths, more than half of these fully online students are educators seeking professional development (Gordillo 2015; Kejsefman and Barnhart 2014).

The number of students in educational career paths enrolled in the SPMS program is unsurprising, as traditionally the majority of those enrolled in Spanish Master's programs have been in-service Spanish instructors. Their interest in a flexible online program makes sense, considering that many educators concurrently work full-time while attending graduate school. It is important to note that education is also a profession that requires effective communication and intercultural competency skills (Gordillo 2015). The remaining students in the program represent a range of professional fields including law enforcement and social work, suggesting that the program is flexible enough to meet needs in a range of economic sectors (Gordillo 2015). As of Spring 2017, the SPMS program has graduated eight students, with two more expected in the Fall of 2017, and a current enrollment of 18 students, making up more than two-thirds of the department's Spanish graduate enrollment. Anecdotally, student performance and graduation records indicate that the SPMS program is hitting its mark by supporting growth of a culturally competent and Spanish-proficient workforce.. However, anecdotally, student performance indicates that the SPMS program is hitting its mark by supporting growth of a culturally competent and Spanish-proficient workforce. Although this preliminary evaluation indicates SPMS is a flexible and sustainable approach to future Spanish graduate education, implementation of such a unique program is not without its challenges.

Challenges to the ongoing implementation of the SPMS are both faculty and student related. Currently, two faculty members teach the bulk of the SPMS courses. Qualitative evidence suggests that both faculty and students in the program lament the lack of variety in the professoriate (Duplat 2015). However lamentable, the obstacles to additional faculty participation are multiple. Faculty members must be equipped to effectively design and deliver fully online courses, a course format that is significantly different from face-to-face or even hybrid approaches (Contag 2011; Duplat 2015; Pachler and Daly 2011: 57). Educational researchers have posited that effective integration of technology with teaching requires the development of unique understanding of the contextual and complex interactions between content, pedagogical, and technological knowledge (Koehler, Mishra, and Cain 2013: 14). As such, SPMS faculty must commit to specialized and ongoing professional development in the area of online teaching and learning. These faculty must also be prepared to instruct a range of courses that include more familiar content such as literary analysis, but also translation and interpretation, oral and written communication, and editing and bibliographic skills, among others (Contag 2011; Duplat 2015). Instruction may also take place outside of course content; for example, one faculty member noted that they had taken on the role of technology expert, as they often spent time troubleshooting tech-related problems with students (Duplat 2015). Thus, effective program implementation requires significant faculty professional development and/or the recruitment of faculty from a greater diversity of backgrounds and professional preparation.

There are also obstacles for students enrolled in the SPMS program. The online environment can be a challenge to students because online learning requires a greater degree of self-regulation (i.e., students taking responsibility for their own learning) (Andrade and Bunker 2009: 48; Duplat 2015; Gordillo 2015). Successful self-regulated learning (SRL) requires the implementation of metacognitive, cognitive, and affective strategies (Andrade and Bunker 2009: 49). Among the SRL issues identified, time management and graduate-level academic skills were highlighted as areas of particular challenge to some of the SPMS students (Duplat 2015; Gordillo 2015). For successful implementation of the program, students must be prepared to navigate these obstacles by becoming self-regulated graduate-level learners. In turn, faculty must support students with careful integration of an orientation to SRL and/or skill building SRL tasks within the curriculum and facilitate access to important resources.

In conclusion, the SPMS stands as a unique model for future graduate education that is both sustainable and adaptable. The sustainability and adaptability of the program is supported by its unique attributes, the fully online format, the flexible curriculum, and the competency-based approach. The online format makes graduate education more accessible to current and emerging working professionals and may also enhance language and culture learning. In turn, the flexible curriculum and competency-based approach allows for individualization of instruction making the degree applicable to a wide range of career paths. Initial anecdotal evidence (e.g., enrollment boom and student career path demographics) indicates that the program is filling a market demand for professionals with intercultural competence and Spanish skill. Regardless of its future viability, the program is not without its challenges to both faculty and students. An up-and-coming professoriate will need specialized and ongoing professional development and students will need adequate orientation and ongoing support. However, given the need for transformation of graduate education in languages, these challenges and changes are perhaps now more the norm than the exception. Likewise, the fully online Spanish for the Professions, Master of Science, an exception now, may be the norm of the future.

## NOTES

[^2]${ }^{2}$ Intercultural competence is the ability to think and behave in culturally appropriate ways (Hammer, Milton, and Wiseman 2003: 422). The Intercultural Development Inventory, based on the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS), is a cross-culturally validated measure of intercultural competence (Hammer 2011: 479-85; Hammer, Milton, and Wiseman 2003: 421-26). The DMIS, developed by Bennett (1986) posits that intercultural competence increases as the complexity of one's experience with cultural differences increases, and one moves from an ethnocentric to ethnorelativistic worldview (Hammer, Milton, and Wiseman 2003: 423).
${ }^{3}$ Online students sometimes pay more tuition due to out-of-state residency status. At Minnesota State University, Mankato, online students pay the same tuition and fees regardless of in-state or out-of-state residency for graduate courses (Campus Hub). The cost per credit including fees for online graduate courses is $\$ 456.40$ versus $\$ 420.15$ for face-to-face courses (Campus Hub).

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Response 1 to "Meeting Twenty-FirstCentury Needs: Spanish for the Professions as the Future of Spanish Graduate Education?"

# Tenure-track Faculty Determine the Success of Online Graduate Education 



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Keywords: courses/cursos, faculty/profesoriado, graduate/graduado, language/lenguas, online/en línea

"Meeting Twenty-First-Century Needs: Spanish for the Professions as the Future of Spanish Graduate Education?" provides insights to how one particular university is confronting the decreased student enrollments seen across foreign language (FL) graduate programs in the United States. The author discusses the importance of online post-graduate language courses through examples of how such courses would meet a variety of working professionals' needs as well as increase languishing enrollments in post-graduate FL programs. This argument is followed by an overview of an existing online Spanish for the Professions Master of Science degree (SPMS).

While the SPMS clearly fills a gap in FL education, the widespread skepticism that many language educators harbor regarding online language courses may impede the quality, vitality, and implementation of such programs (Blake 2007). Elizabeth Harsma (2017) briefly alludes to and refutes common objections to online FL language education but admits that faculty interest continues to be an issue since two faculty members primarily teach the courses. While the programmatic structure is innovative and promising, the reader is left to question the longevity and quality of the program as the author fails to mention strategies for training and recruiting tenured and tenure-track faculty who are qualified to teach at the post-graduate level.

The lack of tenured and tenure-track faculty interest in online education (Allen and Seaman 2010; Kim and Bonk 2006) is illustrated by the numerous studies on non-tenured online faculty in comparison to limited publications regarding online tenured and tenure-track faculty (Drewelow 2013; LoBasso 2013). One factor that may contribute to this phenomenon is that tenured and tenure-track positions are evaluated largely on research production with little incentive for undertaking new pedagogical endeavors (Zhao and Cziko 2001). The lack of incentive that the tenure track system places on pedagogical innovation is compounded by the fact that novice online instructors must invest a considerable amount of time in familiarizing themselves with course materials, digital platforms, and resources provided by ancillary staff such as instructional designers and web programmers (Bartolic-Zlomislic and Bates 1999; Stone and Perumean-Chaney 2011). Such distractions from academic research may explain why parttime and adjunct faculty are more frequently assigned online teaching assignments than full-time faculty (Seaman 2009).

Despite the aforementioned challenges in recruiting tenured and tenure-track faculty to teach online, experienced online professors reported an increase in productivity as the flexibility of online instruction allowed them to spend more time on service or research (Meyer 2012). In order to help T/TT faculty reconceptualize online teaching, departmental training and faculty
mentorship programs are an indispensable means of helping faculty integrate technology in a way that presents minimal disturbances to their established academic routine (Gabriel and Kaufield 2008; Zhao and Cziko 2001). In conclusion, the future of online graduate programs such as SPMS does not depend on the clever creation of online courses but the department's commitment to training/incentivizing tenured and tenure-track faculty members to teach online.

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Response 2 to "Meeting Twenty-FirstCentury Needs: Spanish for the Professions as the Future of Spanish Graduate Education?"

# Experiences from the Trenches of Graduate Online Education in Spanish 



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Keywords: graduate program/programa graduado, online classes/clases en línea, Master of Arts in Spanish/ maestría en español, Spanish/español, twenty-first-century learning/aprendizaje en el siglo XXI

In 2008, the Department of Languages and Linguistics at New Mexico State University (NMSU) entered the twenty-first-century world of online distance education and learning (ODEL) by launching the first program of its kind, an online Master of Arts in Spanish degree. The extremely high demand for online graduate education caused the program to grow quickly, and at the apex in the 2013-14 academic year, saw 120 students, representing a $445 \%$ increase from the initial 22 with the optimal level reached this academic year where we can effectively support 80-100 students. Now, more than eight years after the first class was offered, 117 students have graduated from the program. There are many lessons to be learned from the following experiences as our profession continues to expand and fill new niches in the twentyfirst century.

## Quality in Course Content and Delivery

First and foremost in all discussions as the program was conceived, organized, and implemented, was the need to maintain a certain level of quality of instruction and content in the courses. The initial courses were offered by faculty members who had received prior training through NMSU's educational technologies training center on implementing emerging technologies into courses. These faculty members were invaluable to the professional development of other faculty as they provided both group training and individual mentoring for faculty joining the ODEL program and adapting future courses for successful delivery. Currently, the majority of the eight faculty members who actively teach in the program have voluntarily received formal instruction on the implementation of emerging technologies as well as national quality rubrics for ODEL. It is recommended that any program seeking to expand into this new arena, do so only after careful planning and faculty preparation. Faculty must adapt, reinvent themselves, and commit to being as engaged with their ODEL learners as they are with their face-to-face or hybrid learners. To not do so is a disservice to the students and the profession.

## Program Management and Sustainability

The initial ballooning growth was difficult to sustain due to a couple of critical issues. First, there is faculty workload. Initially, the entire faculty taught ODEL courses as compensated overloads. Obviously, this cannot be sustained over a long period of time with the understanding
that continuous overloads cause fatigue and potentially take faculty from other required duties. Secondly, and most importantly, the program and faculty were concerned about the importance of maintaining a quality level of engagement with students. Decisions were made to reduce enrollment for a short period to reach the optimal level. This ultimately worked in everyone's favor as now, all faculty teach ODEL courses as part of their regular loads with no more need for overloads. A positive note for the program has been that due to the demand for ODEL in the program, our most recent tenure track faculty hire was contracted with the words, "experience in online teaching preferred" as part of the qualifications, something that should be appearing more frequently in our profession.

## Online Pedagogy Transforming Students' Education with Tangible Outcomes

One of the insights gained is in the area of online pedagogy and how it transforms a student's education. This transformation focuses on transitioning the role of the student from being a passive learner to one that assumes a more active and involved role, and truly converting the teacher/instructor/professor into more of a facilitator of learning, or as a model or guide. In ODEL courses, students are collaborating and engaging with colleagues from across the country and world, exposing them to cultural diversity and experience not available in the face-to-face environment with positive tangible outcomes.

End of program student evaluations have commented favorably on the program's rigor, depth, and quality. The program is producing well-prepared graduates, some of whom are teachers at all levels of K-20, and others continuing on to doctoral programs, who have seen what quality ODEL courses look like and how they are taught. They will be better prepared for carrying their students, at all levels of instruction, further into the twenty-first century because of the techniques, methods, collaborations, and engagement they have already observed and practiced. The program is also producing graduates that work in: government at all levels, worldwide NGOs, law enforcement, the healthcare industry, STEM areas, leadership positions, and the list goes on. The future of our profession needs to embrace the model of quality ODEL courses and programs in order to meet student needs in their busy and varied lives.

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# Realizing the Vision of Quality PreK-5 Spanish Language Programs: A Longitudinal Perspective 



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#### Abstract

This essay offers a candid overview of the past one hundred years of preK-fifth grade Spanish language teaching and learning in the United States. Among the topics addressed are numbers of programs, program models, and factors that impact the success of learners and programs.

Keywords: early language learning/aprendizaje de idiomas en escuela primaria, FLES, FLEX, immersion/ imersión, teaching and learning/enseñaza y aprendizaje


## Introduction

When examining a timeline to determine what has occurred in the past 100 years, the changes in science and technology are dazzling. Seemingly every aspect of our day-to-day lives has been touched by change.
Has education also been revolutionized? At first blush, one would say that education in the United States has indeed progressed. For example, the use of technology enhances learning like never before. Nevertheless, there are areas in preK-16 education that have advanced more slowly than anticipated or desired. One of those is teaching and learning Spanish in US preschools and elementary schools.

This essay will begin with a brief 100-year overview followed by a present-day report of what constitutes exemplary programs and the obstacles they face. Finally, this essay will offer the essentials to realizing the vision of quality preK-5 Spanish teaching and learning for all.

## Brief History

Number of Programs: 1917-60s
When the American Association of Teachers of Spanish, now the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP), formed in 1917, the main emphasis of the organization was to support the teaching of Spanish at the secondary level. AATSP's first president's platform was to promote teaching Spanish rather than German at the secondary level; he also worked to prevent Spanish from being taught in the elementary school (García 2008).

Teaching foreign languages preK-5th grade in private schools is recorded from the 1910s, but there is no documentation that Spanish was taught. In public schools, only a French program in Cleveland, Ohio in the 1920s received recognition. Post World War II witnessed a flourishing of elementary school foreign language programs. Providing financial assistance to schools at all levels was the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) of 1958. The number of elementary school Spanish programs grew quickly (Heining-Boynton 1990).

Even prior to the NDEA, Mildenberger (1956) reported at least 271,617 public elementary school students kindergarten through grade six studying a foreign language, with Spanish having the largest number followed by French and German. In Catholic elementary schools, Mildenberger's report noted 156,000 children studied the following languages ranked in order: French, Polish, Italian, Lithuanian, Ukrainian, Spanish, and Latin. Other private elementary schools also taught foreign language, with French being the choice.

Driving elementary school world language choices was: availability of teachers; language preference of the parents and community; overall perception of need; and prestige of the target language. Of note is that Spanish was not considered a high-prestige language in the 1950s.

By 1960, elementary school foreign language programs existed in all 50 states. Anderson (1969:101) reported 1,227,000 students studying a language in addition to English in 8,000 elementary schools. By the end of the 1960s, though, few programs remained. Five reasons surfaced for their dramatic decline: lack of qualified teachers; unrealistic and/or inappropriate goals and objectives; incompatible pedagogy; lack of articulation; lack of homework, grades, and assessment; lack of parental support (Heining-Boynton 1990).

## Elementary School Spanish Program Models: Bilingual Education, FLEX, FLES, Immersion

While the number of elementary school Spanish language programs for non-native speakers of Spanish declined in the 1960s, a new phenomenon emerged: bilingual education. In 1968, the Bilingual Education Act addressed all language minorities, but bilingual education became most closely associated with the Spanish language. Although well-intentioned, bilingual education programs were problematic. Among the numerous issues, linguistically many teachers were weak in one or both languages, and they lacked appropriate training. Furthermore, many school administrators were ill-equipped to manage and lead such programs, curricula were poorly conceived, and learner outcomes and expectations were very low. In sum, many Hispanic students exited elementary school bilingual education programs with poor Spanish and poor English language skills. The early programs created a public relations disaster for bilingual education (Heining-Boynton 2014).

From the mid 1980s and forward, elementary school foreign language programs began to reappear. At that point, three program models emerged, predominantly for native English language speaking children: Foreign Language Exploratory (FLEX); Foreign Language in the Elementary School (FLES); and Immersion (Curtain and Dahlberg 2015). These program models perpetuate today bearing similar curricular and instructional designs from the 1980s.

FLEX, while well-intentioned at the time of its creation in the mid-1980s, was and remains a superficial overview of multiple languages. FLEX programs expose young learners not only to Spanish but also to three other languages, each for 6-9 weeks. The intention of FLEX has been to entice young learners to all things multicultural. Today, many parents and their children question learning isolated words, songs, and cultural factoids in multiple languages that do not lead to even a low level of communicative competence. The information taught can be easily accessible outside of school via the Internet.

Another elementary school language model is FLES. In typical Spanish FLES programs, teachers deliver instruction one time per week up to five times per week for approximately 30 minutes per class; the norm is once a week. Enhancing the model and its curricula is known as a content-based or content-related approach to FLES. This model reinforces other K-5 curricular areas such as science and mathematics, enriching the curriculum with high-interest topics, useful vocabulary, and expanded opportunities for students to engage in extended discourse on age-appropriate topics.

Long-term commitments to early language learning across the country at the district level and even at the state level, such as in North Carolina, exist. What sets excellent schools and programs apart is their commitment to rigorous standards, a strong content-based, standardsbased curriculum, and oral proficiency assessments for grades 1-5 to ascertain annual student progress and program performance. Exceptional Spanish programs, such as the one at the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages' (ACTFL) Melba Woodruff Award winning Hutchison School (Memphis, TN), have been maintaining annual data documenting that non-heritage speakers exit fifth grade, on average, with the equivalent of an intermediate mid level of oral proficiency.

Strong programs have not only a commitment to outstanding curricula and teachers, but also the necessary contact time that students need per week to engage in meaningful instruction in the target language. Schools implementing early world language programs desire to develop communicatively competent children, but based on the number of contact minutes per week, their goal cannot be achieved. If those schools were to calculate the annual number of contact hours, the total would be less than 20 instructional delivery hours per academic year for programs where students have Spanish once a week for 30 minutes per class. No meaningful level of proficiency can be acquired in that amount of time. Additionally, students in programs with non-standards-based, non-content-based curricula may learn vocabulary on common topics (e.g., home, family, food,) but they cannot produce the language in meaningful contexts. Learners are unable to string together sentences.

Still another elementary school program model is immersion. Immersion programs in their three forms (partial, full, dual language) offer promise with the goal of creating communicatively competent bilingual students (Collier and Thomas 2004; Heining-Boynton 2014). In the 1990s, dual language programs (half of the student population is native English speaking and the other half is native Spanish speaking) began to replace the failed, traditional Spanish bilingual education programs. Immersion learners have the best opportunity to achieve the highest level of linguistic competence, in part due to the amount of contact time each day in the target language. Challenges with immersion models include difficulty finding high-quality bilingual administrators and teachers, and assuring that all students acquire high language proficiency in both Spanish and English.

With regard to preschool, some private schools have offered Spanish in their early childhood programs for many years to children ages 3-6 years old. Those programs have focused on some vocabulary, songs, and games. The goal has been to motivate the learner to eagerly anticipate Spanish in Kindergarten or first grade. Current-day preschool Spanish programs remain predominantly a private school phenomenon and exist much in the same format as in the past. They are extremely uncommon in the public school setting.

Number of Programs: 1990s-2008
The Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) conducted three extensive national surveys in 1987, 1997, and 2008 (Rhodes and Pufahl 2010). In 1987, 22\% percent of schools in the United States reported elementary school language programs; in 1997, there were $31 \%$. In 2008, only $14.7 \%$ of all public elementary schools and $51 \%$ private elementary schools offered world language study. In the 2008 study, CAL reported Spanish as the most commonly taught language with seventy-nine percent of elementary school respondents offering Spanish. The most common elementary model was FLEX, which was offered in $47 \%$ of the schools with language programs. Thirty-nine percent offered FLES or content-based FLES with exit outcomes that might or might not include proficiency. Immersion was offered in $14 \%$ of schools with elementary language programs. (Rhodes and Branaman 1999; Rhodes and Pufahl 2010:106).

The decline in the number of programs and the move toward the majority of programs offered being non-proficiency oriented (FLEX) can be explained by a series of factors. It is these factors that need to be addressed now and in the future in order to realize the vision of creation and expansion of topnotch Spanish language elementary school programs that exit students with the highest possible levels of proficiency.

## Factors Impacting the Future

Indeed there exist exemplary Spanish FLES and immersion programs across the country that are research- and standards-based with high expectations for student outcomes. These schools' administrators and teachers are knowledgeable and well-trained, and students exit 5th grade with appropriate, high levels of proficiency. Nevertheless, these programs are not prolific due to challenges including politics, schools, and teachers. These challenges can be overcome, but not without a concerted effort on the part of all stake holders.

## Politics: Federal, State and Local

Initiatives such as the Partnership for the 21 st Century and the Common Core have brought to light the importance of multiculturalism and multilingualism in the 21st century, yet there remains a large voting population who is not in favor of teaching languages in addition to English. The English Only Movement of the 1980s left an indelible black mark on the United States and elementary school foreign language programs. There exist today large xenophobic pockets of citizenry across the United States who work against offering Spanish or any language at the elementary school level.

Also, US political concerns that indirectly impact teaching Spanish at the elementary school are the ongoing challenges of immigration, drug trafficking, and the importation of other illegal commodities. There are individuals in the United States that are anti-Hispanic because of these problems, and one of the ways they express their disapproval is by not supporting the creation and maintenance of quality elementary school Spanish language programs.

## Schools: Funding and Administrators

Democracies are ruled by the voting population. Adults cast their vote based on their experiences, beliefs, and perceptions. Many voters studied Spanish or another foreign language, and after many years of study, they remain unsuccessful in communicating even basic concepts with native speakers. This fact leads to disgruntled individuals unwilling to support early language learning. Also highly detrimental are voting adults who have children currently studying Spanish at the elementary school, and unfortunately their children may be making minimal or no linguistic progress in the target language. The voting-age public controls the purse strings that choose to fund or not fund educational programs (Met 2005).

School administrators at the building and district level can also pose challenges to the existence and well-being of preK-5 Spanish programs. Many school leaders had poor experiences studying Spanish or another language in addition to English and are heard to say, "I had six years of Spanish, and I can't say a thing!" These individuals are highly unlikely to support Spanish or any language at the elementary school level, especially if there are no state or local mandates to do so (Met 2005).

On the other hand, there do exist administrators who are indeed interested in creating elementary school Spanish language programs. Unfortunately, many are unfamiliar with the literature that reports what constitutes excellent programs, and why and how programs failed in the past. They risk creating programs filled with the same mistakes of the 1950s and 1960s (Heining-Boynton 1990; Heining-Boynton and Redmond 2013).

## Teachers: Teacher Training, Professional Development, Curricula, and Advocating

A number of universities nationwide are struggling to recruit the best and brightest pre-service candidates to fill their cohorts and supply the continued need for highly-qualified elementary school language teachers. Included in that concern are the teacher training institutions that are unable to graduate candidates with at least an ACTFL OPI rating of Advanced Low in addition to basic knowledge of instructional delivery, how students learn, and the myriad of other necessary topics for initially licensed candidates.

After securing teaching positions, quality, ongoing professional development is essential. Also critical is educating all school personnel regarding the need to create and maintain a long, articulated sequence of Spanish or any world language, as well as the expected student proficiency outcomes at each grade level. Additionally, elementary school Spanish teachers must create a rigorous, standards-based curriculum. Schools are encouraged to develop immersion programs or a content-based FLES program. Also important for elementary school Spanish teachers is the need to be constant advocates in their schools and districts. They need to continuously nurture parent and voter support. Even schools with long-running elementary school Spanish programs will recount the numerous worrisome instances when they have had to justify their programs' existence. Just because elementary school Spanish teachers know the importance and value of early foreign language learning does not mean the rest of the world knows or believes that to be true.

## Effectuating the Future

Over the decades, clear steps have been delineated for schools to deliver quality preK-5 Spanish language programs. What follows is a recapitulation of those steps to help communities across the United States to have a laser focus on the necessary steps.

The word "accountability" is defined by Merriam-Webster as "the quality or state of being accountable, especially an obligation or willingness to accept responsibility or to account for one's actions." For those in education, accountability translates into creating an outstanding standards-based curriculum with appropriate learner objectives and desired outcomes, delivering instruction based on the curricula, and then assessing to what degree learning has occurred. If desired learning outcomes have not been achieved, then recursive remediation is necessary.

The lowest common denominator to maintain quality early Spanish language programs now and in the future and to demonstrate accountability is to provide proof that students are making adequate annual progress in Spanish language proficiency. Annual oral proficiency assessments that are based upon high standards for all learners are crucial.

Additionally, preservice teacher candidates need instruction on how to create, review, and revise curricula as well as deliver instruction at the elementary school level. At many universities, the teacher training foci are on middle and high school grades. Even experienced teachers without training on what constitutes preK-5 learners, how they learn, and what is appropriate to learn can stumble when working with elementary school programs and children. Also important is providing preservice teacher education candidates with valid and reliable ways to assess young learners, including oral proficiency assessments.

Among the many necessities that will set both teachers and learners up for success is the need to control class size and total number of students taught by individual teachers. Administrators must commit to hiring a sufficient number of well-trained teachers in order to create equitable class sizes for teachers. In an ACTFL Policy Goals document (2013), we are reminded that only $9 \%$ of Americans speak a language in addition to English. This is due in part to non-existent or perhaps non-rigorous elementary school language programs. Rhodes (2014) lists ten strategies based on the Center for Applied Linguistic's research that encapsulate and synthesize what will produce quality programs in the future. They are:

1. Focus on good teachers and high-quality instruction.
2. Identify and clearly state intended outcomes from the beginning.
3. Plan for $\mathrm{K}-16$ articulation from the start.
4. Develop and maintain ongoing communication among stakeholders.
5. Conduct ongoing advocacy efforts to garner and maintain public support.
6. Advocate for district- and state-wide language supervisors pre K-12.
7. Dispel common misperceptions about language learning.
8. Monitor language development through continual assessment.
9. Harness the power of immersion.
10. Remember that money matters.

In conclusion, this essay offers a future vision for Spanish teaching and learning preK-5. Its intention is to provide encouragement as well as deliver a wake-up call. We must make the effort to expend the time, energy, and resources that will ensure high-quality programs. Committing the same mistakes of the past should not be an option.

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Response 1 to "Realizing the Vision of Quality PreK-5 Spanish Language Programs: A Longitudinal Perspective"

# PreK-5 Foreign Language Programs: No Longer an Endangered Species? 



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Keywords: early language learning/aprendizaje de idiomas en escuela primaria, FLES, FLEX, immersion/ imersión, teaching and learning/enseñaza y aprendizaje

Challenges facing foreign language instruction in the United States are particularly acute in preK-5 programs. However, the rise of dual language immersion programs in this country represents a bright light in regard to elementary foreign language instruction. Dual language programs are being added and expanded across the country at a quick pace. Two years ago, the New York Times reported, " 40 dual-language programs for elementary, middle, and high school levels would be created or expanded for the 2015-16 school year" (Harris 2015). In North Carolina, over the past ten years the number of dual-language and immersion programs has grown from programs at seven schools to over 100 programs, many of which start in Kindergarten (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction). Maryland's Howard County Public School System is leading the way in their state by significantly increasing their $\mathrm{K}-12$ language offerings. The state of Utah boasts 138 schools offering dual language immersion programs, 106 of which are in elementary schools (Utah State Board of Education).

Despite the growth of these programs, there are very few teacher-training programs that exist to prepare such teachers. With the rapid expansion of dual immersion programs, our profession may be faced with a teacher shortage. Dual immersion and elementary foreign language education require unique skills. Teacher training programs are critical to ensure sound, developmentally appropriate pedagogy. According to the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) report from 2009, "More than one quarter of all elementary school foreign language teachers are not certified at all. The percentage of elementary schools that reported having uncertified language teachers increased from $17 \%$ in 1997 to $31 \%$ in 2008" (Rhodes and Pufahl 2009: 4). More than ever, teacher training and certification programs will need to be accessible and affordable for new teachers entering the profession and for those that need additional training in order to be qualified to teach in dual immersion programs. A 2011 report on the effect of quality teachers on student achievement concluded, "The year-long and cumulative effects on student achievement of having a qualified teacher can be measured and have been found to be substantial" (Hightower et al. 2011).

## A Call for Research

The need for strong elementary school foreign language programs must be made evident. However, these programs are expensive. To convince parents, school districts, and taxpayers of their value, strong evidence must be provided of their value. In a recent article by Kissau,

Adams, and Algozzine (2015), the researchers call for further research to support early language programs. Research on the motivational and proficiency related benefits of beginning language at an early age must be a priority. There is very little research conducted in the United States on the benefits of learning a language starting at a young age, yet there are plenty of excellent FLEX, FLES, and immersion programs that could offer valuable data and insight to proficiency outcomes in relation to early start programs.

## A Call for Excellence

Public and private schools that offer early language programs (e.g., FLEX, FLES, immersion) need to be models and advocates for early language education. Many elementary school language teachers are responsible for developing curriculum and may not have the resources, training, or funding to guide their efforts in order to ensure program excellence. Therefore, teachers in early language programs must become professionally active in national and state foreign language associations such as the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), the National Network for Early Language Learning (NNELL), their respective language association, such as the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP), and state organizations such as the Foreign Language Association of North Carolina (FLANC).

If we desire a globally competent United States population, we must raise our students starting at a very young age to be so. We know that advocacy efforts have been in full force for decades, and are shown to be effective and therefore, must continue. Important advocacy events, such as Language Advocacy Day, forces politicians in Washington to listen and focus their attention at least for a day on the decades-old conversation surrounding America's foreign language deficit. As language educators, we must continue to advocate, educate, and engage our students, parents, and administrators and ensure that these stakeholders understand and support the need for, and benefit of, early start foreign language education.

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Response 2 to "Realizing the Vision of Quality PreK-5 Spanish Language Programs: A Longitudinal Perspective"

> Paving the Way for Quality PreK-5 Language Programs


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Keywords: bilingual education/educación bilingüe, dual language/dos lenguas, early language learning/ aprendizaje de idiomas en escuela primaria, immersion/imersión, teaching and learning/enseñanza y aprendizaje, Seal of Biliteracy

The intention of Audrey L. Heining-Boynton's essay is to take a look back at the early beginnings of language programs and provide a vision for high-quality programs for the future. Building upon the themes in Heining-Boynton's essay, a comprehensive review of the advances in the field of early language learning continues to invite further research and inquiry.

According to Abbott et al. (2014), the United States can provide " $100 \%$ of learners in the US education system with exposure to international perspectives, culture, and/or language, in order to inform lifelong decisions about work and learning, and to support language and international efforts broadly in society" (256). In attempts to make this vision a reality, Abbott et al. envision a collaborative effort by which nonprofits collectively act, "in a grassroots effort in collaboration with the national security entities in the federal government and the economic interest in state governments" (259).

Grassroots initiatives like the Seal of Biliteracy address concerns such as appropriate learner objectives, desired proficiency outcomes, and developing and maintaining support among stakeholders. This initiative began as an award for high school students who have attained proficiency in two or more languages; however, the Seal of Biliteracy has now expanded to dual language immersion programs at the elementary and middle school levels (see sealofbiliteracy .org). The Seal of Biliteracy is open to both native English speakers who have attained a predetermined level of proficiency in an additional language and to English language learners who have retained their native language or developed their heritage language. As acknowledged in a joint policy statement between the US Department of Health and Human Services and the Department of Education, the majority school age, dual language learners come from homes where Spanish is the primary spoken language ("Fact Sheet" 2016). This policy statement also suggests that not recognizing a child's culture and language as an asset may contribute to the achievement gap. In 2014, nine states had adopted the Seal of Biliteracy. At the time of this submission, at least 27 states have adopted the the Seal of Biliteracy which is often awarded at special ceremonies. This emphasizes the value of proficiency in another language. The Seal of Biliteracy raises the bar from just something to be completed to one that recognizes language acquisition as a skill.

In order to meet the demand of qualified language teachers, candidates must demonstrate advanced proficiency in the language that can be only achieved by a native speaker or by immersion learners. The number of immersion schools is rising in states like New York, Utah, Delaware, and North Carolina. In 2015, the National Network for Early Language Learning (NNELL) presented New York City Schools Chancellor Carmen Fariña with the NNELL Award
for Outstanding Support of Early Second Language Learning ("Awards" 2015). Fariña created 40 dual language programs in 2015, with more programs planned; she claims parents are driving the push for the programs ("Chancellor Fariña Announces Programs" 2016).

According to Gregg Roberts, the World Language Specialist for the Utah Office of Education, Utah plans to add 20 to 25 more dual language schools per school year as dual immersion programs have increased from 1,400 students in 25 schools in 2009 to 29,000 students in 138 schools in 2016 (qtd. in Wood 2016). As part of Governor Jack Markell's World Language Expansion Initiative, Delaware hopes to reach nearly 10,000 students in K-8 immersion programs by 2022 ("World Language Immersion Expands" 2015).

Thomas and Collier (2012) claim dual language schools in North Carolina are so popular with English-speaking parents that there is a waiting list at each school for admission (69). As North Carolina implements and expands bilingual immersion programs, Thomas and Collier outlined the implementation process as well as research and data analysis that supports the effectiveness of bilingual immersion programs. "In summary, results from all of these North Carolina analyses indicate that all groups of students benefit greatly from dual language programs" (83).

When exploring what it takes to realize the vision of quality preK-5 Spanish language programs, one must look to the past and to the future to create a successful and sustainable early language learning environment. By raising awareness of successful language learning programs we strengthen advocacy efforts and can identify characteristics that make these programs effective. North Carolina, Delaware, Utah, and New York are just a few states that are paving the way for future early language learning programs. These schools provide models that produce data and provide evidence that students are making progress in proficiency in another language.

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# Transnational US Latino/a Literature: From the 1960s to the Twenty-First Century 



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#### Abstract

This essay provides a concise historical overview of US Latino/a literature from the 1960s into the twenty-first century. By tracing the evolution from its origins in small presses to major publishing houses in the United States, this literary tradition shifts from its regional and local portrayals of the Latino experience in the United States to that of transnational subjects migrating between the United States, Latin America, and beyond. This essay suggests that US Latino/a literature is no longer on the margins, but rather engages multiple geographies and histories that make these dynamic narratives part of world literature. Rather than employ a nationalist approach to the analysis of US Latino/a literature, critics in the twenty-first century use a transnational lens because it moves in various global contexts and has gained a wider readership and institutional following.


Keywords: feminism/femenismo, gender/género, historical novel/novela histórica, migrations/migraciones, transnational hemispheric literature/literatura transnacional hemisférica, US Latino/a literature/literatura latina estadounidense

Born or raised in the United States and educated in an English-speaking school system, US Latino/a authors come from a hybrid cultural background. While they have developed a cultural knowledge from their Latin American parentage/heritage, they have also been exposed to the Spanish language to different degrees of understanding. Even though US Latino/a literature has been published primarily in English since the 1960s, the authors bring their cultural heritage from Latin America to add to their US experiences in these texts. In the post-2000 period, US Latino/a literature has taken a transnational turn by expanding the literary canon of the Americas, which includes both Latin American and US literatures. They do not espouse one national dimension in their narratives, but rather demonstrate transnational migrations between multiple literary traditions. In Transnational Latina Narratives in the Twenty-first Century: The Politics of Gender, Race and Migrations, Juanita Heredia maintains that the historical narratives and memoirs published in the first decade of the twenty-first century exemplify a shift where the transnational migrations not only consist of traveling to the United States as a final destination but also voyages of return. Border crossings are taking place from the heritage/homeland in Latin America to the United States and other parts of the world; yet, the authors are also capturing a return to Latin America through physical journeys, memories, or maintaining cultural and social practices, for example through Latin American film, music, and spirituality, in the United States. Thus, US Latino/a literature enters a new literary phase that places the authors in dialogue with world literature.

With the growing demographics of Latinos/as in the United States, many new literary voices have emerged and diversified the publishing world to broaden the existing canon of US Latino/a authors. In addition to the more established groups such as Chicano/a, Puerto Rican, and Cuban American literary traditions, one must now pay attention to authors with roots in

Central American (e.g., Héctor Tobar), Dominican (e.g., Junot Díaz), and South American (e.g., Daniel Alarcón) diasporas. These authors have not only garnered prizes such as the Pulitzer and the MacArthur fellowship in the United States, but they also earned critical acclaim in their countries of origin/heritage. Women authors such as Chicana Sandra Cisneros (Caramelo), Peruvian American Marie Arana (Bolívar: American Liberator), and Panamanian American Cristina Henríquez (The World in Half) have also been crucial in expanding the canon in a hemispheric context, particularly in the genres of historical novels and biographies. Due to the reception by mainstream publishing houses, national fellowships, and literary prizes bestowed upon US Latinos/as, the authors have gained exposure and opportunities to commit themselves more fully to careers as literary writers.

In the introduction to The Routledge Companion to Latino/a Literature, Frances Aparicio and Suzanne Bost maintain that US Latino/a literature is a product of various cross-cultural circuits that are consequences of conquests that began in the colonial period in the fifteenth century when Europeans landed in the Americas. This historical phenomenon resulted in the creation of a mestizaje or hybrid culture that formed the identity of Latin Americans and thus, Latinos/ as in the United States. The critics further explain that during the civil rights movements of the 1960s, the two largest US Latino groups, Chicanos and Puerto Ricans, began to gain visibility in society as they struggled to achieve social equity in education, health, and the labor force after years of subjugation to colonization since the nineteenth century (e.g., The Treaty of Guadalupe of 1848 and the Spanish American War of 1898). As a consequence, these two groups made their presence known with their literary voices, especially in poetry and theatre, forms of vernacular literature popular among community members as well as university students. While Chicano Luis Valdez's El Teatro Campesino represented the plight of Mexican farmworkers in California in the 1960s, Miguel Algarin's Nuyorican Poets Café recovered the urban experiences of Puerto Ricans living in poverty in New York City in the 1970s. Novelists Tomás Rivera, Rudolfo Anaya, Piri Thomas, as well as the playwright Miguel Piñero exemplified a cultural pride and toasted a cultural nationalism in their texts derived from their specific heritages and regions in the southwest or east coast in the United States that predominated for decades in small editorial venues.

In the 1980s, US Latino/a literature reached another important moment as more women writers emerged on the literary scene within smaller publishing houses such as Arte Público Press, Bilingual Press and Third Woman. The anthology This Bridge Called My Back: Writings by Radical Women of Color, coedited by Chicana authors Cherríe Moraga and Gloria Anzaldúa, revealed the significance of autobiographical and critical writings by US ethnic women, in particular Latinas. In the coedited Cuentos: Stories by Latinas, Puerto Rican Alma Gómez, Cherríe Moraga, and Chilean American Mariana Romo-Carmona further expanded the literary voices of US Latinas in the short fiction and testimonial writings. In this decade, Chicana authors such as Sandra Cisneros, Denise Chávez, and Helena María Viramontes along with Puerto Ricans Judith Ortiz Cofer and Nicholasa Mohr (who actually began to publish in the 1970s) demonstrated a feminist perspective in their bildungsroman narratives that differed from previous generations where women were hardly taken seriously as writers due to patriarchal constraints. The authors portrayed their female characters with more agency and autonomy. The narratives produced by women in this decade were largely situated within the borders of the United States, be it in small towns or urban spaces.

By the 1990s, US Latino/a authors such as Sandra Cisneros shifted from small presses to east coast mainstream publishing houses with the publication of her short fiction collection Woman Hollering Creek and Other Stories earning a wider readership. US Latino/a literature also diversified more to include authors of Cuban and Dominican descent in the mainstream in the fiction by Julia Alvarez, Junot Díaz, Cristina García, and Oscar Hijuelos, who would become the first US Latino to win the Pulitzer Prize for his novel The Mambo Kings Play Songs of Love in 1990. In this decade, US Latino/a authors received critical acclaim at the national level and international recognition through Spanish translations. One also witnessed the rise of super
star authors such as Cisneros, Alvarez, García, Hijuelos, Díaz, and new ones such as Puerto Rican Esmeralda Santiago and Guatemalan Americans, Héctor Tóbar and Francisco Goldman. This decade illustrates an important transition where authors will now situate their narratives in global contexts distant from the regional locations of earlier decades.

In the post-2000 period, US Latino/a literature reached a new milestone with the emergence of a wider array of authors from virtually all of the Latin American diasporas, especially those of Central American and South American backgrounds. US Latino/a literature also encompasses various geographies and temporalities that reach beyond the Americas to spaces such as Africa, Asia, and Europe. This literature, which breaks national boundaries and takes on a global dimension, places its authors within the larger scope of world literature. Furthermore, Junot Díaz becomes the second US Latino author to earn a Pulitzer Prize for his novel The Brief Wondrous Life of Oscar Wao in 2008.

Transnational Latino/a narratives differentiate from previous decades because they provide more cultural, social, and historical contexts that explain the reasons for departure from the heritage/homeland. To understand US Latino/a literature in the twenty-first century, one must pay attention to multiple geographies and histories within the narratives, elements that often reveal the circumstances under which the protagonist and the family had to migrate across nations and continents. The motives for leaving may be economic, social, or political ones that determined the migration patterns for each national heritage. The United States had a distinct relationship with each Latin American nation that influenced each transnational migration. Furthermore, all readers can learn to appreciate the uniqueness of each Latino group in the United States and its contributions to the expanding field of transnational Latino/a literature and culture rather than perceive all US Latinos/as as a homogeneous group. The United States played a decisive role in the governments of many Latin American nations, be it the building of the Panama Canal, the Mexican Revolution of 1910 that affected border crossings into the United States, the Cuban Revolution of 1959 that triggered exiles into the United States, the Trujillo dictatorship that lasted thirty years in the Dominican Republic, and the civil wars that took place in Central America and in South America in the 1980s, to mention a few. Numerous narratives also incorporate a genealogical component in a transnational context. One only needs to examine the historical narratives such as Sandra Cisneros's Caramelo, Junot Díaz's The Brief Wondrous Life of Oscar Wao, Daniel Alarcón's Lost City Radio, Achy Obejas's Days of Awe, Angie Cruz's Let It Rain Coffee, Cristina García's Monkey Hunting, Nelly Rosario's Songs of the Water Saints, Kathleen de Azevedo's Samba Dreamers, Cristina Henríquez's The World in Half, Carolina de Robertis' The Invisible Mountain, and Sergio Waisman's Irse. Furthermore, transnational Latino/a memoirs have also made an indelible mark on world literature with examples such as Marie Arana's American Chica, Marta Moreno Vega's When the Spirits Dance Mambo: Growing Up Nuyorican in El Barrio, Oscar Hijuelos's Thoughts Without Cigarettes, and Daisy Hernández's A Cup of Water Under My Bed. Historical biographies such as Jaime Manrique's Our Lives Are the Rivers and Marie Arana's Bolivar: American Liberator have also earned critical acclaim and honors for recovering historical figures from the nineteenth century. Francisco Goldman's The Interior Circuit: A Mexico City Chronicle and Héctor Tobar's Deep Down Dark: The Untold Stories of 33 Men Buried in a Chilean Mine, and the Miracle that Sets Them Free combine the genres of journalism and the essay to move US Latino/a literature into a new direction as well. Furthermore, Josefina López's Hungry Woman in Paris and Patricia Engel's It's Not Love, It's Just Paris illustrate how US Latino/a authors are moving to metropolitan centers outside of the Americas such as Paris, a city with a multicultural population. These examples demonstrate how the literature has evolved from its regional origins in the 1960s to narratives in dialogue with other multicultural nations undergoing globalization in the twenty-first century.

Similar to the pioneer The Routledge Companion and Transnational Latina Narratives, the critics of US Latino/a literature play an important role in the canon by embracing a transnational approach that dialogues with Latin America as well as other world literary traditions in the
twenty-first century. In fact, some scholars (e.g., Calderón, Heredia, Machado, and Rodríguez) contributed essays to the section on canon formation in The Routledge Companion. Since US Latino/a literature derives from a hybrid background, the critics have also been trained in various disciplines that range from English to Spanish to American Studies and Latin American Studies, an element that exemplifies the multidisciplinary nature of this literary tradition. In Narratives of Greater Mexico: Essays on Chicano Literary History, Genres, and Borders, Héctor Calderón argues for a reconsideration in analyzing Chicano literature within one literary tradition. Rather than stay within the geographical boundaries of the United States, he reaches to Mexican culture and history in examining closely the transnational context of seven different authors of Mexican descent. He not only traces border crossings from Mexico to the United States, but also from the United States back to Mexico, noting a definite transnational pattern. He writes, "the field of Chicano and Chicana literature is no longer an endeavor relegated solely to regional or marginal status. This literature and its criticism are in many ways links between dissimilar cultural traditions on both sides of the international divide" (xii). Likewise, José David Saldívar takes a comparative look at the global component of different Mexican descent authors in dialogue with nineteenth century Cuban liberator and poet José Martí, and the contemporary Indian author Arundati Roy, to posit a hemispheric approach in his Trans-Americanity: Subaltern Modernities, Global Coloniality and Cultures of Greater Mexico. He observes, "In fact, one might even argue that the intersubjective and spatio-temporal dimensions explored by the transnational novel are also indicated in Caramelo or Puro Cuento" (xxv).

In Market Aesthetics: The Purchase of the Past in Caribbean Diasporic Fiction, Elena Machado Sáez examines an array of Pan-Caribbean diasporic texts from Britain, Canada, and the United States that negotiate the capital of market aesthetics with their commitment to social change/ justice. In looking at key Latino Caribbean texts, she notes, "By reading Caribbean diasporic literature as a tradition in and of itself, we examine historical novels that are located at the intersection of the nation and the transnational, the ethnic and the postcolonial" (2). In this comparative approach, she tracks the impact that globalization on the literary aesthetics of Latino Caribbean authors who engage the past to comprehend the present and future.

Within the Central American diaspora, Ana Patricia Rodríguez employs an interdisciplinary approach in her analysis of various texts by authors of this tradition in Dividing the Isthmus: Central American Transnational Histories, Literatures, and Cultures. She probes into culture and history in her critical study "situationally to describe Central American texts produced in evershifting historical trans/national configurations" (4). In her comparative approach, she looks at the texts by authors from the mainland in Central America as much as those of the diaspora in the United States to "(re)assemble Central American narratives into transisthmian bodies of knowledge, connecting texts across nations of the region" (4). By delving into the historical and social context of the US intervention in the civil wars in Central America, Rodríguez cannot separate what happened on the mainland with the experiences of those in the diaspora, both of whom are inextricably linked across nations.

In the coedited The 'Other' Latinos: Central and South Americans in the United States (2008), José Luis Falconi and José Antonio Mazzotti capture the diversity that exists within the demographics of an exploding Latino/a population in the United States since 2000. They claim that technological advancements and resources have helped Latinos of Central and South American heritages form part of a transnational phenomenon that enables them to participate more fully in, at least, two nations, two cultures, and two languages in the United States (14). In terms of the South American diaspora, they explore the literature and cultural practices of a heterogeneity of Latinos pointing to the transnational migrations that occur within specific regions in the United States, for example Peruvian Americans in Paterson, New Jersey, and Brazilian Americans in Boston, Massachusetts. These groups now have their own diasporic literatures which speak to the increasing diversity of Latinos in the United States in the twenty-first century.

In terms of institutional recognition, critics and professional allies of transnational US Latino/a literature have established important academic conferences and committees that attest to the direction and future of this literary tradition and more broadly, the field of US Latino/a Studies. Beginning in the United States in 2013, CUNY John Jay College in New York City implemented the Biennial Latino/a Literary Theory and Criticism Conference which is a first conference of its kind dedicated solely to US Latino/a literature. In 2014, the First International Latino Studies Conference took place in Chicago with over 500 participants and many papers dedicated to transnational Latino/a literature. Under the forum executive committees of Languages, Literatures, and Cultures in the Modern Languages Association, one now finds Latina and Latino literature and culture as a committee that was inaugurated in 2015 after many years of discussion. Similar to the previous conferences in New York City and Chicago, critics deliver professional talks dedicated to the transnational Latino/a literature at the MLA. On an international level, scholars in Spain began the International Conference on Chicano Literature in 1998 that takes place biannually and includes critical conversations on transnational Latino/a literature. In 2009 the renowned Casa de las Américas in Havana, Cuba, established a Program in Latino Studies, making one of its goals the study of transnationalism. In fact, in 2015 the host scholars organized the III Coloquio Internacional de los latinos en los Estados Unidos: Más allá de los bordes y las fronteras: transnacionalismo y creación where they invited an array of international prominent scholars to disseminate knowledge on transnational Latino/a literature and culture. These academic endeavors prove that the scholarly interest in transnational Latino/a literature is no longer within US parameters, but has caught the attention of readers across the globe and thus, will have an impact on students and the public in general.

In the post-2000 period US Latino/a authors are producing a variety of narratives, historical novels, memoirs, and essays that transcend national borders. They engage in the circulation of communities, cultural practices, and experiences. If these authors perform a hybrid identity across many cultures and nations, then the readership in the United States, Latin America, and beyond must also embrace an understanding of living the transnational experiences that these authors have captured in their vanguard literary works. At this moment in time it is important to read and examine transnational Latino/a literature because it reflects the rich culture and history of a heterogeneous group in the United States that is having an enormous impact on every facet of US society that will continue into the twenty-first century.

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# Response to "Transnational US Latino/a Literature: From the 1960s to the Twenty-First Century" <br> Life on the Hyphen or Bolívar's Undying Promise 



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Keywords: "Carta de Jamaica," globalization/globalización, Hemispheric Studies/estudios hemisféricos, Pan-America/Panamérica, Simón Bolivar, World Literature/literatura mundial

What does a successful America look like? Is it national? Is it regional? Is it trans- or subcultural? Is it caramel, white, or brown? Is it stability? Is it fluctuation? Is it a success that stands alone? Is it an equality that belies difference?
Pertinent as they are, these questions are not new ones. In "Carta de Jamaica" of 1815, Simón Bolívar hypothesized the birth of a region that would inherit humanity, proffering antidotes to these very criteria. Borrowing from Adam Smith, and preceding G. W. F. Hegel and Marx, Bolívar was among the first of many pan-American theorists to claim that the rising tide of prosperity would raise all ships. The inevitability of the Western Hemisphere would blur all borders and bandage all wounds.

Why then, at "Carta de Jamaica's" bicentenary, is identity politics and its cultural canon in expanse?

The article in this collection, "Transnational US Latino/a Literature: From the 1960s to the Twenty-First Century," offers a catalogue and review of a recently booming corpus of work that proves Bolívar wrong. Ranging from recent criticism on gang and cartel Central America to Spanish speaking US literature, the uniting factor in an otherwise disparate group of writers is that it presupposes an underdog-ness that "derives from a hybrid background."

The article sets aside a cultural block and highlights that the growing body of work, siphoned off from other literary studies, is successful in its own right. This is what unites Junot Díaz with transnational Latinas and Sandra Cisneros with Central American nomads. This analysis has been necessary for what critical theorists would call the dialectical positioning and projecting of future hope through culture, what decolonial theorists would refer to as the unearthing of the analectic, or pure underlying self, and what the layperson might simply refer to as a desire to feel represented authentically.

Is it trauma? Is it triumph?
Many world literary theorists would argue that the real moment of empowerment would come when this snapshot of framed culture is woven into the whole and shown to hold up to, if not exceed, the rigor of wider comparisons and criticism. If what is at stake is an attempt to come to terms with a tension that originates elsewhere, retreating to particularisms has its limits. Walt Whitman, William Faulkner, and Flannery O'Conner were influential for prominent Latin American writers throughout the twentieth century. The argument would hold, then, can one not presume that the writers highlighted in this article can be important to American(o/a)s of all backgrounds and still have an acute resonance?

Is it mutual understanding? Is it narcissism?
The current moment presents a discord not out of line with that of the beginning of the nineteenth century. Geographical borders may have worn away, but cultural mores and their differences, be they performative or ontological, shine as bright as they ever have. These borders that social critics as differing in opinion as Samuel Huntington and Gloria Anzaldúa have viewed as a wound, one can only hope, will become more a cardinal point to guide Americanos to understanding what has been, until now, a violent twenty first century.

For Bolívar, American success comprises a citizenry that would be "ni indio ni europeo." He is not right two hundred years later. Will he be right two hundred years from now?

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# Where's the Community? Redux 



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#### Abstract

As foreign language and (inter)cultural studies instructors, we have a duty to assist both our students and the communities with which we interact understand and cope with an increasingly technologized, globalized, and conflictive mid-twenty-first-century society. In the unpredictable context of 2068, community-engaged pedagogy can become an even more important progressive force for countering the dystopian tendencies we see around us today. If we confirm our commitment to the fundamental principles of personal responsibility and social justice that underlie our work, we may be able to envision and achieve a more sustainable and ethical democratic society in the future.


Keywords: community-engaged language learning/aprendizaje de lenguas enraizado en comunidades, education for citizenship/educación para la formación ciudadana, educational technology/tecnología educativa, learning communities/comunidades de aprendizaje, pedagogy/pedagogía

Acontinuous flow of news reports seems to augur a frighteningly violent dystopian future where linguistic, ethnic, racial, religious, cultural, social, political, and economic differences increasingly divide us. Ultimately, it may be impossible to counteract these disruptive forces, but, certainly, (inter)cultural studies and foreign language pedagogy will continue to play a significant role in any attempt to forge mutual understanding and respect across the globe during the next fifty years. Through this special issue of Hispania, we who have dedicated our lives to foreign language teaching in general-and Spanish and Portuguese in particular-are attempting to speculate on the state of our profession in the unknowable world of 2068. It is my strong belief that we cannot come close to achieving this goal without taking into account the societal milieu of our practice and the nature of the communities with which we interact. Moreover, because this collective environment is ever-changing and unpredictable, we are obligated to reaffirm for our students that the success of a civically engaged pedagogy enmeshed in intricate community relationships cannot rest on a set of prescriptive methods, but must rather embody the principles of personal responsibility and social justice that will be fundamental for achieving a more inclusive and egalitarian social order in the next half century.

Although we are unable to discern with any degree of certainty what the future will bring, we can, at least, make educated guesses and extrapolate from present trends, among them, the growing diversity of our society, the increasing availability and sophistication of technology, and the ongoing transition to an information-based economy.

There is no question that the United States is becoming much more diverse ethnically, culturally, and linguistically. Data from the US Census Bureau show a major reshuffling of ethnic/racial demographic categories, with minorities increasing and Whites decreasing (US Census Bureau 2016). These shifts clearly impacted the outcome of the 2016 presidential election, with voters strongly divided on immigration, economic inequality and the wealth gap, and disputes about sexual orientation, marriage equality, and gender bias. Underlying these issues is continuing
anxiety about the loci of power and who will be able to make and benefit from decisions in political and educational arenas. On a global scale, questions about cultural and political influence, economic disparity, global warming, population displacements, and the proliferation of military contests and other forms of violence take on another significant level of complexity. These growing disparities, misunderstandings, and outright conflicts will be increasingly reflected within schools and classrooms in the future, and will directly impact foreign language educators attempting to establish stronger instructional networks with communities abroad.

A prognostication regarding technology may be easy in general but difficult when it comes to specifics. When a Mexican five-year old "spends all day at the computer" (private communication), when Uruguay supplies computers and internet access to all their schools (Balaguer 2010), when internet language translation is just a Google button away, and when online gaming communications can be used to hide terrorist activity, it is clear that technological changes will continue to radically impact the way we interact with each other and with information in the next half century. But we cannot know precisely how, considering all kinds of digital mobile instruments and online services that are now commonplace did not exist ten years ago. We can only guess what students "hooked on" computers and digital networks almost from birth will demand of their teachers and schools even just a few years from now. Most likely, we will be faced with a panoply of individual adaptations, needs, desires, and goals, all of which will have to be accommodated in our classrooms and other educational venues, whatever they may look like then.

The disruptive effects of a transition to an information-based economy are already evident in a variety of sectors; for example, Google and Wikipedia in knowledge acquisition, Amazon in commerce, Facebook in social interaction, Airbnb in tourism, Uber in transportation, Netflix in entertainment, smartphones in connectivity, and drones in war. New workers with different educational backgrounds and skills are displacing long-time employees whose formerly desirable attributes may no longer be relevant. A similarly disruptive process is affecting education systems nationally as they struggle to adapt to these new labor requirements by fitfully attempting to produce more independently thinking and creative workers of the future. As a result, pedagogies that are collaborative, holistic, student-centered, and occur "anywhere, anytime" are slowly and erratically replacing those that are competitive, disciplinary, teacher-controlled, and classroom-bound in our schools and colleges (US Department of Education 2016). These trends seem to reinforce the notion that there is a significant overlap between the methods, values, and perspectives of community-engaged pedagogy and this new economic and educational context, but perhaps that parallel should not be so facilely drawn.

The title of this paper references a piece I wrote for Hispania called "Where's the Community?," one of several commissioned to respond to two previously published Modern Language Association (MLA) reports on the state of postsecondary foreign language teaching (MLA 2009). At the time, I was perplexed that the MLA had completely overlooked community-engaged language pedagogy in its recommendations; especially, since academic service learning efforts already had a long history, as evidenced by the creation of Campus Compact in 1985 and the foundation of the Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning in 1994. Moreover, language teaching in particular has valued such work since the publication of the Standards for Foreign Language Learning: Preparing for the 21 st Century by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). Also, many Spanish and Portuguese teachers have responded to Edward Zlotkowski's memorable challenge to engage more with communities at the AATSP Annual Conference in Denver in 1999. But AATSP's current attempt to speculate about the future of Spanish and Portuguese language instruction provides a great opportunity to update our understanding about the role of "community" in that process and develop even more effective engagement strategies.

The promulgation of the ACTFL Standards can be viewed as a watershed moment for language teachers, with their "five C" guidelines (Communication, Cultures, Connections,

Comparisons, and Communities) continuing to influence the way languages are taught. The fifth C's emphasis on students' "participation in multilingual communities at home and around the world," usually considered the most difficult to accommodate and assess, and sometimes called the "lost C" (Allen 2013), has been the foundation for my work at Pitzer College since 1999 (Hellebrandt and Jorge 2013; Jorge 2003; Jorge 2006; Jorge 2008). Our Community-based Spanish Program has not only been efficacious in helping students improve their language proficiency, but also provides significant ancillary benefits for all the program's participants, including the children of the promotoras (the female heads of households that host periodic visits by our students), who develop a strong desire to access higher education because of their extensive interactions with college students (Jorge 2011). This behavior is quite different from that of their peers in the community who are not similarly exposed.

I find especially intriguing that the development of deep personal relationships between the students and host families that I researched is apparently being replicated in a completely different digital context. My Pitzer colleague, Professor of Spanish and Portuguese Juanita C. Aristizábal (along with Patrick McDermott Welch), has indicated that similar strong ties seem to be developing between her students of Portuguese in Claremont and students learning English in Brazil, who are connected through a formal online course. Students in both countries cited the development of friendships based on common interests as the foundation for continued conversations after the end of the official exchange; a deepened knowledge of the target culture; and, in some circumstances, plans for face to face meetings (2017). Interestingly, it appears that these trends continued as the program developed. Other programs and projects have experienced similar outcomes (Palloff and Pratt 2007; Scott and Johnson 2005; Thorne, Black, and Sykes. 2009). The focus is on the context of learning, and, for me, the fact that "community engagement" pedagogy can so profoundly assist participants in transcending geographic, cultural, linguistic, political, and economic boundaries reinforces the sense of ACTFL's perspicacity in promulgating its Standards twenty years ago, and the need to find this fifth C again if, indeed, it was ever lost.

Evidently, more and more of our colleagues are coming to the same realization. In 2012, AATSP's Executive Council approved Community Engagement as the organization's first special interest group, bringing additional recognition to this field. Then in 2013, Hispania produced a special issue on the scholarship of community engagement, which included an analysis of a survey of AATSP members indicating strong support ( $75 \%$ of respondents) for communityengaged language pedagogy. The high quality articles in that volume on a multitude of topics related to community engagement in language teaching and learning represent contemporary thought and "speak to the breadth, integration, and depth of experiential learning among teachers of Spanish and Portuguese" (Hellebrandt and Jorge 2013).

Many practitioners and authors trace the roots of today's community-engaged pedagogies to philosopher and psychologist John Dewey's pragmatism and education for democracy (Dewey 1942; Dewey 1997) and Brazilian educator and philosopher Paulo Freire's critical pedagogy and education for social justice (Freire 2000; Freire 2013). A third influential thread originates with Russian psychologist and educator Lev Vygotsky's focus on the social construction of knowledge and meaning (Kozulin 2007). In addition, his concepts about the "zone of proximal development" (Chaiklin 2003: 39); the student's integral role in his/her own educational experience; teaching and learning as collaborative and reflexive processes; and the interconnections among speech, language, and cognitive development (Moll 2014; Smagorinsky 2013; Vygotsky 1986) have been influential among educators. The integration of these three theoretical threads provides the basis for my own point of departure-that language is a social practice inextricably linked to community and cultural contexts embedded in power relationships (Jorge 2010). I also believe that such an approach can provide a viable perspective for thinking about language pedagogy in a future that will be impacted by the uncertainties resulting from new developments in technology, changing demographics, and the vicissitudes of international sociopolitical and economic relationships.

Indeed, on the surface, there appears to be a growing overlap between current educational technology trends and the "traditional" premises of community-engaged educational efforts. A good overview is provided by The US Department of Education Office of Educational Technology's timely National Education Technology Plan, "Future Ready Learning: Reimagining the Role of Technology in Education" (US Department of Education 2016). Although the plan deals primarily with K-12 educational systems, and, more specifically, the role of technology therein, the consideration of contextual influences and aspirations has significant implications for postsecondary education, especially language instruction. The heading in the introductory graphic alone, "making possible everywhere, all-the-time learning," combined with the emphasis on equity, accessibility, and overcoming the "digital use divide" are, in themselves, noteworthy for community engagement practitioners (2-3).

The plan covers learning, teaching, leadership, assessment, and infrastructure in relation to education technology, and makes numerous recommendations for both formal and informal educational settings, and the learning opportunities possible through connecting the two. The plan also emphasizes "non-cognitive competencies" (social and emotional learning), personalized learning, "blended learning," and the development of "learners with agency." It also provides ideas for "technology-enabled learning in action," including project-based learning dealing with 'real world' problems, digital and online games and simulations, robot-assisted language learning, digital modeling, and three-dimensional imaging (6-8, 11, 16).

Other authors have also discussed mobile-assisted language learning (Liu et. al. 2014; Taylor et al. 2006); the role of computer games in "enactive" learning (Li 2014); and the emerging field of information technology applied to language teaching and research (Stockwell 2014). These ideas and projects are all currently on the cutting edge of technology-based learning efforts, but, within the next fifty years, the picture will evolve considerably. Perhaps by 2068, even some Star Trek visions will be closer to reality. We already see rudimentary versions of the holodeck and some of the crew's other sophisticated technologies in WiFi, voice recognition software, interactive computer-generated speech, foreign language translation programs, and online video games and simulations. Such tools could provide students with direct feedback about their progress in learning skills, effective communication, or culturally appropriate behavior while they participate in life-like fabricated worlds. Yet they could also seriously disrupt traditional formal education systems, and magnify current concerns and questions about the appropriate role of teachers.

As the USDOE plan shows, we are apparently able to develop the means to address technological issues that impact education, at least for some students. However, the question remains whether there is sufficient political will to translate our rhetoric regarding equity and accessibility into action. It may be that in the next fifty years the changes occurring in the country's demographics will, in themselves, cause widespread beneficent alterations in the power relationships within many of our social systems and educational institutions. However, I remain somewhat skeptical and believe that other explicit efforts, including appropriately and effectively executed community-engaged language and intercultural education, will continue to be essential in helping to build bridges among various sectors of our society. The plan's list of twenty-first-century skills all center around greater efficiency and productivity in a more complex information ecology, and, although many additional individuals from currently underrepresented populations may gain access to those new systems and develop the related skills, the question of the overarching purpose for this new kind of education is still unanswered. We still have to ask, "How does it address the needs of our ever-changing communities? Where is the concern for the common good and active democratic participation? Where are the ethical principles of personal responsibility and social justice espoused by Dewey and Freire?"

We can look to Caryn McTighe Musil's article, "Civic-Rich Preparation for Work" (2015), to help us answer these questions. She considers the ethical components of a liberal education as essential for succeeding in the new information-based economy. She and colleagues undertook
a study to examine the intersection of preparation for both work and citizenship, and posed the question, "How might a deliberately civic-enriched liberal education prepare students for good jobs and for exercising civic muscles and democratic values while doing their work?" She cites a series of surveys of employers that seek to determine the most desired capabilities for college graduates entering the twenty-first-century workforce, wherein only one of the top five skills, "ethical decision making," was "uniquely important to a democratic society." She cleverly points out that, ironically, excelling in the other four-critical thinking, written and oral communication, teamwork, and the ability to apply knowledge in real-world settings-"were part of what made financial lending in the subprime mortgage scheme so wildly profitable . . . and sent the rest of the world into financial chaos on a scale not seen since the Great Depression" (4).

Thus, the question remains: how will a technologically enhanced liberal education benefit communities of the future beyond producing more efficient and productive Information Age workers, even if they do increasingly come from currently underrepresented groups? A sense of civic responsibility is also necessary to ensure a truly functioning democratic society. Musil suggests that developing a sense of personal and social responsibility be required outcomes for all students in higher education curricula, and not only dealt with informally through student services departments or, as is frequently the case, not at all (4). This makes eminent sense to me, but I should point out that Pitzer College has had educational objectives for "intercultural understanding" and "concern with social responsibility and the ethical implications of knowledge and action" for over thirty years, and they have been the basis of our community-engaged language learning approach since 1999.

While it is clear that the broad educational environment will change significantly in the next fifty years, I strongly believe that community-engaged language and culture instruction can continue to play an important role in helping students develop ethical attitudes and interactions with the environment and their fellow human beings. The technologies will change, the economic factors will change, and the community composition will change; however, I suspect that our professional progeny will still find the lessons of Dewey, Freire, and Vygotsky to be important and useful even in 2068. And it is my hope that those readers who have already experienced the (admittedly limited) efficacy of community-engaged (inter)cultural studies and foreign language pedagogy in overcoming linguistic, ethnic, racial, cultural, and social differences will be able to maintain their stamina and continue to work toward a more democratic and just future. For those of you who have not thus far ventured into this realm, I hope you will be willing to join us in these efforts to assist students in flexibly adapting to the fluctuations of an increasingly technologized, globalized, and conflictive mid-twenty-first century society. A little dose of utopian vision may offset, in small part, the dystopian tendencies we see around us today.

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# Where's John Dewey and Paulo Freire? Ideas on "Recovering" the "Lost C" 



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Keywords: community-based pedagogy/pedagogía basada en la comunidad, education for citizenship/ educación para ciudadanía, ethical learning/aprendizaje ético, global civic engagement/compromismo cívico global, John Dewey, Paulo Freire

"Where's the Community? Redux" raises some excellent points of discussion for the future of foreign language pedagogy and cultural instruction within ACFTL's "five C" guidelines. We especially commend the author for pointing out the "lost C" of "Community," aptly citing the pedagogical philosophies of John Dewey and Paulo Freire as worthy of revisitation. In this response, there are three points we will elaborate on in regard to the so-called lost $\mathrm{C}: 1$ ) ethical learning; 2) engaging the local community; and 3) engaging the global community. These three points, we contend, build one upon the other, and establish a pedagogical framework to "recover" this lost C, drawing from the thinking and practices of Dewey and Freire.

Beginning with ethical learning, revisitation of John Dewey's philosophy on experiential education and democracy, detailed in works like Democracy and Education (1916) and Experience and Education (originally published in 1938), is the first order. According to Dewey, an education should: 1) generate interest; 2 ) be intrinsically worthwhile; 3 ) present problems that awaken new curiosity and create a demand for information; and 4) cover a considerable time span and be capable of fostering future development for the individual and for the social. On the latter point, Dewey establishes an ethical foundation for education, one in which there is a dialectal relationship of social sharing and growth between individuals and community. As Dewey (1916) notes, "the measure of the worth of the administration, curriculum, and methods of instruction of the school is the extent to which they are animated by a social spirit" (415).

For our second point, engaging the local community, Brazilian pedagogue and social activist, Paulo Freire, is also worthy of revisitation. His books, Educação como prática da liberdade (originally published in 1967) and Pedagogia do oprimido (originally published in 1968), in particular, are essential reading for teaching and civic engagement. Freire (2009) synthesizes his pedagogy thusly: "É fundamental . . . partirmos de que o homem, ser de relações e não só de contatos, não apenas está no mundo, mas com o mundo" (47, emphasis his). That is, we are to teach with the world, not in it, which results in an authentic dialog with the community and leads to what he termed "conscientização" (Freire 2005: 180-81). Furthermore, inspired by the ideals of Che Guevara, Freire was a revolutionary teacher who engaged communities through literacy campaigns directed at poverty-stricken areas of Brazil, planting the seeds for a more just and ethical society through a marriage of education and civic engagement.

The philosophies and practices of Dewey and Freire segue into our final point, engaging the global community. Our courses titled Senior Global Citizenship Seminars at the University of New England focus on issues such as civic engagement and democratic values, social responsibility, appreciation of diversity, sustainable development, and service learning. These seminars spend roughly two weeks in country, in locales such as Mexico, Peru, Brazil, the Dominican Republic, Nicaragua, and Kenya, where students experience the interrelationship of the above dynamics. While in country, students partner with local citizens and organizations, communicating in the native language, and engage in a variety of civic activities in areas such as health care, housing, education, and the environment. In this context, students are able to speak with and volunteer for people of lesser socioeconomic advantages, and add an invaluable sociocultural context to their foreign language and cultural educations. As one student who recently returned from Nicaragua assessed: "I spoke more Spanish with 'locals' about local issues than I did in an entire semester of study abroad in Spain." And another student evaluated: "It is about being human and being humane. It is about realizing that I am not the only person in the world nor am I the most important person. It is about making a difference and an impact in someone's life."

In short, in global civic engagement seminars, students come face to face with the ethics of the experience, the ethics of engagement, and the ethics of their own learning. Such, we believe, are the ideals that Dewey and Freire intended to teach us, and are some ideas for "recovering" the lost C for foreign language and culture curricular design in the twenty-first century.

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# For Twenty-First-Century Success, Embrace Both Tradition and Innovation 

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Interacting with diverse communities of the future is not a choice between "producing more efficient and productive Information Age workers" (Jorge 2017: 179) or ensuring that college graduates act with a sense of personal responsibility, social justice and civic engagement. To succeed beyond college, graduates of the future must be equipped to do both.

One of the best ways to develop college graduates able to "cope with an increasingly technologized, globalized, and conflictive mid-twenty-first century society" (Jorge 2017: 179) is through service-learning opportunities while in college. The communities with which students engage during a service-learning encounter are often professional communities. And upon graduation, the most successful will enter communities of professionals, where a college degree has become the prerequisite for entry-level work that used to require a high school diploma (Burning Glass 2014) and the cost of getting that four-year degree has been increasing dramatically (National Center for Education Statistics 2015).

Including technology and technological adaptability in our pedagogy can be part of concretely preparing students for their work in the community while still in college as well as for their futures as professionals after college. This means teaching students to adapt-not just teaching them fixed skills-even as we teach adaptively. In terms of how we teach, this might mean pushing students away from the professor as primary resource; when students are in the community, the professor is neither present nor the expert. Therefore, students must develop the habit of consulting non-instructor resources to resolve problems they encounter (for example, employee manuals at the community partner organization, the community partner where necessary, and online technical support tools).

In terms of teaching adaptively while incorporating technology, faculty can require that all students use "hard skills" in their course projects. (While the humanities generally serve to develop "soft skills"-written and verbal communication, the ability to engage in critical thinking, analysis and synthesis of information-there is certainly room in the curriculum to require students to use hardware and software). This can be achieved simply by requiring that students present their assignments or final projects using technologies such as websites, social media, YouTube, iMovie, virtual meeting sites or screencasts. Whatever the course, content or project, students can use their critical thinking skills to find the best technological venue for their work. Community partners and employers are eager for students and recent graduates with these technological skills (Taylor 2015) paired with the independence, resourcefulness, problem-solving and decision-making skills that go with selecting and troubleshooting them (Adams 2014).

To provide more structure, build time into the curriculum for students to get themselves over the technological learning curve. For example, one homework assignment might be to choose a technological platform and hand in a link to the video or step-by-step tutorial used to learn about it. A week or two later, students hand in a link to a "test" sample-a generic website with no actual content in it-a "test, test, 1-2-3" YouTube video created using iMovie or screencast; or a social media handle with a compelling case for that platform's appropriateness to the project.

Instructors do not have to troubleshoot any of this technology, but do have to adapt to not being the sole experts in their courses. Tech support is readily available to students. Nearly every application has a "help" tab, many provide tutorial videos, Googling your problem as a question usually leads to a useful discussion thread with a solution, and calling the help desk is always a last resort that is best done directly by the user (and not by a faculty intermediary). This is precisely how we teach adaptively as we teach students to adapt.

To produce graduates prepared both for the professional workforce and to act with a sense of civic and personal responsibility, faculty must embrace both tradition and innovation as we teach students to adapt and teach adaptively ourselves.

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# Spanish and Portuguese Programs in Higher Education Institutions in the United States: Perspectives and Possibilities 



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#### Abstract

This essay addresses key challenges that Spanish and Portuguese programs in higher education institutions will face over the coming years. First, we present options to position Spanish and Portuguese as an integral part of institutional efforts concerning interdisciplinarity, community engagement, and global awareness. Next, we discuss curricular changes for Spanish and Portuguese programs to focus on historical, cultural, linguistic, and social questions linked to Spanish- and Portuguese-speaking communities throughout the world. Finally, we look into programmatic ways for the profile of Hispanics and Lusophone Americans in the United States to be taken into distinct consideration by Spanish and Portuguese programs.


Keywords: curriculum design/diseño curricular, heritage learners/estudiantes de herencia, higher education/ educación superior, language program articulation/articulación de programas de lenguas, teacher education/formación de profesores

Arecent report by the Modern Language Association (MLA) (Goldberg, Looney, and Lusin 2015) reveals a mixed outlook for Spanish and Portuguese in United States higher education. Spanish enrollments are still greater than all other languages combined, but the report documents an overall decrease of $8.2 \%$ since $2009-5.7 \%$ at the undergraduate level, and $20.5 \%$ at the graduate level. Portuguese continues with its steady increase since the 1960s, and it is one of only a handful of languages that gained enrollments between 2009 and 2013. This increase could be related to a greater attention to Brazil in the last decade (Milleret 2012), but it is still far from the position that Portuguese should have as the fifth most spoken language in the world.

There are significant underlying trends that may be affecting second language (L2) enrollments in US higher education. Among others, they include a reduction in L2 requirements (particularly in the natural and social sciences), pressure on students to select academic options with more immediate financial promise, competition with other disciplines (e.g., computer sciences, information and communication technologies), and lack of institutional support in spite of calls for "internationalization," "globalization," or "cultural diversity." While many of us consider this as a quite shortsighted approach to the value of a liberal education, US higher education does not seem to envisage a better future (Pratt 2009). For this reason, our article will propose institutional, curricular, and programmatic choices for Spanish and Portuguese university programs to reach a more solid position in years to come.

## Spanish and Portuguese at the Institutional Level

During all historical periods and especially in the last 40-50 years, L2 study has been framed in service of US geopolitical and economic security. Such practical orientation involves several asymmetrical or even conflicting views. Jeff Bale (2014) alludes to a "zero-sum approach" towards
language education seen as "either an economic and political resource to bolster the national interest or essential for the expression and extension of the rights of minoritized language communities" (184; emphasis in original). Similarly, Lacorte (2013) notes the contrast between 1) the advantages of learning Spanish for middle- or upper-class English-speaking students (Hughet and Pomerantz 2013); and 2) the "problem" that would set US Latino students seeking to maintain and/or learn Spanish apart from the model of the ideal English-monolingual US citizen (García 2014; see Carvalho 2010 for an insightful discussion about Portuguese in the United States). Furthermore, the emphasis on utilitarian perspectives about language education could play a major role in its persistent view as a complement for other academic areas-communication, business, health, etc. As Rogelio Miñana (2013) points for Spanish in small institutions, such a view of Spanish and Portuguese programs as "providers" of language services may entail excessively large enrollments in lower-level language courses, pressure on staffing needs, institutional reluctance to fund additional tenure lines, and a perception of language programs as academically and/or intellectually inferior (see Klee 2006 for a similar view regarding larger institutions).

Spanish and Portuguese programs should tackle these institutional asymmetries or conflicts through a resolute engagement in "constructive dialogues" at committees, study groups, panels, task forces and program reviews with administrators and other colleagues. Conversations about documents such as "Languages for All? Final Report" (Abbott et al. 2014), "The Heart of the Matter" (Commission on the Humanities and Social Sciences 2013), or the "Twenty-FirstCentury Skills World Language Map" (Partnership for Twenty-first-century Skills [P21]/ACTFL 2011) could lead to more informed decision-making to meet the short- and long-term language needs for students in the academic, social, business, security, and information sectors. Another critical dimension of these dialogues should involve the alignment of student learning outcomes for L2 programs with those at the institutional level. Such endeavor would supply administrators with measurable evidence about the achievement of linguistic and cultural objectives. For example, Carol Klee, Charlotte Melin, and Dan Soleson's (2015) programmatic evaluation model combines the proficiency guidelines developed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL 2012), the World-Readiness Standards for Foreign Languages (The National Standards Collaborative Board 2015), and the goals for liberal education stated by the American Association of Colleges and Universities (AAC and U) (2007). (See HeiningBoyton and Redmond 2013 for a similar proposal apropos the Common Core Standards.)

Suitable institutional support for interdisciplinary work and equal collaboration with other disciplines should promote the development of curricular models that are more responsible to the academic and professional interests of students (Scullion 2005). In this regard, Content-Based Instruction (CBI) and Language Across the Curriculum (LAC) programs have gained traction in the past two decades because they allow students to develop their language abilities at the same at they learn content in areas such as public health, business, American studies, communication, education, law, etc. (Klee 2015). Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) provide a type of CBI for students planning to use Spanish or Portuguese in their professional work (Abbott, Lafford, and Lear 2014).

Finally, outreach outside the institution would entail for both L2 programs and administrators more determined efforts to recruit domestic minority students; hire and retain diverse faculty and staff; collaborate with related student organizations on campus; and develop Community Service Learning (CSL) initiatives for both educators and students "to create synergy between the work of their classroom and the real-world concerns of nearby communities" (Rabin 2015: 168).

## Curricular Perspectives for Spanish and Portuguese Programs

The first years of the new century have brought forth several frameworks of substantial relevance for the curriculum design of L2 programs: the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines, the

World-Readiness Standards, the "Modern Language Association Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages Report" (MLA 2007), and the "Report to the Teagle Foundation on the Undergraduate Major in Language and Literature" (MLA 2009).

As stated in the preface to the 2012 revised version, the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines are descriptions of an individual's functional language ability for speaking, writing, listening, and reading in real-world situations in a spontaneous and non-rehearsed context. The guidelines are used for assessment and/or evaluation in academic and workplace settings, but they may also have instructional and curricular implications; e.g., diagnostic testing for program evaluation, assessment of learning outcomes at the end of a program of study, or setting and implementing goals for instruction based on performance or language in use. The World-Readiness Standards are the most recent version of the National Standards for Learning Languages created in 1996. Also known as the 5 C's model (Communication, Connections, Comparisons, Communities, Cultures), the Standards are not a curricular guide, but they can propose beneficial curricular experiences for students to achieve its main purposes, and support the ideal of extended sequences of study.

Both the Proficiency Guidelines and, particularly, the Standards have had more impact in secondary education and only limited influence in higher education (Byrnes 2012). However, these frameworks have been regularly updated to fit the needs of all kinds of L2 programs (Cutshall 2012; Magnan, Murphy, and Sahakyan 2014). As a result, they have become more efficient tools for language program evaluation (Mills and Norris 2015), development of pedagogical materials by authors and textbook publishers (Cubillos 2014), and design of teacher education courses and activities at the collegiate level (Glisan and Shrum 2015; Norris 2013). In this latter regard, it will be crucial to put an end to the ongoing lack of communication between L2 departments and schools of education so they can together implement effective and innovative professional programs for language instructors in secondary and higher education (Huhn 2012).

The MLA reports are explicitly directed at higher education in order to 1) address the effects of the language crisis after 9/11 on L2 teaching in colleges and universities (MLA 2007: 1); 2) to examine options to reinforce English and language programs; and 3) "attract new generations of students to a traditional core of liberal study: language, literature, and culture" (MLA 2009: 1). Almost 10 years after their publication, the actual impact of these MLA reports may still be limited. As Frank Nuessel (2010) notes, curricular changes for language departments are generally voluntary, and cyclic program reviews do not often bring about significant consequences. Furthermore, the structure of many L2 university departments in the United States is still shaped by faculty members mainly trained in literature, instead of by a more balanced group of experts in literature, cultural studies, linguistics, and language pedagogy (VanPatten 2015; see also Dings and Hertel 2014 for a revealing quantitative analysis of faculty views towards courses that should be part of an undergraduate major in Spanish).

For Spanish and Portuguese programs to go beyond an idealistic view of the MLA reports and actually "walk the talk" in the coming years, we suggest to focus energy on three key recommendations. First, accurate language requirements and student learning outcomes should be based on appropriate program articulation and the combination of current tools for undergraduate and graduate curriculum development (Arens 2014; Klee 2015; Magnan, Murphy, and Sahakyan 2014; Nuessel 2010). All programs should have an integrated curriculum with principled, articulated educational goals and expected outcomes for each course, so students can experience both "a steady progress toward advanced proficiency in the language" (MLA 2009: 5), and "a series of complementary or linked courses that holistically incorporate content and crosscultural reflection on every level" (MLA 2007: 5). Second, several important publications have come out in recent years focused on overcoming the traditional divide between language and literature in L2 programs (Allen, Dupuy, and Paesani 2015; Kumagai, López-Sánchez, and Wu 2016; Swaffar and Urlaub 2014; see Miñana 2013 and López-Sánchez 2016 for detailed accounts of curricular projects in different contexts). The main goals of these initiatives are 1) to situate
language study and cultural enquiry in historical, geographic, and crosscultural frames in courses at all levels (MLA 2007: 4); 2) to include a range of expressive forms into the instructionliterature, essays, journalism, humor, advertising, etc.; and 3) to restructure outdated models of teacher education and professional development (Allen 2014; Allen and Maxim 2013). Finally, deep-seated, systemic change within Spanish and Portuguese programs will not happen without constructive dialogues and collaborative teamwork among all faculty members. Non-jaundiced attitudes about certain areas of expertise, sharing common responsibilities, and engagement "in shaping and overseeing the content and teaching approaches used throughout the curriculum, from the first year forward" (MLA 2007: 7) will make it much easier for L2 programs to consolidate the above-mentioned structural coherence, and to develop interdisciplinary CBI, LSP, and CSL initiatives (Klee 2015; Abbott, Lafford, and Lear 2014; see also Carvalho, De Silva, and Freire 2010, for a rationale about Portuguese learning among Spanish-speaking students, and the website of the Portuguese Flagship Program for details about programs for undergraduate student to achieve superior proficiency in Spanish and/or Portuguese).

## US Higher Education and Spanish- and Portuguese-speaking Communities

The members of Hispanic and Lusophone communities in the United States will play an essential role for the future of Spanish and Portuguese university programs. First, these communities have been well established in the United States for centuries, with 1) an important demographic, cultural, and socioeconomic presence throughout the nation; and 2) very close links to languages spoken in the seven continents-especially in the Americas. Second, more members of these communities have become part of US higher education due to the overall growth of the Hispanic and Lusophone populations, and the steady development of Hispanic and Lusophone middle classes with more resources and interest in providing their children with university education. Students of Hispanic and Lusophone heritage may enroll in Spanish or Portuguese courses in order to become teachers of these languages; to meet the L2 requirements in other majors or to fulfill the requirements for a minor or a double major; to reinforce ties with relatives or friends with limited knowledge of English; to strengthen their own identity as members of a community with distinct social and cultural characteristics; or to build their professional profile through advanced proficiency in languages other than English (see e.g., Bagio and Rivera 2013; Dumitrescu 2013). With the recent slowdown in immigration to the United States from Latin America, another relevant consideration about these communities is the extent to which new generations will be willing to maintain their heritage language instead of falling into the usual process of language shift (Carvalho 2010; Krogstad, Lopez, and Rohal 2015).

How will the pedagogical needs of this significant population be addressed by Spanish and Portuguese programs in the coming years? Those genuinely enthusiastic about their students of Hispanic and Lusophone heritage should:

1) restructure their literature and culture course offerings beyond specific periods, geographical areas and/or renowned authors in order to explore cultural, intellectual, and ideological bonds among Spanish, Latin American, Latina/o and LusoAmerican studies.
2) validate and incorporate the varieties of Spanish and Portuguese spoken by our students into courses specifically designed for heritage learners, as well as advanced courses in a variety of literary, cultural, linguistic, and professional areas.
3) address the implicit linguistics ideologies among (under)graduate students and faculty of all ranks that may limit the learning and teaching of Spanish or Portuguese to standard, prestigious or hegemonic varieties.
4) boost the transcultural and translingual connections between Spanish and Portuguese programs so more of our heritage students can become successful learners of a third language.
5) design courses for professional areas not only focused on utilitarian views of Spanish and Portuguese, but also concerned with the cultural, sociohistorical, and ideological conditions of these languages in the United States.
6) involve heritage students in coalitions or alliances with community partners, institutions, and agencies in community-based initiatives from which both students and their communities can learn from each other and collaborate to achieve coordinated goals (for further information about these and other initiatives see Beaudrie, Ducar, and Potowski 2014; Beaudrie and Fairclough 2016; Jouët-Pastre 2011; Luna 2012; Wiley, Kreeft Peyton, Christian, Moore, and Liu 2014).

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# Respuesta a "Spanish and Portuguese Programs in Higher Education Institutions in the United States: Perspectives and Possibilities" <br> > El futuro de los programas de español y portugués en los departamentos de lenguas modernas: Visiones alternativas <br> <br> El futuro de los programas de español y <br> <br> El futuro de los programas de español y portugués en los departamentos de portugués en los departamentos de lenguas modernas: Visiones alternativas lenguas modernas: Visiones alternativas <br>  

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Palabras clave: ACTFL, curricular design/diseño curricular, curricular integration/integración curricular, critical competences/competencias críticas, linguistics/lingüística, MLA, second language teaching/ enseñanza de L2

E1 futuro de los programas de español y portugués estará marcado por la habilidad de los departamentos en que están integrados para aprovechar la oportunidad que ofrecen la globalización, los discursos pro internacionalización y la importancia del español en Estados Unidos, pero también para resistir la visión instrumental dominante en la enseñanza de L2. La intervención en el ámbito institucional es decisiva. Habría que distinguir entre dos modelos alternativos: por un lado, documentos como el informe "Languages for All?" (Abbott et al. 2014) y los producidos por ACTFL, en los cuales la lengua se ve ante todo como instrumento y categoría administrativa; por otro, el modelo presente en los informes del Modern Language Association (MLA) (2007; 2009), los cuales apuestan por una visión integradora de la enseñanza de lengua, literatura y cultura.

Al poner el acento en "objetivos de aprendizaje" y en sistemas de evaluación que requieren "evidencia objetiva de que se han alcanzado los objetivos lingüísticos y culturales", el primer modelo separa categóricamente la enseñanza de L2 de la orientación propia en los cursos de literatura y estudios culturales. En consecuencia, este modelo es difícilmente compatible con la integración propuesta por el informe de MLA (2007), la cual no solo implica reformar el currículum para superar la división entre lengua y literatura, sino además replantearse la manera de entender la enseñanza de L2 y el lugar de la lingǘstica en los departamentos.

En este sentido, habría que distinguir también entre dos visiones alternativas del rol de la linguística. Autores como VanPatten (2015) y Del Valle (2014) coinciden en reclamar más puestos de tenure para "expertos" en lengua. Ahora bien, VanPatten sigue dentro del paradigma que ve la lengua como hecho empírico, y así exige más especialistas en SLA y mayor conocimiento de escalas como las de ACTFL, todo ello para entender mejor "the nature of language, its representation in the mind-brain of humans, and how language is processed, acquired, and used" (2015: 2). Del Valle (2014), en cambio, advierte que el estudio del lenguaje como objeto empírico y formal tiene escasa afinidad con "las prácticas literarias y culturales que se han convertido en objeto central de los departamentos de lenguas modernas" (87). Por tanto, entiende que la integración pasa por ver la lengua "como artefacto cultural y constructo cognitivo de contornos imprecisos, como significante que remite a prácticas de interacción con significados sociales disputados que se definen y descodifican siempre en relación con el contexto histórico material de su producción y recepción" (98).

La visión de la lengua ante todo como objeto cultural, y no ya tanto como categoría administrativa o hecho empírico, podría favorecer la creación de puestos para especialistas en análisis del discurso, historia lingüística e intelectual, lingüística e inmigración y políticas del lenguaje, líneas de investigación que, a diferencia de la lingüística formal o SLA, se prestan al diálogo con los colegas de estudios culturales y literarios (Del Valle 2014; Labrador Méndez 2016). Obviamente, esto debería reflejarse también en el currículo. Así, la enseñanza de L2 en un contexto universitario debería trascender la visión instrumental que se tiene de ella, incluyendo reflexión crítica sobre la lengua y las categorías lingǘsticas que indican distinciones sociales y políticas (Del Valle 2014; Kramsch 2014) y atendiendo a cuestiones sociolingüísticas como el prestigio, la relación entre lengua e identidad y las prácticas y experiencias multilingües (Leeman y Serafini 2016). Es decir, debería asumir como objetivo legítimo el desarrollo de habilidades reflexivas como la "competencia translingüística y transcultural" (MLA 2007), la "competencia simbólica" (Kramsch 2014) o la "competencia translingǘstica crítica" (Leeman y Serafini 2016),

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# The Evolution of Future Spanish Graduate Programs to Meet Diverse Student Needs 



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#### Abstract

As the 2007 report from the Modern Language Association attested, foreign language departments must undergo radical structural changes in order to meet student needs in a changed world. The implications of this report (e.g., to broaden the curriculum beyond the study of literature, linguistics, and culture to include courses with other disciplinary content [history, economics, business, medicine]) have been implemented by some university language programs at the undergraduate level (e.g., Byrnes, Maxim, and Norris 2010) but mostly have been ignored by graduate programs. The effects of the dearth of foreign language graduate programs encouraging graduate students to engage in interdisciplinary research and teaching with faculty and students in other departments is seen in the literature on Languages for Specific Purposes in the United States (Lafford 2012), briefly reviewed here. This essay envisions the evolution of Spanish graduate programs that incorporate interdisciplinary approaches and professional training into their curriculum to meet diverse graduate student needs (i.e., preparing them for careers inside/outside of academe, training them to start professional languages programs, allowing heritage learners of Spanish to leverage their linguistic/cultural expertise, and providing opportunities for them to forge community partnerships to improve the quality of life of the people they will serve).


Keywords: curriculum/currículo, graduate education/educación graduada, higher education/educación superior, Language for Specific Purposes/lenguas para fines específicos, Spanish/español

## Introduction

TThe 2007 report from the Modern Language Association (MLA) stated that foreign language (FL) departments must undergo radical structural changes in order to meet student needs in a changed world. The implications of this report (e.g., to broaden the FL curriculum beyond the study of literature, linguistics, and culture to include courses with other disciplinary content [history, economics, business, medicine]) have been implemented by some university language programs at the undergraduate level (e.g., Byrnes, Maxim, and Norris 2010) but have been ignored for the most part by graduate programs.

In 2012, the MLA Executive Council set up a task force to consider specific ways in which doctoral programs in modern languages and literatures could be transformed to meet the needs of future graduate students in these areas. The report of this task force (MLA 2014a) included the following recommendations: redesign the doctoral program to align more closely with student needs, provide opportunities for students to engage with technology at a deeper level for teaching and research purposes, strengthen teacher preparation, expand opportunities for professionalization to acquire skills for obtaining employment, provide students with information about the range of careers available to doctoral students, and support their choices of employment in both academic and non-academic venues.

This essay envisions the evolution of Spanish graduate programs that incorporate this type of professional training into the curriculum to meet diverse graduate student needs. The essay will focus on how Spanish graduate programs can 1) prepare students for careers inside/outside of academe; 2) train graduate students to create professional languages programs to serve the Latino community in the United States; 3) encourage graduate students who are heritage learners ${ }^{1}$ (HLs) of Spanish to leverage their linguistic/cultural expertise; and 4) provide opportunities for the graduate students to participate in internships and community service-learning (CSL) opportunities to further their own professional development and to improve the quality of life of the community they will serve.

In order to provide an academic (insider) view of the type of professional training Spanish graduate students currently receive and should be receiving, preliminary results from a survey of selected US Spanish graduate programs will be presented. A survey was sent to the top sixty Spanish and Portuguese Language and Literature graduate programs in the United States, ranked by PhDs.org and available at http://www.phds.org/rankings/spanish. ${ }^{2}$ Out of sixty survey solicitations, thirty-seven institutions responded (a $62 \%$ rate of return). ${ }^{3}$ Most respondents ( $76 \%$, $16 / 21$ ) were from large state universities ( 20,000 students or more) with a research focus ( $57 \%$, $12 / 21$ ). In addition to suggestions made by the survey respondents, proposals for the evolution of future Spanish graduate programs made by the author and other scholars in the field will be incorporated in the discussion below.

## Preparing for Careers Inside and Outside Academe

## Training for Academic Positions

Current training for academic positions primarily focuses on imparting research skills to graduate students to become scholars and providing pedagogical training for them to teach university FL classes. For instance, $60 \%(15 / 25)$ of respondents reported that their institutions offered a graduate level research methods course (more often in linguistics [87\%, 13/15], a field requiring an understanding of empirical research design and statistical analysis, than in literature $[40 \%, 6 / 15]$ or cultural studies $[33 \%, 5 / 15])$.

In addition, almost all responding Spanish graduate programs seem to provide both training and opportunities for students to teach undergraduate Spanish courses. Ninety two percent (23/25) of responding institutions offer such training, that most often took the form of a graduate teaching methods course ( $95 \%, 21 / 22$ ) or some form of semester-long in-service training ( $82 \%, 18 / 22$ ). However, only $18 \%(4 / 22)$ provided graduate students with the kind of on-going in-service pedagogical training suggested by Lord (2014).

In addition to providing pedagogical training for Spanish graduate students, $96 \%$ (24/25) of respondents stated that these students have an opportunity to teach lower-division language courses and $83 \%$ (19/23) reported that their graduate students teach upper-division language, literature, culture, and linguistics courses. However, while all respondents stated that graduate students were trained to teach lower-division language courses, only $46 \%$ (10/22) reported that they received training to teach upper-division courses. Future Spanish graduate programs need to address this lacuna in pedagogical training. Moreover, $65 \%$ (15/23) of respondents said there was no training available to graduate students to teach courses in online environments, and $59 \%(13 / 22)$ reported no opportunities for graduate students to teach online courses; when opportunities to teach online exist, students are almost always ( $86 \%, 6 / 7$ ) limited to teaching lower-division language courses.

Considering the encouragement that university administrations currently give to the creation of online courses and programs (Blake 2013) and the expansion of a job market that seeks to hire individuals trained and experienced in online language instruction, departments
should create intensive pre- and in-service training for graduate students who will be teaching online courses (Berber-McNeil 2015).

## Training for Academic Administration Positions

University-level administrative positions commonly found in Spanish departments include the Language Program Director and directors of programs abroad. Although both positions are often occupied by Assistant Professors soon after they leave graduate school, $73 \%$ (16/22) of respondents said their program offered no specific training to become Language Program Directors and $64 \%(14 / 22)$ noted no opportunity for practical experience in this area. Respondents also noted that $82 \%$ ( $18 / 22$ ) of programs offer no training to become study abroad directors and $59 \%$ (13/22) offer no practical experience to assume those positions. Graduate programs concerned with preparing their students for these administrative positions should create practical pre- and in-service training workshops or courses and provide practical resources for administering such programs (e.g., Lord 2014; Lord and Isabelli-García 2014).

## Training for Academic Job Searches

Seventy-eight percent $(28 / 36)$ of the respondents to the survey noted that specific training for obtaining academic employment mostly takes the form of workshops on job seeking, grant writing, publishing, and giving conference papers; only a few programs ( $28 \%, 9 / 33$ ) reported having a full graduate-level course on this type of professional preparation.

## Training for Non-academic Positions

As the Modern Language Association (MLA, 2014b) noted a decline in the number of advertisements for tenure-track FL jobs, graduate programs must also prepare their students for alternative careers outside academe. However, $94 \%(29 / 31)$ of the respondents stated that their graduate program offered no career preparation for those positions (e.g., $\mathrm{K}-12$ sector, publishing, and government, public or private sector jobs). To remedy this situation, graduate programs must create units in graduate-level professional courses or several in-service workshops on various practical job-search topics. In addition, graduate programs should seek to enroll their students in university-wide professionalization initiatives (e.g., preparing future faculty programs), and in courses that will enhance their technological abilities (e.g., digital humanities, computer-assisted language learning).

## The Need for Interdisciplinarity

One of the most important skills to impart to graduate students for careers inside and outside of academe is how to work with people from other fields on a common project. The MLA (2007) report noted the need to integrate more interdisciplinarity into graduate language programs to deepen students' understanding of the interconnectedness of global communities and meet the needs of a changed, post-911 world. However, the survey respondents reported that most Spanish graduate PhD tracks and courses still focus on literature ( $92 \%$, 24/26), cultural studies ( $77 \%, 20 / 26$ ), and linguistics ( $73 \%, 19 / 26$ ). Although more than half ( $52 \%, 13 / 25$ ) of responding programs stated that their PhD program offered interdisciplinary tracks requiring courses taken from other language units or other departments, most of those courses were in fields related to languages, cultural studies, and linguistics (e.g., education, cognitive science, film, gender studies). None of the survey respondents noted any interdisciplinary graduate tracks that united
graduate language studies with fields not commonly associated with the study of language and culture (e.g., medicine, law, business).

## Training in Languages for Specific Purposes

The effects of the dearth of FL graduate programs encouraging students to engage in interdisciplinary research and teaching is seen in the lack of courses and tracks in Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) in graduate programs in the United States (Lafford 2012). ${ }^{4}$ Respondents to the survey reported that $76 \%$ (19/25) of graduate programs did not offer any graduate-level courses on LSP research or pedagogy and that $70 \%(16 / 23)$ failed to offer any pedagogical LSP training. Survey data also stated that $61 \%(14 / 23)$ of responding institutions did not offer opportunities for graduate students to teach undergraduate LSP courses, but when they did, they taught a mixture of lower-division and upper-division courses focused on medical, business, and legal fields.

One area of LSP, translation and interpretation studies, was mentioned in the MLA (2007) and (2014) reports as being an important disciplinary focus in restructured FL departments. Nonetheless, current Spanish graduate programs reported in the survey that $68 \%(17 / 25)$ offer no graduate level translation and interpretation studies programs; when offered, these courses focus more on translation ( $44 \%$ [translation pedagogy, 4/9]-56\% [translation research], 5/9) than on interpretation pedagogy and research $(22 \%, 2 / 9)$.

In addition, none of the programs offered graduate students training to teach undergraduate translation and interpretation courses and $87 \%$ (20/23) offered no opportunities for them to teach those courses. When graduate students did teach translation and interpretation courses, the focus was on medical, legal, and business topics. Institutions that do not offer translation and interpretation courses do their undergraduate and graduate students a great disservice, as these skills are highly sought after by employers (King de Ramírez and Lafford 2017).

Graduate programs should answer the call for more research in LSP/translation and interpretation studies by creating graduate and undergraduate courses and tracks in these areas that can train graduate students to become professional LSP/translation and interpretation scholars and practitioners (Colina 2003; Lafford 2012; Long 2013; Ruggiero 2014). This training will allow graduate students to choose careers in which they can create LSP/translation and interpretation programs in both academic and non-academic settings.

## Need for LSP Graduate Faculty

The small number of LSP graduate courses and programs in the United States may be due to the lack of graduate faculty trained in LSP research and pedagogy. Several scholars (Lafford 2012; Long and Uscinski 2012; Sánchez-López 2010; Sánchez-López, Long, and Lafford 2017) have attributed this to the lack of prestige such programs currently hold in academe, fear of change on the part of established faculty in traditional areas (literature, cultural studies), and the relative lack of established venues for professional presentations and peer-reviewed publications in the field of (non-English) LSP in the US (as opposed to other parts of the world where English for Specific Purposes has an extensive research base [Lafford 2012]). When asked in the survey if language departments should create more tenure-track positions for LSP scholars, $71 \%$ (15/21) and $62 \%(13 / 21)$ (respectively) responded affirmatively.

As bureaucracies change slowly, the formation of a substantial number of tenure-track and tenured LSP scholars may take several years to develop. Therefore, the quickest route to professionalization of these fields would be for tenured professors to take on the responsibility of training themselves and publishing on LSP topics in established prestigious journals (SánchezLópez 2010). This initiative will allow scholars to begin to expand the LSP research base in short order. These same scholars can then create graduate-level LSP research and pedagogy courses and tracks and encourage their students to pursue research in these areas.

## Leveraging Linguistic/Cultural Expertise of Heritage Learners of Spanish

According to Beaudrie, Ducar, and Potowski (2014), as today's language classrooms are becoming increasingly populated by HLs, all FL teachers should receive training in how to help these students leverage their linguistic and cultural knowledge in academic settings. However, even though $41 \% ~(9 / 22)$ of respondents stated that their programs gave graduate students the opportunity to teach undergraduate HL courses, $58 \%(14 / 24)$ of survey respondents said their department did not train graduate students to teach those courses. In addition, where such training existed, it was mostly focused on lower-division courses and was more often in the form of workshops $(67 \%, 6 / 9)$ than in graduate coursework $(56 \%, 5 / 9)$. Future graduate programs will need to implement more training for teaching HLs in the pedagogical preparation received by all graduate students.

As noted by King de Ramírez and Lafford (2017), heritage learners make excellent candidates for community internships and are especially welcome in healthcare settings where high levels of language proficiency and cultural sensitivity are vital to the success of doctor-patient interactions. In order to interest more undergraduate HLs in graduate-level LSP/CSL opportunities, graduate directors should recruit HLs into graduate tracks in linguistics, sociolinguistics, SLA, and applied linguistics, fields which all inform LSP translation and interpretation research and pedagogy.

In addition, HL graduate students with academic backgrounds in all language-related areas should be encouraged to take LSP/translation and interpretation graduate courses to familiarize themselves with fields in which they could leverage their linguistic and cultural expertise both inside and outside of academe. Moreover, graduate courses and tracks in Heritage Language research and pedagogy need to be created to help form generations of professors from HL backgrounds who can serve as role models for HL students.

## Forging University-Community Partnerships for Professional Development

As attested by several LSP scholars (King de Ramírez and Lafford 2017; Lafford, Abbott, and Lear 2014), the forging of university-community partnerships to provide opportunities for internships/CSL is crucial to the professional formation of language students for professions in which they will interact with and serve the Latinx community in the United States. However, most programs lack internship/CSL opportunities for graduate students; $82 \%(18 / 22)$ of respondents reported that their program did not offer internships to graduate students. Nevertheless, $80 \%(16 / 20)$ believed that language departments should forge more community partnerships to benefit their Spanish graduate students, whose high levels of linguistic and cultural proficiency can also be a true asset to community partners.

In addition, graduate students can use internship/CSL opportunities to collect data and expand the LSP/translation and interpretation/HL research base in areas deemed to be priorities by LSP professionals (Lafford 2013; Sánchez-López, Long, and Lafford 2017): heritage language development, identity formation, development of social networks, and assessment of language skills in experiential language learning contexts (e.g., internship/CSL settings).

## Changes Needed in Graduate Programs to Meet Diverse Student Needs

In an open-ended survey question on changes needed to current Spanish graduate programs to meet diverse student needs, respondents stated that fewer graduate courses/tracks were needed in traditional literature and culture fields and more innovative course offerings were needed in research methods, linguistics, applied linguistics, SLA, advanced teaching methods, technology, language program direction, HL studies/bilingualism, LSP/translation and interpretation, Spanish composition, and visual studies/film. Respondents also noted the need for more training on professionalism (e.g., job interview training, grant writing, professional ethics, time management,
preparation for academic conferences and interviews), L2 and HL pedagogy, research and publishing, women in academe, digital humanities, non-tenure track and tenure-track jobs in academe, and careers outside of academe.

## Conclusions

The vision shared by many survey respondents regarding the evolution of future Spanish graduate programs to meet diverse student needs reflects suggestions made by the MLA (2007; 2014) and serves as a call to action for restructuring programs to include more practical and professional content. In general, professionals in the field indicated that the current research and pedagogical preparation provided for academic careers needs to be complemented by training for new interdisciplinary academic fields (LSP, translation and interpretation, HL), online pedagogy, administrative positions, and non-academic careers in which linguistic and cultural skills are required. In addition, future Spanish graduate programs need to create new courses/ tracks in various areas of applied linguistics (LSP, translation and interpretation, HL studies) that will provide training for a wide variety of language-related careers.

Part of this future vision includes recognition of the important role that training in HL research and pedagogy must play in future Spanish graduate programs. Programs that actively recruit HLs and help them leverage their linguistic and cultural expertise to enhance their employment opportunities will be instrumental in preparing Latinx students for leadership positions in a variety of academic and non-academic careers. In addition, Spanish graduate programs need to create and maintain thriving university-community partnerships that can provide opportunities for graduate students to further their professional development and research and employment opportunities.

In sum, Spanish graduate programs of the future need to provide more practical professional training for all graduate students including for jobs inside and outside of academe. Professionals from the community should be invited to talk with graduate students about the skill sets needed in various fields seeking to recruit individuals with high levels of Spanish proficiency and a deep understanding of US Latino culture. In this way, Spanish graduate programs can help their students broaden their career aspirations to include employment possibilities that will positively impact Latinx communities that exist and thrive beyond the confines of traditional academic walls.

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## NOTES

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# Response to "The Evolution of Future Graduate Programs to Meet Diverse Student Needs" <br> <br> Graduate Programs of the Future: <br> <br> Graduate Programs of the Future: Diversification and Professionalization 

 Diversification and Professionalization}


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#### Abstract

Keywords: canon, curriculum/currículo, higher education/educación superior, graduate education/ programas graduados, Spanish/español, student needs/necesidades de estudiantes


TThe essay "The Evolution of Future Graduate Programs to Meet Diverse Student Needs" builds on MLA reports that called for restructuring foreign language departments (2007) and doctoral programs (2014). Changes are necessary so that students can find jobs after earning a degree. Graduate students are still being prepared for tenure-track academic positions, even though these positions have been drastically reduced. Instead, students should be given a skill set that prepares them for academic and non-academic jobs of the future. Lafford marshals evidence to support the MLA's recommendations, including published studies and selected responses to a questionnaire sent to Spanish graduate departments. All evidence points to a troubling dilemma: despite consensus about the need for change, very little is being done to revamp Spanish graduate programs. Addressing this inaction, the essay envisions specific changes in two crucial areas: training students to teach and lead language programs, and training them to succeed in other fields that draw on their knowledge base.

Diversification and professionalization are the two overarching goals that, in my view, should be our mission statement for graduate programs of the future. These goals encompass the visionary essay's practical suggestions, from preparing students to teach online courses to forging community partnerships that help graduates work with Latinos in the United States. All of these recommendations are in keeping with those that emerged from an AATSP-sponsored MLA panel entitled "What Do Graduate Students in Spanish Need to Learn, and Why?" (Brown). Other valuable panel recommendations addressed pedagogical and disciplinary issues that are not covered in this essay. They include the need for exposure to literary history in a cultural context, the need for a foundational disciplinary canon, the need for training in humanities teaching as well as language instruction, the need for mentoring in the areas of teaching and administration, and the need for socialization and mentoring of students by professional organizations. ${ }^{1}$

Graduate programs must diversify and differentiate based on their own mission and resources. Opportunities for interdisciplinary collaboration and community engagement with Spanish speakers will vary from institution to institution-making the "one-size-fits-all" model obsolete. Differentiation also must occur for specific cohorts of students. All will agree that MA graduates constitute a separate population from PhDs , and the training and placement of each must be tailored accordingly. MA-level learners benefit from programmatic breadth, while PhD-level students profit from specialization. Both groups deserve coursework that is relevant to their interests. They are also entitled to gain transferable skills in the areas of research methods, teaching, and administration.

In order to sustain our graduate programs as well as our discipline, professionalization must be enacted internally as well as through external links with other fields. To enhance our own professionalism and preempt external oversight, I believe that graduate programs should take the lead in outcomes assessment. This is already done in the area of language proficiency. Many Spanish programs mandate the same ACTFL OPI level for graduate students as is required for teachers in most of the United States, currently Advanced Low. A similar content certification, demonstrating exposure to a fundamental set of canonical cultural landmarks, would elevate the status of the MA credential that we confer.

The need for change in Spanish graduate education has been recognized for decades: "If we don't do something different from the way we've been doing things, if we don't change, adapt, realign ourselves, we're doomed" warned one contributor to a 1972 AATSP report (Kronik). The essay "The Evolution of Future Graduate Programs" delivers positive news: the notion that change is necessary has become accepted wisdom. What remains is for us to define and execute needed reforms. My own vision of the future, which is aligned with the vision of this essay, is predicated on diversification and professionalization.

## NOTE

${ }^{1}$ Participants included Joan L. Brown, Emily C. Francomano, Sheri Spaine Long, Randolph D. Pope, and Roberta Johnson.

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# Spanish Second Language Acquisition across the Globe: What Future Research on Non-English Speaking Learners Will Tell Us 



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#### Abstract

Research on second language Spanish encompasses a sophisticated and broad-reaching body of work. Nevertheless, there is a bias in this literature toward English-speaking learners. The implication of this bias is that our search for universal trends of acquisition is undermined by an inability to distinguish between challenges that are specific to English-speaking learners and those that apply across learner populations. The goal of this essay is to demonstrate the value of extending the scope of second language Spanish research to include diverse first language populations and to illustrate new insights that might be gleaned through a presentation of recent research on Korean-speaking learners.


Keywords: copula/cópula, individual factors/factores individuales, Korean learners/estudiantes de coreano, second language acquisition/adquisición de segunda lengua, subject expression/expresión de sujeto

## Introduction

Spanish is a global language, with over 400 million speakers worldwide (Mar-Molinero 2004). The significance of the Spanish language is also reflected in its growing importance and study as a foreign language (Ammon 2010). It has been estimated that there are approximately 14 million nonnative learners of Spanish worldwide (Instituto Cervantes 2006), and Ammon (2010) ranks it as the fifth most studied foreign language in the world. In US instructed learning settings, Spanish is the most studied foreign language (Instituto Cervantes 2006), and in several non-US instructed learning settings, Spanish is the most studied foreign language after English (e.g., Brazil, Europe; see Mar-Molinero 2004).

Despite the global reach of Spanish in foreign language learning and education research, we know surprisingly little about the acquisition of Spanish as a second language (L2) by learners whose first language (L1) is not English. In fact, many of the assumptions we hold about the acquisition of Spanish are based nearly exclusively on empirical studies of English-speaking learners. For example, our understanding of the First Noun Principle (VanPatten 2004) is based primarily on studies where English is the L1 or the target (e.g., VanPatten and Cadierno 1993), making it difficult to determine whether the tendency to interpret the first noun in an utterance as the verbal subject is universal or simply an effect of the influence of English language strict word order (Lee 2003). Within the past 100 years, we have seen a well-developed and increasingly complex body of work focusing on the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) of Spanish. However, as we recognize the importance of Spanish as a global language, it is essential to expand the scope of research to include non-English-speaking learners. Only through this extension can we begin to assess whether the assumptions we make about learning-and the corresponding
pedagogical materials based on them-are generalizable to diverse learning contexts and learners. To this end, we offer a concise, critical review of two basic assumptions currently held in the extant literature on Spanish L2 learning. Using these assumptions as a foundation, we will demonstrate how recent empirical research on native Korean-speaking learners serves to provide essential information regarding the degree to which these assumptions might generalize beyond the population of English-speaking learners of Spanish.

## SLA Research: Goals and Assumptions

Although the field of SLA enjoys a wealth of theoretical approaches to the study of L2 learning, there are several general goals that apply across these differing views. For example, most approaches to SLA seek to understand the nature of developing learner grammars, including the commonalities across learners in these developing systems. Likewise, we seek to understand the degree to which such cognitive processes are influenced by factors related to the learner (e.g., age) or to the learning context (e.g., nature of the input). With some exceptions, theories tend to assume that learners build and store information about the language they are learning, that the nature of human cognition dictates that some of these acquisitional processes will be similar from one learner to another, and that individual differences may also contribute to differing outcomes in SLA (e.g., VanPatten and Williams 2015). In the discussion that follows, we identify two of these common assumptions and, through a comparison to recent findings on Korean-speaking learners of Spanish, we explore the degree to which our current understanding of the nature of this phenomenon is based primarily on English-speaking learners of Spanish.

## Assumption One: A Common Path of Development

Most cognitive approaches assert that learners pass through common stages of development. These may be seen to reflect an innate learning mechanism (e.g., White 1989), general problem solving skills (e.g., Ullman 2005), and/or the nature of identifying salient or frequent items in the input (e.g., Ellis 2006). Regardless of the cause of these stages, a shared goal across approaches is to identify the path through which learners pass en route to the acquisition of a particular structure in Spanish (for exception see Tarone and Liu 1995). In both longitudinal and cross-sectional designs, we describe knowledge at various points along this trajectory and how this knowledge changes over time. One robust example of this approach to the SLA of Spanish can be seen in the study of the copula contrast.

VanPatten $(1985,1987)$ pioneered early work on the stages of acquisition of the copula contrast. His analyses of English-speaking learners' spontaneous oral production, performance on a grammaticality judgment test, and language use in the classroom led him to propose the following five stages of copula development:

1) omission
2) overuse of ser to fulfill copula functions
3) use of estar in progressive contexts
4) use of estar in locative contexts
5) use of estar before adjectives

The generalizability of these stages has been demonstrated across learning contexts and with different learner populations (e.g., Guntermann 1992; Ryan and Lafford 1992). In addition to corroborating overall trends in the path of development, those subsequent studies revealed differences in the order of contexts in which estar emerged (accurately) in learner production, particularly as it related to the use of estar in pre-adjectival contexts.

Geeslin $(2000,2003)$ further explored these [copula + adjective] contexts, hypothesizing that error-based analyses could not properly account for the development of the copulas in pre-adjectival contexts because such contexts were simultaneously influenced by a wide range of linguistic factors, such as adjective class (e.g., age, size, physical appearance, mental state, etc.), frame of reference (i.e., whether or not a comparison of the referent [to itself] is implied), the susceptibility of the referent to change, and the speaker's experience with the referent (e.g., immediate or ongoing). Additionally, an evaluation of accuracy failed to capture the potential for more than one form to be acceptable, even though one might be more probable. Starting with the work of Geeslin (2000), variationist studies on the acquisition of copula choice in preadjectival contexts have confirmed that, as proficiency increases, estar is gradually extended to new contexts of use and used with greater frequency. They also showed that learners do acquire the appropriate linguistic factors constraining copula choice over time but sometimes with subtle differences in their relative importance, even at high proficiency levels (e.g., Geeslin 2003), where pragmatic constraints sometimes override semantic ones in learner use. Thus, in general, research on the SLA of the Spanish copula contrast has arrived at an understanding of how the distribution of copulas changes during the process of acquisition (i.e., rates of estar increase to native-like levels) and of the linguistic factors that condition those patterns of use. Nevertheless, these generalities were based entirely on English-speaking learners of Spanish.

Studies of copula choice by non-English speaking learners remain relatively scarce. Geeslin and Guijarro-Fuentes (2005) showed that rates of selection of estar did not differ for French-, German-, or English-speaking learners on a written contextualized task. In contrast, Geeslin and Guijarro-Fuentes (2006) found that very advanced Portuguese-speaking learners' selection rates differed from those found for native Spanish speakers, although their use was predicted by similar factors to those of the English-speaking learners, and they, too, showed a tendency to overgeneralize pragmatic constraints at the expense of semantic ones. There is only one study to date (Cheng et al. 2008) that examines learners from a typologically distinct L1 background. Cheng et al. (2008) examined Chinese-speaking learners' use of ser and estar in free-writing compositions. In addition to the increasing use of estar as proficiency increased, they found that linguistic factors constraining estar production-specifically, the speaker's experience with the referent and the referent's susceptibility to change-were also integrated into learners' grammars as proficiency increased. In sum, their results showed Chinese-speaking learners to be more like English-speaking learners than Portuguese-speaking ones, in that acquisition can be described as the gradual integration of estar into the developing grammar. Taken together, these studies suggest that it is generally true that learners must adjust rates of estar as development takes place, but the path of changing that rate may be linked to the typological characteristics of the L1, even though other characteristics, such as the predictors of those patterns, may be shared across languages.

Recent research on Korean-speaking learners of Spanish has furthered our understanding of these contrasts between studies. Geeslin and Long (2015) examined the range and distribution of copula forms produced by 23 university-level Korean-speaking learners (residing and studying in the Republic of Korea) in a sociolinguistic interview. Geeslin and Long (2015) identified the following copular verbs in the Korean learners' production: ser, estar, and parecer. Their analysis showed notable rates of omission and also that non-native-like omission persisted even in the speech of higher proficiency learners (11.6\% at Level 3). Nevertheless, rates of omission decreased and rates of estar increased as proficiency increased, corroborating previous research with English-speaking learners. However, estar use did not exceed $10 \%$ at any level of proficiency, and rates of ser use remained relatively high, particularly at level 3. This recent study appears to solidify the assumption that, at least for languages that do not have a two-copula system, the general path of acquisition can be described as the gradual integration of estar over time. However, it is also clear that the rate of use of estar cannot solely be attributed to proficiency level, even where other types of formal grammatical knowledge appear to be equivalent.

Assumption Two: Individual Characteristics Influence Outcome
A second assumption that is prevalent across theories in SLA literature is that the characteristics of individual leaners do, in fact, play a role in the ultimate attainment of a L2 (e.g., VanPatten and Williams 2015). This assumption can take a variety of forms, from being viewed as factors that have an indirect effect on acquisition because they are related to the nature of the input to which a learner has access, to playing a direct role in the process of acquiring language itself. This variability is not simply a question of differing theories but also a matter of the general agreement that not all individual characteristics are equally important. For example, one's social status may in fact be related to the degree to which one has access to certain types of input (e.g., academic content, study abroad in a target setting, genuine communicative situations, etc.), but it is unlikely that a contemporary approach to SLA would posit that social class has a direct effect on one's ability to acquire a language. In contrast, it is more widely accepted that a factor such as age of learning, or even a cognitive factor such as working memory capacity, might directly influence the process of acquiring a language. In the case of all of the factors mentioned thus far (i.e., social class, age, and working memory), we have little reason to believe that research findings should differ from one group of learners to another simply because of the L1 background of those learners. Nevertheless, there are several approaches to SLA that allow a role for the degree of typological difference between languages, and the roles of L2s as compared to third, fourth, and fifth additional languages (Rothman 2011). Additionally, we may find that certain cultural contextual characteristics of the "typical" setting for SLA differ to the extent that important contrasts surface between new findings from learners outside the English-speaking learning context, and our current understanding of the role of individual differences. In this portion of the paper, we explore the role of individual learner characteristics in the acquisition of variable subject form expression in L2 Spanish.

In Spanish, the grammatical subject of a finite verb may be expressed overtly (e.g., yo hablo, él habla), or it may be omitted (e.g., Ø hablo, Ø habla). As is the case with other variable structures, a range of linguistic factors are known to constrain subject expression in Spanish, including person and/or number of the verb, tense, mood, and aspect of the verb, and switch reference (i.e., the referent of the preceding verb is different from the current verb). Research on the SLA of Spanish subject expression, again focusing on English-speaking learners, has demonstrated that, as learners gain proficiency in the Spanish language, they come to use null subjects with similar frequency to native speakers and that the constraints on subject form selection and/or use reflect native-like patterns (e.g., Geeslin et al. 2015). Some interesting differences with native speakers have also emerged. For instance, the frequency of null subject pronouns tends to be higher for highly advanced non-native speakers than for native speakers on free production tasks (Geeslin and Gudmestad 2008, 2011), but demonstrates a u-shaped pattern of development across proficiency levels on controlled selection tasks (Geeslin et al. 2015). Thus, L2 learners demonstrate a similar range and distribution of subject forms attested for native speakers, but are sensitive to the elicitation task.

Within the L2 Spanish subject expression literature, two important individual factors that are examined closely include learners' proficiency in Spanish and time spent abroad. These factors are often interrelated, such that those learners who report more time abroad similarly demonstrate greater proficiency in the L2 and vice versa. Proficiency is measured independently, most often by means of a grammar-based reading task (e.g., Geeslin 2008). Studies on L2 Spanish subject expression conducted on English-speaking learners have shown that greater proficiency and more time spent abroad is related to greater rates of null subject pronoun use in sociolinguistic interview tasks (Linford 2009; Linford and Shin 2013). This rate of use increases linearly as proficiency and study abroad experience increases. For selection tasks, on the other hand, rates of null subject pronoun use are characterized by a u-shaped curve in which rates are high for lower level learners, drop for intermediate level learners then increase again for advanced
learners and overshoot native speaker rates for highly advanced learners (Geeslin et al. 2015). Regardless of the task type, rates of null subject pronoun use are greater than rates of overt subject pronouns. Further, null subject rates are both lower and more native-like with increased proficiency and with additional time abroad, although learners with the most experience abroad overshoot native speaker rates.

In a recent study conducted by Long and Geeslin (2015), the first to our knowledge to explore this structure with learners whose L1 is typologically distant, similar findings for Koreanspeaking learners were reported. On a sociolinguistic interview task, Long and Geeslin found the tendency for rates of null subject pronoun use to increase as proficiency level and experience in a Spanish-speaking country abroad increased. However, rates of null subject pronoun use were much lower than those reported for English-speaking learners: Whereas rates of null subjects ranged from $72 \%$ to $87 \%$ in Linford and Shin (2013), rates in Long and Geeslin ranged between $49 \%$ and $57 \%$ for the Korean-speaking learners. As is the case for the Spanish copula, the study by Long and Geeslin further substantiates the assumption that findings for English-speaking learners regarding the general path of acquisition of rates of null subject pronoun use in Spanish can be extended to Korean-speaking learners. However, the comparatively lower rates of null subject pronouns observed for Korean-speaking learners similarly cannot be linked to proficiency level and time spent abroad alone. Thus, while individual factors may be equally important across learners, the direction and magnitude of their influence may differ for distinct L1 populations. Consequently, adding new learner populations does not derail our existing work, but rather, allows an additional level of detail that was not previously available.

## The Future of Spanish SLA Research

In this essay, we illustrated the importance of extending the scope of Spanish SLA research to include diverse L1 learner populations by means of a concise, critical overview of empirical findings on acquisition of the copula contrast and subject expression, as well as recent findings reported for Korean-speaking learners. Future research on diverse learner populations will not only offer empirical findings to test the generalizability of patterns of development already attested for English-speaking learners, but also facilitate our evaluation of commonly held assumptions for L2 learning across multiple approaches to SLA. Given the status of Spanish in the world and the prominence of Spanish foreign language learning, it is essential that we systematically investigate Spanish SLA within and across the diverse learning contexts in which it occurs.

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Response to "Spanish Second Language Acquisition across the Globe:
What Future Research on Non-English Speaking Learners Will Tell Us"

# On Universal Trends in Spanish as a Second Language 



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#### Abstract

Keywords: first language transfer/tranferencia de primera lengua, second language acquisition/ adquisición de segunda lengua, teacher education/formación docente, universals of acquisition/ universales de adquisición


In this important and provocative essay, Avizia Yim Long and Kimberly Geeslin suggest that we cannot accept the findings of research on Spanish as an L2 until we have evidence from learners of typologically diverse L1s. That is, "the search for universal trends of acquisition is undermined by an inability to distinguish between challenges that are specific to Englishspeaking learners and those that apply across learner populations" (205). Long and Geeslin's data from Korean L1 learners of Spanish L2 (in addition to some data from Chinese and Portuguese L1 learners) is a point of departure.

Long and Geeslin's position is well taken. Research is always welcome that attempts to verify extant findings. However, several caveats are in order. The first concerns the research on English as L2. The extensive body of literature on English as L2 is informed by research using learners from a variety of typologically different L1s. And yet, while some L1 influences are noted, the universality of various aspects of acquisition is well known. This universality includes such things as developmental sequences, morpheme orders, processing heuristics and constraints (from UG and other sources), among others. What this literature suggests is that powerful underlying forces are at work in acquisition independent of any L1 influence. So, the first question for the present essay is this: why would Spanish L2 be any different? Is there something about Spanish that makes it "special" compared to English such that the L1 should exert an influence against the universals? To be sure, my claim is not that there is no L1 influence in acquisition. Some of the findings reported by Long and Geeslin on Spanish L2 are to be expected and have been shown in the acquisition of English as L2, for example.

Assuming that comparing research studies poses no problem where designs are different, data collection is different, and procedures may be different, if we look closely at the research presented by Long and Geeslin, we do not really find any actual dispute regarding the extant research findings on the acquisition of Spanish as L2. As one instance, Long and Geeslin note that the sequence established back in the 1980s for the acquisition of copular verbs (ser/estar) basically holds regardless of the L1; that is, L1 influence does not appear to affect the sequence but rather the rates of use of certain kinds of adjectives. The same is true for the research on null and explicit subjects. Long and Geeslin report, not on the universal aspects of the acquisition of subject pronouns (e.g., operation of the OPC, how pro operates in the grammar, referentiality) that should hold regardless of L1, but, instead, on rates of pronoun suppliance. Again, we would
expect such differences for a variety of reasons. To be sure, Long and Geeslin clearly state that such research "does not derail our existing work, but rather, allows an additional level of detail" (209). I agree and although such detail is interesting and of merit, I return to my original point: what are we trying to find out in L2 acquisition that we don't already know from research on English and other languages, including Spanish?

For me, then, taking a visionary perspective on the future of Spanish L2, I would suggest the following questions:

- How can the acquisition of Spanish as L2, if at all, be used to inform theories of second language acquisition or test particular hypotheses derived from those theories? And why would we want to do this?
- To what extent can the research on Spanish L2 be used in education to inform teachers about the nature of language acquisition?

After thirty-plus years in the profession, I find the second question particularly important for the future of Spanish. In my experience, knowledge about both language and language acquisition is woefully underrepresented in teacher preparation and in continuing teacher education. Because of this underrepresentation, we have failed to create true and lasting changes in language teaching. Sitting back and looking at the future of Spanish L2, then, I see a major role for the research on Spanish L2 to become a significant part of teacher education. And the effects of this knowledge on teachers need to be researched. Along with testing particular L2 theories and hypotheses, I see the impact of Spanish L2 research on shaping teachers' knowledge as a major future contribution.

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# A Cross-generational Conversation about the Future of Teaching Spanish 



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#### Abstract

In this conversation between three language teachers from the same family with different teaching backgrounds (a retired AP Spanish high school teacher, a Spanish linguistics university professor emeritus, and a Spanish professor at a liberal arts college), we consider the ways in which our field has changed over the course of our careers and how we envision the future of the field. We argue that determining how to teach second language learners, native speakers, and heritage speakers in the same classroom, while simultaneously meeting the language learning needs of each group, will determine the success of the future of the profession.

Keywords: Advanced Placement exams/exámenes de Advanced Placement, heritage speakers/hablantes de herencia, Hispanics in the United States/hispanos en Estados Unidos, language labs/laboratorios del lenguaje, Latino, study abroad/estudios en el extranjero, Spanish for native speakers/español para nativo hablantes


In the summer of 1967, my parents met at National Defense Education Act Institute for Advanced Study for Secondary School Teachers of Spanish in Greenville, North Carolina. Prior to arriving, they both read the list of professors scheduled to teach that summer and they both formed assumptions about the other. My father assumed that Leticia Alonso Zepeda would be a know-it-all young woman from Mexico City. Upon seeing the name Anthony G. Lozano, ${ }^{1}$ my mother assumed that he would be another one of those Texans who, despite his Hispanic surname, claimed not to be Mexican. Neither one of them could have imagined that they would go on to live a life together where the teaching of Spanish would be one of their shared passions and that they would have a daughter who also would follow in their professional footsteps.

Their successful marriage can be a metaphor for the future of the profession. Both of their initial assumptions about each other continue to reflect the expectations that we may have of our students as language learners. If my mother and father would have never changed their perception of one another, they would have missed out on the lifetime of happiness that they shared. Like their relationship, the success of the future of our profession will be measured by how we are able to replace biased assumptions with authentic interactions and balance the needs of heritage speakers, native speakers, and second language speakers in the classroom.

Throughout the course of their marriage, how best to teach Spanish to heritage learners was a constant topic of conversation. I joke that I was their language experiment because they wrote articles about my language acquisition as a bilingual child (de Lozano 1979; Lozano 1980a, 1980b). When I earned my doctorate and became a Spanish professor at a liberal arts university, the depth of the conversation continued. In many ways, our family's pedagogical experiences trace the past and future of our field.

## The Evolution of Heritage Learners and Technology in the Language Classroom

The language institute where my parents met prided itself in using the latest in language technology. At the time, many secondary Spanish teachers had limited contact with native speakers and very few of them had studied or traveled abroad. Language labs were introduced as a way for language learners of the era to listen to and reproduce authentic sounds. It was difficult for teachers in North Carolina, or most parts of the United States to find opportunities to converse with native speakers. My mother was among the first generation of Mexicans in North Carolina. It would have been impossible to believe that almost fifty years later, Hispanics are currently the largest growing community in North Carolina (US Department of Commerce 2015). The 2010 census recorded $8.39 \%$ of Hispanics in the state of North Carolina (US Department of Commerce 2015). At a national level, according to the Pew Center, "Hispanics will rise from $14 \%$ of the population in 2005 to $29 \%$ in 2050 " (Passel 2008).

The makeup of our Spanish language classes in secondary and in higher education begins to reflect these changing demographics. While in some regions of the United States courses of Spanish for Native Speakers are a possibility and some scholars and teachers think it is the best pedagogical approach, in many schools or colleges these courses are not an option due to funding or due to irregular enrollment. We argue that there are ways to make the most of the mixed classroom and that, when done effectively, it can benefit both types of language learners. We share with you views that illustrate how a mixture of language learning backgrounds in a classroom can make a positive impact in the future of our field.

The following section is based on two interviews that I conducted with my parents over the course of seven months. In these conversations we discussed our views on the profession and its future. We focused on the role of heritage language learners and the evolution of language laboratories, as we believe these are the two areas where our profession has changed the most and that will define the future of our profession. I interviewed my father on December 28, 2014 and my mother on July 20, 2015. I created, posed and transcribed the questions.

Question 1: How have you seen the presence of heritage language learners change during the course of your career and what role do you think they will play in the future of the field?

Leticia: From 1975 to 1977 Tony and I directed the University of Colorado's study away program in Jalapa, Mexico to the public autonomous Universidad Veracruzana [sic]. It was a program that was made up of sixty students, half of them were Chicanos and half of them were Anglos. Many of the Chicanos in the program were from the San Luis Valley of Colorado and while a few of them understood Spanish, others could not speak it. For many living in the country of their ancestors[, it] was a transformative process that gave them great cultural pride and it gave them an ability to speak to their parents and grandparents. As one of our participants wrote on The Daily Camera website, "I was able to converse with my father in his native language for the very first time after an academic year. Prior to my being fluent in Spanish, my father spoke to me in Spanish, and I would answer in English. . . . I am proud to share that without exception, the decision to hire me over my competitors, in my career in State Government has always been my fluency in Spanish" (Gallegos 2015).

At Boulder High School in 1993, I began to incorporate heritage language learners into the Spanish advanced placement classes. With its proximity to the University of Colorado, the majority of the students are Anglos who come from well-educated, affluent families. It was in those years that Mexican immigration to Boulder increased. Now the school is made up of $20 \%$

Hispanic students. They are for the most part undocumented, first generation high school students who have emigrated from rural towns in Northern Mexico. The majority of the students are what we now call DACA students (Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals), and most of them have parents who have had minimal schooling.

Initially I had neither the support of my department or of the administration, but as we successfully grew the program, we began to gain some support. The AP Spanish language class and the AP literature class became a way for native Spanish speaking students to realize that it was possible for them to take honors classes and dream of going to college. The program has continued and according Michelle Carpenter, the current AP teacher, "Hispano students make up $1 / 3$ of the AP Spanish language and AP Spanish literature classes and the average grade on the exam is 4.3 ." I see our continued success at Boulder High as an example of the ways that we can and should incorporate native speakers and second language learners into the same language classroom. They can learn from each other and learn together.

Anthony: When we wrote Teaching Spanish to the Hispanic Bilingual we had to argue for the need to create new pedagogical strategies to teach heritage speakers. I argued that "formal grammatical analysis should be presented to Chicano students not only as a valid part of their language experience in the schools but also as a tool for leading them into the study of mathematics, science and logic" (Lozano 1981:84) and both your mother and I gave specific strategies for teaching grammar or helping students become aware of how they had already internalized grammatical structures. In many ways that book was groundbreaking because before that publication, language teachers hadn't given much thought or value to the need to address the best teaching strategies for heritage language learners. Since then several textbooks aimed at teaching heritage learners have been incorporated into the textbook market. As language educators and researchers we need to be willing to break old schemes.
Angélica: We can apply that idea to how we teach Hispanos. Depending on their individual language backgrounds, we need to help them to break their own language barriers. In addition to becoming comfortable and gaining confidence with their existing language skills, they should also learn how to speak, write and read as high school and college graduates.
Anthony: Yes, we should give them the skills to apply their knowledge to all levels. Language is an instrument and not everybody needs to learn how to talk like Fuentes or Borges, but if someone has a mechanic shop or works in the business world they need to have the skills to be able to communicate in those settings.
Angélica: When I began to work at Furman University in Greenville, South Carolina, almost all of my students were Anglo middle to upper class second language learners. During my years at the institution the number of heritage learners has grown. Recently when I taught a literature course, of the fourteen students, four were native speakers and all of them had different ethnicities, class backgrounds and language histories. My experience confirms that teachers with heritage learners should not expect their "native speakers to be all the same; each will be native in his own or her own unique way; each will have a different story to tell; and each will have a different personal and family background" (Otheguy and Toro 2000: 92).

My Hispanic students are a constant reminder that we need to continually work to find the best ways to incorporate them into the Spanish language major and requirements. While some institutions have long encountered these challenging questions, in regions of the United States where Hispanics are part of the recent history it is a new situation that we must face. We are doing our students and our profession a disservice if we ignore the learning needs of this growing population. As a way to recognize the presence of heritage learners in our classroom, several of my colleagues and I teach Latino literature texts in Spanish courses. We assign the texts in their original languages of publication (Spanish or English) but we discuss them in Spanish. We also developed a Hispanic Culture class that counts as a course option towards one of the requirements for the major. We offer service-learning courses where volunteer work with the Latino community is part of the curriculum. We have added these texts, topics and service learning components into our major courses because we believe the literature, language, and experiences of the Hispanic community must be part of what we teach our students.

In our conversations we noted that mixed language backgrounds in the classroom present new opportunities and challenges for the students and their teachers. As we incorporate heritage speakers into the classroom, we should value their cultural and linguistic knowledge, but, as García and Blanco (2000) remind us, "teachers should be careful not to use these students exclusively as native informants and as tutors for less proficient students. Such arrangements deprive the native speakers from their own linguistic growth and development" (88). These students should not be singled out as representatives of their entire culture. It is a balancing act to give value to their various linguistic backgrounds as a course resource while not relying on them to be native informers, but when it is done successfully it can enhance the learning experiences of both groups of learners. In my mother's classes, it was her undocumented students who helped to explain Lorca's Boda de Sangre to the second language learners. Their knowledge of rural culture where honor is more important than words made them experts in explaining to the Anglo students why they knew that the novio would kill Leonardo.

Allowing the native Spanish speakers to enroll in the Advanced Placement course opened new doors for them. My mother witnessed that with their success in the language classroom the heritage learners gained confidence in the classroom setting and were able to transfer these skills to other classes in other subjects. They also realized they could succeed in college level and honors classes and now many of them even decide to pursue college educations. Non-native Spanish language students had the opportunity to befriend classmates who they might otherwise have ignored. They became aware of their own social and economic privilege and realized that not all students assume that they will attend college. They also learned that many of their Mexican classmates in addition to being full time students often had to work full time jobs in order to help their families. In this way the class continually crossed economic, racial and social divides. Brown (2000) finds that empathy can contribute to the success of learning another language. The Anglo students became better language learners because of their relationships with their Hispanic classmates. In many ways the combination of language learners served as a living language laboratory and each student benefited from the interaction. Just as heritage learners helped to model different language registers and accents for their peers in the way language laboratories did in the past, technology can also serve as a model of language use and as a vehicle to study culture. The way we used language laboratories in the past has changed and how we will use language laboratories in the future must reflect current and future teaching trends, this takes us to the next question regarding language laboratories.

Question 2: How have you seen the use of language laboratories evolve, and what do you think the role of technology will be in the future classroom?

Leticia: Technology is a valuable resource when it is used as a way to teach and demonstrate other language dialects or regional and country differences. It can teach students how language varies depending on the sort of register and the community that is using the language. With the use of laptops and electronic tablets, students no longer have to use technology independently. They can use it in groups to study and discuss how language is used. It can be an effective way to value all types of regional and class differences. The more a teacher can give equal worth to all sorts of language and present a variety language examples being used in multiple contexts, the more students can take pride in the sort of language that is spoken at home and understand why different registers are necessary depending on the social circumstances. By exposing students to other linguistic examples they can learn how to feel comfortable with different accents. I have found that oftentimes the language learners that need to be educated the most are Anglo Spanish language teachers as they tend to only value the sort of language that they have learned in the classroom or abroad and are very rigid in their understanding of the language, even when it comes to native speakers' other variations of the language. I find students are much more open to linguistic differences.
Anthony: Throughout my career I have noticed a standardization of Spanish. This may be due to the use of technology and to television. At the same time the lay language learner has a false perception that they will learn a language by buying a Rosetta Stone or similar programs. I call it the "Rosetta Stone syndrome." Those of us who teach language know that technology alone cannot teach how to speak another language. I also find that in our profession there is too much emphasis on the specialized fields within Spanish, whereas I think we need to focus on our commonalities in teaching language.
Angélica: We have only to look at the evolution of language labs to see that how we teach language is changing. Now that textbooks make their audio, visual and lab materials accessible through their textbook websites, the language labs that used to hold these materials are no longer necessary. At my institution we reimagined how to use our language lab. We transformed a lab that housed dated technology and changed it into a space that invites a community of language learners, where students want to spend their free time and practice their language knowledge. Students are encouraged to bring their own technology and we also have portable devices that are available for checkout. We imagine future classrooms that encourage movement, where there are multiple types of seating spaces and whiteboards that can transform into projection screens when necessary. In the past language labs were full of individual spaces where students were contained in carrels and engaged in the individual activity of listening and recording their voices, the new language lab spaces should be flexible classrooms that invite interactions and create a sense of community.

The future of our profession lies not in the language laboratory but in the physical space of the language classroom. The Spanish classroom of the future should be based on a communicative approach where students are given multiple opportunities to produce and to practice language with other
language learners. The ultimate goal of the classroom is for our students to be able to leave with the skills to communicate with people from a variety of backgrounds and in a variety of settings. At its core language learning is and should continue to be about developing a community.

Through our conversations we acknowledged that technology in the classroom can be a very useful tool to create virtual communities and to research information, but we argued that its main worth in the language classroom is as a way to access realia. Technology should not replace the role that we as teachers play, but rather it should be a resource to enhance our teaching. According to Samaniego and Pino (2000), "Teachers should provide model registers using video, radio, movies, guest speakers, and the like, and then require students to model different registers, especially the formal registers, through role-playing, debates and speeches" (43). The use of technology helps students to develop a critical mind for how language functions in different settings. But technology is a supplement and not the means for language learning. In-class conversations and interactions are essential to learning a language and to making the material come to life.

## Conclusions

The future of our profession lies in how we will be able to address the challenges of the growing community of Hispanics in our society and in the schools and universities where we teach. Just as my parents entered into their relationship with their different expectations of each other, we as teachers need to be cognizant of our own language learning backgrounds in order to consider how those backgrounds may impact the way that we teach the three types of learners in the classroom. We all must meet the challenge of addressing the needs of second language learners, native speakers and heritage language learners in terms of the content of our courses and the materials we use to teach them. As Valdés (2006) notes, "To date although one can identify various pedagogical goals and objectives in the literature on heritage language instruction, there is no clear articulated consensus about either goals or successful pedagogical practice" (195). Yet this should not stop us from continuing to seek the best methods to reach all of our students. We should create classroom communities that realize that their greatest assets are the various linguistic skills that each student brings into the classroom. The best way to accomplish this is in a classroom that values the unique language backgrounds and experiences of each of our students. Our goal as Spanish language teachers should be to help them all to continue to improve their abilities to communicate in a variety of settings and registers. Our ability to marry the various groups of learners in our classroom will determine the success or the failure of the future of our field.

## NOTES

${ }^{1}$ We are saddened to share that University of Colorado Professor Emeritus Anthony G. Lozano passed away while this essay was in progress. He was thrilled to know that this article had been accepted for the centenary edition of Hispania. Throughout his career the journal published several of the articles that defined his career as a linguist and helped professionals in our field to think differently about the way that we teach grammar.

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Response to "A Cross-generational Conversation about the Future of Teaching Spanish"

# Challenging the Monolingual Status Quo: Heritage Speakers and the Future of Spanish in the United States 

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#### Abstract

Keywords: bilingualism/bilingüismo, heritage language learners/estudiantes de lenguas de herencia, language policy/política de lengua, Spanish for native speakers/español para hablantes de español, Spanish in the United States/español en Estados Unidos


In "A Cross-Generational Conversation about the Future of Teaching Spanish," Angélica Lozano-Alonso discusses a number of topics relevant to the future of our profession, but at the heart of the essay is the growing presence and importance of heritage speakers in Spanish classrooms. As we consider the future of Spanish teaching in the United States, we should also consider how the presence of native and heritage speakers provides world language teachers an opportunity to challenge the status quo of monolingualism in this country with examples of successful and dynamic bilingualism.

Like Angélica Lozano-Alonso, I grew up hearing Spanish at home, though in my case it was from only one parent. As one of the few children not from a monolingual English-speaking family in my North Carolina community in the 1980s, I was reluctant to use Spanish or even acknowledge what I knew outside of my home. I remember feeling mortified when my mother spoke to me in Spanish at an event at my elementary school. At parties or events with other Hispanic and Spanish-speaking families I had a set answer to the question, "¿Hablas español?" "Solo un poquito." Only as an adult trying to raise my own sons as bilingual have I come to fully appreciate my mother's persistence in speaking to me and my sister in Spanish, and only as an adult have I come to understand how my childhood reactions fit into the broader picture of language attitudes and language policies in the United States.

When I moved back to North Carolina from California in 2006, I found a much larger and more vibrant Hispanic community than the one I knew growing up. Mirroring the rest of the country, more and more North Carolina colleges and high schools have Spanish courses designed for heritage speakers, and non-Hispanic students often have opportunities to use Spanish at work or with friends. Yet at the very same time, also mirroring nationwide trends, language programs are being cut at all levels across the state. In the public school system my children attend, which used to have a K-8 Spanish program, students now cannot even opt to take a language until high school.

This disconnect tells us much about attitudes towards language and towards multilingualism in the United States. In a sketch from his monologue Dress to Kill (2002), comedian Eddie Izzard pokes fun at similar attitudes towards bilingualism in Great Britain: "Two languages in one head?" he quips, "No one can live at that speed! Good lord, man, you're asking the impossible." Indeed, even as article after article is published touting the benefits of bilingualism, in much of
the English-speaking world monolingualism is viewed as the norm while bilingualism is seen as either an exotic talent or a source of suspicion. As language teachers, we have long been at the forefront of movements that push back against this view. As Spanish teachers in the twenty-first century, we have a unique opportunity to show our students-both heritage speakers and more traditional L2 learners-that bilingual individuals and communities can exist and thrive in the United States.

To do this, we must first and foremost support and encourage heritage speakers to take pride in their linguistic abilities. This may mean recognizing and affirming ways of speaking that are common to Spanish in the United States but traditionally seen as "incorrect" or non-standard, including forms like haiga or fuistes, and accepting that code-switching is a common practice in bilingual communities. While we want to help all students use formal, more standard language in writing, and avoid interference from English, when we as Spanish teachers belittle bilingual students' ways of using of language we also inadvertently belittle their bilingualism itself, reinforcing an old stereotype that some Spanish-English bilinguals don't speak either language well.

Instead of simply dismissing common but non-standard usage as wrong, we have an opportunity to engage heritage speakers in more nuanced conversations about language variation, formal vs. informal usage, and bilingualism itself. Engaging with bilingual students in this way bolsters their sociolinguistic competence and provides other students, colleagues, and the broader society with models of thriving and dynamic bilingualism that serve to celebrate rather than undermine individuals and communities. In the long term these successful examples of bilingualism can change attitudes and perhaps even policies in the United States, which will in turn serve to strengthen language programs at all levels.

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# The Lion and the Lamb: Literature and Linguistics in Spanish Departments 



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#### Abstract

Linguists are an increasing presence not only in graduate programs but at undergraduate institutions as well, and this could lead to positive interdisciplinary changes in curricula. Literary/cultural texts contain masterful examples of how linguistic features are used to communicate meaning, and learners need to notice these features in order to continue acquiring Spanish. One role that linguistic analysis can play in this ongoing process is to facilitate noticing. Such analysis is exemplified in four texts in which the manipulation of forms of address contributes to plot and character development. Integrating linguistic analysis into reading practice requires intentional steps, some of which are suggested here.


Keywords: forms of address/tratamiento, interdisciplinary initiatives/iniciativas interdisciplinarias, linguistic analysis of literature/análisis lingüístico de literatura, "No oyes ladrar los perros," "El otro," Sin nombre, La soledad del manager

## Introduction

The composition of the faculty in Spanish departments is changing. ${ }^{1}$ With the broadening of the canon and the emergence of cultural studies, some faculty positions have been redefined. Other positions are new; in many large departments, thriving programs in Spanish Linguistics have developed from a small nucleus of linguists. Although not all large departments have embraced this change, the arc of tradition is bending in the direction of acceptance. Indeed, having linguists on staff has become a point of pride; the Hispanic Linguistics program at the University of Arizona, for example, claims on its website that "The University of Arizona has the highest concentration of linguists per student of any Research-1 University in the United States."

The increasing number of linguists in Spanish Departments is bound to have an influence on undergraduate programs. Linguists who are hired to meet the needs of graduate programs also teach undergraduate classes, of course. And, many linguists are being hired at undergraduate institutions. The Hispanic Linguistics program in the Department of Spanish and Portuguese at Indiana University, for example, provides a list on its website of tenure-track positions accepted by recent graduates; of the twenty-three schools on the list, only a few offer a PhD in linguistics, and several have fewer than 5,000 students. These changes in staffing will inevitably lead to curricular innovations at both large and small institutions. This essay is offered as a contribution to collegial discourse about curricular goals and how to reach them.

Traditionally, undergraduate programs in Spanish are literature-based, and defining the role of linguists in such programs is an on-going process. Linguists often coordinate the language courses and, in large departments, supervise teaching assistants, but they rarely teach literature.

Given that the literature faculty is usually in place before any linguists are hired, this staffing pattern has the ring of inevitability, though calls to move away from the language/literature divide occur on a regular basis (as chronicled in Frantzen 2010).

Considering the current popularity of interdisciplinary initiatives, failure to capitalize on the natural affinities between linguistics and literature is an anomaly. One way of addressing this anomaly is to use linguistics to illuminate the literary/cultural texts that constitute an important part of the undergraduate curriculum. Intermediate and advanced language learners are engaged in identifying what they do not yet understand, and linguistic analysis can help them to notice critical examples of the communicative potential of grammar. (See Paesani and Willis Allen 2012 for a review of recent research on the relationship between language, literature, and culture courses at the advanced level.)

## Contributions of Linguists to Literary Analysis

All language-including the language of texts-is grist for the mill of linguistic analysis (Azevedo 2009; Gugin 2008; Yáñez Prieto 2010). Milton M. Azevedo has pointed out that there is a solid core of interdisciplinary research that combines linguistic and literary analysis. He describes literary linguistic analysis as "a kind of close reading that pays attention to language details . . . that form a frame of reference for conveying not only specific denotative meanings but also a whole spectrum of connotative meanings" (4; emphasis ours). Noteworthy examples of pedagogical applications of literary analysis of Hispanic literature can be found in: Albrecht and Lunn 1997; Azevedo 2002, 2004, 2009; Barrett, Paesani, and Vinall 2010; DeCesaris and Lunn 2007; Frantzen 2002, 2009, 2013; Kingsbury 2011; Lunn 1985; Nuessel 2000; Paoli 1992. These studies focus on linguistic data of various kinds: phonetics/phonology, dialectology, syntax, lexicon, sociolinguistics, and pragmatics.

## The Potential Role of Literary Texts in the Acquisition Process

Very few advanced undergraduates are fully proficient speakers or writers; they have acquired some Spanish, but need to improve their skills. Researchers agree that for second language (L2) learners to show acquisitional gains they must notice the L2 features to be acquired (Robinson 1995; Schmidt 1990, 1993; Wong 2005). Schmidt (1990) labeled this phenomenon the Noticing Hypothesis and explained, "This requirement of noticing is meant to apply equally to all aspects of language (lexicon, phonology, grammatical form, pragmatics), and can be incorporated into many different theories of second language acquisition" (149). We know too that L2 learners do not automatically notice linguistic features. Wong (2005) pointed out, "Input is fundamental for acquisition because it provides the data that is available for intake. However, if learners do not notice and comprehend the input, form-meaning connections or intake will not be created and that input will have little use for acquisition" (30). Similarly, researchers in Second Language Acquisition have long argued, based on empirical data, that focusing on form in meaningful contexts results in gains in performance and perception (e.g., Arteagoitia, Doughty, Fridman, and Leeman 1995; Svalberg 2009; Wong 2005).

Drawing examples of linguistic features from literary texts is one means of providing meaningful input to learners. Literary texts do not just supply context; they embody context. Literature classes mediate between literary texts that contain masterful examples of how the features of Spanish can be used to communicate meaning, and learners who can profit from those examples. Recently, the nature of this mediation has been formally studied. Daryl M. Rodgers (2015) and Charlene Polio and Eve Zyzik $(2008,2009)$ show that much of what students learn about language structure is incidental both to teachers' goals and to classroom interactions in literature classes. In other words, although "formal instruction may heighten learners' awareness
of things in the input they might miss otherwise or might get wrong" (Wong 2005: 32), very little of the formal instruction that has been studied is used to heighten this awareness.

## Sample Linguistic Analyses

This section provides four examples of the ways that a single linguistic feature-how speakers address one another-can be manipulated to create meaning. The difference between tú and usted is taught in beginning Spanish classes, often in terms of who is likely to be addressed as tú (close relatives, friends, children) or usted (older people, authority figures, strangers). These lists, though, don't account for all usage and obscure the fundamental fact that usage is variable.

There has been a great deal of research about the meanings of forms of address and virtually all of it cites Roger Brown and Albert Gilman's classic article (1960) in which the authors discuss the T and V pronouns (in Spanish, tú and usted) in various European languages. Brown and Gilman conclude that the core semantic value of the T pronoun is solidarity between speaker and hearer, while that of the V pronoun is power on the part of the speaker. "The recipient of V [the hearer] may differ from the recipient of T in strength, age, wealth, birth, sex or profession. As two people move apart on these power-laden dimensions, one of them begins to say V. In general terms, the V form is linked with differences between persons" (257).

Brown and Gilman's (1960) analysis can be used to understand the switches between tú and usted in "No oyes ladrar los perros" by Juan Rulfo (1953). In this short story, a father is carrying his wounded son in search of medical attention. The father talks to his son continually, addressing him first as tú, when focused on the urgent task of getting help, and then as usted, when lamenting his violent and dissolute behavior. Late in the story, the father displays his ambivalent feelings towards his son by using both forms in the same sentence. At the end, when the son is no longer responsive, the father's use of tú suggests that his love has won out over his disapproval. Brown and Gilman's image of speakers moving along the dimensions of power and solidarity illuminates the fluctuation between $t u$ and $u$ sted in this story. ${ }^{2}$

The Jorge Luis Borges story "El otro," in which the author (as a character in the story) meets his youthful self, provides another instructive example of the meaning behind changes in forms of address. Before the narrator (the older Borges) begins to believe that the younger man is actually himself at a younger age, the "two" men employ reciprocal usted. Once Borges believes he has identified the younger man, he begins to use vos, the T pronoun used in Argentina, signaling the solidarity that one would feel toward oneself. However, the younger man, who never buys into the older man's belief, demonstrates his skepticism by maintaining usted throughout the encounter. In this text, students can observe not only T/V switches, but also the verb and pronoun forms of voseo, with which they may not be familiar.

Courses on film have become a standard part of the undergraduate curriculum, and film dialog provides many examples of switches in the use of forms of address. Sin nombre (Fukunaga 2009) follows a member of a youth gang in Chiapas, Mexico. One of the striking characteristics of the speech of the gang members is that they call one another usted even though some of them are very young. One boy is addressed as tú until he has committed the murder that gains him admittance into the gang; after that, he is addressed as usted. Clearly, the issue here is not age, but solidarity and, additionally, politeness. The concepts of negative politeness (avoidance of affront), and positive politeness (expression of solidarity) introduced by Penelope Brown and Stephen C. Levinson (1987) allow us to understand how the gang members' desire to avoid insult and create group solidarity results in the reciprocal use of $u$ sted. ${ }^{3}$

The choice of a form of address is related to other linguistic choices, of course; all linguistic choices are contextual. La soledad del manager, a detective novel by Manuel Vázquez Montalbán, reveals the relationship between forms of address and forms of the subjunctive mood (1977). On an ascending scale of politeness, the detective gives orders to his collaborators: "Quiero que me
cites a todas estas personas." (91); asks for favors from his girlfriend: "Quisiera que recordaras primero si ha sido cliente tuyo." (33); and makes requests of well-connected suspects: "Quisiera que usted me aclarase algunas cosas." (60). DeCesaris and Lunn (2007) suggest that the core meaning of the subjunctive is low assertiveness. On this analysis, the speaker who uses quisiera is being as unassertive-and, hence, as polite-as possible. The fact that the form belongs to the past tense paradigm is also important; politeness is communicated in many languages by using past tense forms with present tense meaning. ${ }^{4}$ Of the two past subjunctive forms, the - se form is slowly being lost, and since recessive forms always have an aura of formality about them, the use of aclarase (as opposed to aclarara) adds additional politeness.

Students can be encouraged to approach data like these in a variety of ways. At lower levels, they can be asked to identify the forms of address, which is not a trivial task for learners who have not completely mastered the verb and pronoun systems, and then to identify places in the text where switches occur. At the intermediate level, students can be asked to explain the effects and implications of the uses of the forms of address in specific textual contexts. More advanced students, who have read widely, can be asked to compare usage in multiple texts and contexts to highlight variability among speakers, dialects, and circumstances. Activities like these, which can be applied to any linguistic details that have an impact on plot or character development, constitute the kind of close reading envisaged by Azevedo (2004, 2009), and can help students notice linguistic features.

## Bringing Linguistic Analysis into the Literature Classroom

We argue that linguistic analysis can be a valuable addition to many approaches to literature, and that the attention to detail required by such analysis can be a useful component of the acquisition process. However, given that the proportion of literature/cultural studies faculty to linguistics faculty in Spanish departments remains heavily weighted in favor of the former (Azevedo 2009; Lipski 2006; VanPatten 2015), linguists are not usually called on to teach literature classes. ${ }^{5}$ How, then, can linguistics be integrated into these classes? Here are a few suggestions:

- Include a unit on linguistic analysis of literature in the introductory course in reading literature, which is part of virtually all major and minor programs in Spanish.
- Require all undergraduate students to take an introduction to linguistics course, which could include a unit on text analysis.
- Incorporate linguistic analysis into reading practice in intermediate- and advanced-level grammar courses. See Frantzen (2009) and DeCesaris and Lunn (2007) for examples.
- Invite linguists as guest speakers in literature courses. Obvious pairings include articulatory phonetics and poetry, and verbal aspect and narrative.
- Apply for internal or external grants to facilitate the changes needed to integrate linguistics into literature classes.


## Using Literary Data in Linguistics Research and Teaching

Linguists, too, can benefit from collaboration with their colleagues in literature. The various subfields of linguistics can utilize literary texts as a source of data (Azevedo 2002; Gugin 2008; Lipski 1995; Ocampo 2006). For example, Lipski highlights the value of literary texts to an assessment of the African contribution to American dialects of Spanish, and Azevedo has shown what mixed or border dialects reveal about standard Spanish and Portuguese. DeCesaris and Lunn $(2007)$ and Frantzen $(2009,2013)$ use data from literature to exemplify linguistic rules.

Linguists will have to reach out to their colleagues in order to integrate their contributions into the curriculum and into broader research agendas. Here are a few suggestions:

- Include literary works in the syllabi of beginning- and intermediate-level courses supervised by linguists. ${ }^{6}$
- Include literature as one source of linguistic data examined in advanced grammar and composition classes (e.g., Zyzik 2008).
- Invite literature faculty as guest speakers in linguistics courses (e.g., to exemplify how phonetic material is used in poetry, or verbal aspect is used in narrative).
- Propose regular linguistics sessions at literature/cultural studies conferences.
- Collaborate with colleagues in literature on co-authored papers (e.g., Albrecht and Lunn 2007).

Literature and linguistics have long been separated in university foreign language departments. Whatever its historical justifications, this separation is hard to defend-either in terms of interdisciplinary initiatives, or in terms of ongoing acquisition. The lion and the lamb of the title share an academic home, and we suggest taking intellectual and pedagogical advantage of this fact.

## NOTES

${ }^{1}$ The departments in which Spanish courses are housed have many different names: Spanish, Spanish and Portuguese, Romance Languages, Modern Languages, Foreign Languages, World Languages, and so forth. The term "Spanish Department" is used as a cover term for all of these.
${ }^{2}$ This story is used to exemplify the use of the forms of address in the textbook Lazos (Frantzen 2009), as are several other stories featured in Lazos. Frantzen (2002) explains that the father's use of usted demonstrates "linguistically the distance he feels on an emotional level" (121).
${ }^{3}$ In the course of the plot, the Mexican gang member teams up with a Honduran girl who speaks a voseante dialect. The film could also be used to illustrate these two different second-person systems.
${ }^{4}$ Social distance, physical distance, and temporal distance are related components of politeness.
${ }^{5}$ Practitioners of stylistics focus on close readings of meaning-based structural and pragmatic detail. This approach to literature, however, is unlikely to be tied to efforts to facilitate acquisition.
${ }^{6}$ Of course, literary texts were once a standard part of such courses. Current practice, though, avoids excerpts in favor of complete works and employs a battery of techniques to enhance understanding, so this suggestion is not a case of "everything old is new again."

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Respuesta a "The Lion and the Lamb: Literature and Linguistics in Spanish Departments"

# Fortaleciendo la colaboración para beneficiar al estudiante 



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Palabras clave: agreement/concordancia, Balún Canán, collaboration/colaboración, El condado de Belken, conjugation/conjugación, learning/aprendizaje

Propongo enfocar esta agregación al artículo "The Lion and the Lamb: Literature and Linguistics in Spanish Departments" con el objetivo de añadir al ensayo comentando que la usanza de pasajes literarios ha sido práctica esencial en las clases de gramática y en un curso de sociolingüística que hemos dictado para alumnos de español y los que buscan obtener la certificación como maestros de español.

Hemos empleado varios ejemplos literarios para resaltar o aclarar semántica y puntos gramaticales. "No oyes ladrar los perros" de Juan Rulfo es el ejemplo maestro para destacar las sutilizas del uso de "usted" y "tú" bajo contextos muy definidos como sucede con el padre e hijo en el cuento. Igualmente, se recomienda adoptar Balún Canán por Rosario Castellanos (1957) en cátedras de filología para exhibir la distancia lingüística que se marca entre los blancos y los indios al usar "usted", "tú" y "vos": "Oílo vos, este indio igualado. Está hablando castilla. . . . Porque hay reglas. El español es privilegio nuestro. Y lo usamos hablando de usted a los superiores; de tú a los iguales; de vos a los indios" (38-39).

Dada la brevedad de esta respuesta, nos limitamos a un segundo y último ejemplo literario que da luz a algunas dificultades de índole gramatical que suelen surgir en el habla y la escritura de algunos estudiantes cuyo aprendizaje del español ha sido de manera natural en familia y comunidad: Los estudiantes del español como un lenguaje de herencia (Valdés 1988; Valdés 2000).

Veamos un ejemplo de la obra El condado de Belken por Rolando Hinojosa (1976). Aquí el recién llegado al pueblo, Tomás Imás, acentúa el español aprendido de un libro de texto ante la forma natural, aprendida y heredada por los otros personajes. Escuchamos a Jehú Malacara: "divisé a Edelmiro Pompa hablando con un señor . . . estaba conversando con Edelmiro. . . . [ Y ] oí que el fuereño decía ‘. . . bien así que tú crecer, tú ver lo importante del educación'" (47). Las palabras de Tomás Imás resaltan la falta de conjugación de los infinitivos y concordancia de género y número. Hacemos hincapié al hecho que el personaje que maneja un español textual no ha tenido la experiencia directa en un ambiente bilingüe como lo es el área geográfica de la narrativa de Hinojosa. De ahí la falta de conjugación y concordancia. Igualmente vale la pena incluir el diálogo entre Imás y Malacara una vez fueron presentados por Edelmiro:
'Servidor del Señor y suyo, Tomás Imás. Yo ser predicador del Señor'.
¿Dónde ir tú con ese pala, jovencito?
Voy a cubrir un pozo.
¿De un persona muerto?
Si viera que sí, pero el muerto no está en ese pozo.
Oh, perdón yo no entender. (47)

Esta conversación subraya dimensiones gramaticales, como se comentó antes, la conjugación de verbos y la concordancia de género y número. Aparte de la gramática, las citas anteriores de El Condado de Belken también ofrecen la oportunidad de señalar un par de matices culturales y regionalistas, por ejemplo, el verbo "divisar" no se usa en un ambiente formal; se emplea un verbo más contemporáneo como "observar" o "distinguir". Igualmente, el término "fuereño" es ya una palabra de antaño. Hoy día se escucha "extraño" que "fuereño". No obstante, en el contexto bilingüe y culturalmente mexicano/México-americano del sur de Texas el español arcaico todavía tiene una presencia en la comunidad del Valle.

La instrucción del español en las aulas, ya sea a nivel de principiantes, intermedio o en cursos avanzados, se fortalecerá con la colaboración y trabajos multidisciplinarios entre lingüistas y literatos. Ambos grupos tienen que estar dispuestos a aprovechar y compartir las herramientas filológicas que la literatura brinda. La colaboración es clave para seguir regenerando y vigorizando la enseñanza y el aprendizaje del idioma determinadamente enfocando los esfuerzos al aprendizaje de los estudiantes y a la vez erradicando el elemento de corderos y leones.

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# The Place of the Forge: The African Diaspora, History, and Comparative Literature 



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#### Abstract

In times of crisis when literature and world languages are threatened by economic hardship, they should draw closer to African diaspora studies. The African diaspora is so vast, longstanding, and diverse that it must be studied using a comparative, multilingual, interdisciplinary, and international approach that includes study in French, Portuguese, and Spanish alongside an understanding of Latin America. Breaking with the academic marginalization of the past, I examine the word "ghetto" as it relates to Afro-Latin American literature, culture, and history, attempting to open this enclosed space with the goal of a more complete, logical, and democratic understanding of the Americas.


Keywords: African diaspora/diáspora africana, Afro-Brazil/Afrobrasil, Caribbean/Caribe, humanities crisis/ crisis de humanidades, comparative literature/literatura comparada, cultural studies/estudios culturales, inter-American literature/literatura interamericana, slavery/esclavitud

One third of the Americas, 200,000,000 people, have African ancestry, and most Afrodescendants live in Latin America ("Afro-descendants"). From 2014 to 2024 is the United Nations International Decade for People of African Descent ("International Decade") and 2016 was a US presidential election year, which brings me to contemplate the role of African diaspora history in our understanding of literature, in particular works in world languages and comparative literature, as fields that are often considered "in crisis" (Jay 10). This is largely due to the "great recession" of 2007. During the 2008 election cycle, anti-immigrant presidential candidate Newt Gingrich, evoking the slums inhabited by marginalized Latinx and African Americans, referred to Spanish as "the language of living in the ghetto" (Sharockman). Today, one could argue that, like languages, African American studies has also been ghettoized in academia.

I doubt Gingrich considered the ongoing debate among Oxford linguists regarding the etymology of the word "ghetto." It is Venetian Italian, and its roots reach as far back as 1516, when the first ghetto was recorded (Liberman). It was built not to house Afro-descendants but another marginalized group, the Jews. According to linguist Anatoly Lieberman, despite multiple folk etymologies, "ghetto" likely means "narrow street."

The enclosure implied by the term can be used to describe the epistemological limitations imposed on African American studies. This enclosure comes in many forms. Still-prevailing suppositions about Black literature are that it:

- Matters only to Black people.
- Is unique to the United States.
- Is not part of the canon-haphazard, low-quality, "ghetto."
- Is written only in English.
- Discusses only race, separate from other discourses of identity and oppression, such as gender, sexuality, class, and religion.

In opposition to the narrow interpretation of African American studies as an academic ghetto, I propose that it is not only more expansive than a narrow street or an urban island like those of Venice, but that it is one of the saving graces of the comparative literature and languages departments and disciplines because of its international, multilingual scope. My metaphor for this is "the place of the forge." Among the seventeenth-century folk etymologies of the term "ghetto," still believed today is "the place of the foundry." To "found" means to fuse metals, to heat into a liquid, and form into new solid structures, weapons, and edifices. To "found" means to establish, to build, or rebuild.

I imagine comparative literature as "the place of the forge," and what follows is an overview of areas that exemplify the trans-Atlantic scope of African diaspora literature. In Latin America, where most Africans were taken during the slave trade, syncretic religions based on those of Yoruba and Dahomeyan peoples emerged in a Catholic context, such as those popularly known as Cuban Santería, Brazilian Candomblé, and New Orleans Vodoun. These faiths emerged as a "camouflage" for the African beliefs of the enslaved, and represent a tempestuous syncretism of ideas in contexts of slavery, misunderstanding, and oppression. The god of the forge for syncretic Yoruba-based faiths is Oggún, who is also a god of war (González-Wippler 25). This bellicose deity, syncretized with Saint Peter and Saint George, is a mixture of the West, Africa, and the Americas (25-26). He is at home on the former Slave Coast of Africa and the present-day beaches of Bahia. He can be seen in the furnace of conflict that emerged in Birmingham, AL, referred to as "Bombingham" after the Sixteenth Street Baptist Church was attacked in 1963 for being a citadel in the war against segregation. This struggle was among the first live depictions of the United States on the televisions that were entering the homes of Latin Americans in the 1960s. Chileans Alberto Fuguet and Sergio Gómez mark the beginning of today's McOndo generation of writers as beginning in the Cuban Revolution (starting in 1959) and the popularization of television in Latin America (beginning in 1962) (16). The Revolution used the imagery of the Civil Rights struggle to paint itself as the vanguard of an international resistance to the racist United States and to racial oppression throughout the Atlantic (De la Fuente 296). To this day, US Americans in general—including those who are African American-are unaware of their international audience in their struggles for liberty and justice for all. For example, Black Lives Matter has drawn attention to police brutality in Brazil, the country with the largest black population outside of those in Africa. Between 2010 and 2013, ${ }^{1 / 6}$ of Rio de Janeiro's homicides were committed by police and $4 / 5$ of victims were Afro-descendants (Carless). Reform is needed more than ever, given the police brutality and impunity that has been portrayed in the film Ônibus 174 (Padilha and Lacerda). Film and literature are among the most visceral intellectual examinations of racism, violence, resilience, and continental unity.

I want comparative literature, cultural studies, and African American studies to strengthen their bonds to better integrate academia racially and culturally under the sign of the Orisha, or deity, Oggún. He is a symbol of strength, foundation, and fluidity, since he is constantly melting, mixing, and forging new things (González-Wippler 26). Sadly, the economic crisis of 2007 has caused the study of literature, particularly in world languages, to fall into decadence. Perhaps the most symbolic blow to comparativism came in 2010, when the University of Toronto's Centre for Comparative Literature was nearly struck down due to budget limitations. It was founded by the visionary Northrop Frye (Hutcheon), the famous Structuralist critic of the twentieth century (Eagleton 79). Structuralism posits that literature can be decontextualized and analyzed through narratological structures (79). The beauty of this method lies in that the inner-workings of great works of art from different national and linguistic traditions can be compared to create a more cosmopolitan understanding of literature.

From this tradition comes critic Earl Fitz's notion of inter-American literature. In my work, I attempt to synthesize this comparative approach with the diasporic approach of scholars like Lesley Feracho, Antonio Tillis, and William Luis. Fitz sums up his approach in "Internationalizing the Literature of the Portuguese-Speaking World" (439), but he has labored since 1967 on a
history of inter-American literature that combines and compares the Anglophone, Francophone, Hispanophone, and Lusophone traditions along thematic and aesthetic lines (12). Fitz argues that the specialists best suited to unite the literary traditions of the Americas are US Brazilianists, who typically speak Portuguese, English, and Spanish (440).

Brazil is central to the study of Africa in the Americas, since roughly ten times as many enslaved Africans were sent there than were sent to the United States, and this history begins 100 years before 1619, the year African slavery began in the British colonies (Landers and Robinson 1). Without transatlantic slavery, Brazil would have meant nothing to Europe, colonially speaking. It is named for a tree that was used to dye clothing, the only product of use that Pedro Álvares Cabral discovered when he stumbled upon the continent in 1500, en route to India (Eakin 14). It was only when sugar plantations began to sprout up like the repeating islands of the Hispanic Caribbean that Brazil became heavily populated and developed by Europeans and their African captives beginning in 1533. When bandeirante slave catchers created the first great gold rush of the Americas in Minas Gerais, Africans were the captives that pulled the metals from the mines and forged them into the gold plate of churches. Brazil declared its independence in 1822 (Eakin 28), but it nearly entered the twentieth century with a king and slaves when abolition finally arrived in 1888 and a bloodless coup brought in the Republic in 1889 (Eakin 37). The transition to republicanism gave rise to the novels of Joaquim Maria Machado de Assis, whom critic Harold Bloom considers "the supreme Black literary artist to date" (674). I argue with Eduardo de Assis Duarte and María Nazaré Soares that he is emblematic of the influence of Afro-descendants on canonical literature and the necessity to include them in the canon of the Americas (44). Furthermore, if more African captives were sent to Brazil than any country ( 5.37 million sent, 4.86 million arrived), and if trans-Atlantic slavery lasted longer in Brazil than in any other place on earth, why is there not a Portuguese requirement in every African American studies department (Estimates Database)? If 11.2 million people in total were taken to Latin America, why is Spanish, the majority language, not required (Gates 2)? I fear that ignorance of the rest of the African diaspora limits African American studies to a narrow street that Paul Gilroy warned against over twenty years ago in The Black Atlantic (223) and to which Afro-Colombian Manuel Zapata Olivella opened the gates over thirty years ago in his novel Changó el gran putas (1983).

It is the intercontinental breadth of the African diaspora that makes it "the place of the forge" for me. One example is the Afro-Hispanic Review, the premier literary journal in AfroHispanic studies, which is edited by William Luis. It shows that the African diaspora necessitates comparative and interdisciplinary studies that include not only Spanish America but also texts from Brazil and Haiti. The Revolution of Saint-Domingue (1791-1804), which Luis considers the most important event in Caribbean history, was the first foundation of a nation in which all people, especially and explicitly Blacks, were free citizens (18). This, along with the centrality of the Pan-African Negritude movement, Frantz Fanon's post-colonialism, and the cultures of Francophone Africa is why French and Haitian Creole (taught at Florida) are necessary for the deepest understanding of Black literature. Haitian-style ideals of citizenship would only come to the United States in juridical form in 1868 with the Fourteenth Amendment. Why is this ground-breaking revolution not yet at the heart of every French and African American studies program? Luis's comparative work on Black literatures of the Americas came to full fruition when he became editor of the $A H R$ in 2005. Luis has spent many years working with the journal, founded in 1982 by Stanley Cyrus and Ian Smart Howard (DeCosta Willis 80). It has served as a forum where creativity and intellectual inquiry by literary and cultural critics from far beyond the United States are celebrated and promoted. There are other important African diaspora journals that have published Afro-Latin American criticism: African American Review, The College Language Association Journal, Callaloo, and the Publication of the Afro-Latin American Research Association. However, Luis has pushed the limits of African diaspora studies like no other through thematic numbers. For example, he devoted a special issue to the most important

Afro-Hispanic novelist, the aforementioned Manuel Zapata Olivella. Alongside specialist guest editors, he published one-of-a-kind issues on Afro-Asia (2008), Afro-Caribbean religions (2007), and Equatorial Guinea (2009), a comparative analysis of the conflicted cultures of Hispaniola (2013), and an Afro-Brazilian issue (2010). While the isolation of Afro-Hispanic and Afro-Brazilian literature has in some ways contributed to its richness and diversity-authors in these journals write on virtually any aspect of texts by or about Afro-descendants-the broad outlook of Luis's journal makes it a place Oggún forges new foundations and weaponry to fight invisibility of a vital bond of the Americas.

One reason for an interdisciplinary approach to studying Afro-Latin American literature is its longstanding oral tradition and the different documents one must consult to reconstruct the history of slavery in Latin America. In Spanish America, this was partially corrected by Miguel Barnet's interviews with 104 -year-old former slave rebel Esteban Montejo in Biografía de un Cimarrón (2006), now celebrating its fiftieth anniversary. Studying slave history in Latin America is different from the United States because of the lack of traditional slave narratives like those of Olaudah Equiano and Frederick Douglass (Helg 85). If one looks for an example of this tradition, s/he will find only two examples. One is Juan Manzano's Autobiografía del esclavo poeta (2007). The other is that of Mahommah Baquaqua, which was narrated in Canada and published in Detroit in English in 1854 (Lovejoy and Law 2010: 10) and which was only translated and published in Portuguese in 2016 by Bruno Veras (Gómez Licón). It is considered Brazil's "only slave narrative," since Baquaqua traveled Brazil, Haiti, the United States, and Canada. However, there are bills of sale, military records, and documents of baptism and confessions to the Inquisition, among other church documents, that can be used to reconstruct the lives of Afro-Latin Americans (Helg 85). President Obama's normalization of US relations with Cuba will hopefully lead to more preservation and divulgation of autobiographical slave documents. Another consideration is that Brazil already had mulatto writers in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries who were not only free but literate poets like Domingos Caldas Barbosa (1739-1800) (Marques 49) and the formerly enslaved poet and autobiographer Luís Gama (1830-1882) (Ferreira 10).

Alongside works modeled on the traditional Western canon, one can find a rich musical tradition that dates at least to the slave ships and the cultures of those whose bodies filled them, as Roberto González Echevarría notes in Cuban Fiestas (35). This musical tradition is bound to the sacred drums that continue to be used to invoke African spirits (Luis 5). Oral story-telling is central to the folktales that anthropologists Lydia Cabrera anthologized and Zora Neale Hurston fictionalized from the 1930s to the 1950s (Hoffman-Jeep 337), as well as to the sacred narratives on the spirits that Afro-Catholic believers still consult regarding their daily concerns. These faiths are medium- and possession-based, so a record of life under slavery or another moment in Latin American history can be found on the lips of the initiated. This syncretism is a key difference from the US abolition and even Civil Rights traditions, since most activists in these movements were more traditional Christians, and mostly devout and traditional Protestants.

The most evident link between the African diaspora in Latin America and the United States is the subgroup of Afro-Latinx. They have faced discrimination and negotiation both from white-dominant US culture and from their cultures of origin, particularly Cubans, Dominicans, and Puerto Ricans. Luis has defined this group as a unique US phenomenon, the result of homogenizing perceptions by US hegemony, and a counter-discourse ("Afro-Latino/a Literature and Identity" 34). Perhaps the most famous Afro-Latina musician is Afro-Cuban Celia Cruz, but Jesse Hoffnung-Garskoff traces the tradition to Afro-Puerto Rican Arturo Schomburg, the documenter of the Harlem Renaissance $(7,66)$. Schomberg was an antiracist activist alongside José Martí in Cuba, but he later decided to focus on creating Black history as a discipline (Hoffnung-Garskoff 70). Afro-Latino Piri Thomas portrays race and marginality in "Home Sweet Harlem" in Down These Mean Streets. Today, Dominican-American Junot Díaz muses on anti-Haitianism among Dominicans in his Pulitzer-Prize-winning The Brief, Wondrous Life of

Oscar Wao (2005). In all three cases, the ghettos of Metro-New York are a reality that is depicted but subverted-the characters are often criminal and always marginalized, but they are not ignorant or limited in their mobility-they look beyond the United States in search of identity, justice, and discovery. For these and other reasons, I see parallels in Fitz's inter-American literature and Luis's insistence that Latin American literature, and the subset of inter-American literature that most interests me, must include Latinx and Afro-Latinx literature of the United States. Luis compares US Latinx literature to the Latin American boom of the 1960s and claims it has set the "groundwork for becoming the literature of the twenty-first century" (Looking Out xiii). An understanding of Spanish, Portuguese, and French support the deepest understanding of these texts, especially those written in the colloquial, code-switching English of Afro-Latinxs.

Most of the African diaspora is in Latin America, and it has been there for more than a century longer than the United States. Few among us can deny that racial issues are constantly in the news regarding the African diaspora or that the topic is relevant to our daily lives in the Americas. While the study of comparative literature is being denigrated in the name of economics, African diaspora studies is as vital and central to universities' diversity missions as ever. They are also central to their globalization and cultural competency missions because of the international nature of the diaspora. UNESCO has declared the decade 2015-2024 to be the "Década del Afrodescendiente," a New Millennium term that attempts to unite the diaspora ("International"). Today African diaspora programs are continuing to broaden their reach, such as Harvard's Afro-Latin American Research Institute and Florida International University's joint program in Latin American and African diaspora studies. I encourage scholars and teachers to be children of the syncretic blacksmith Oggún: learn another language, incorporate African diaspora authors, characters, language, and cultural production into your work, and remember that, in myriad ways, Africa has made the Americas what they are today.

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# "Eparrei! Maleme pra ele, minha mãe!" 



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#### Abstract

Palavras chave: African diaspora/diáspora africana, Brazilian literature/literatura brasileira, Dias Gomes, inter-American literature/literatura interamericana, O pagador de promessas


Aquestão da diáspora africana e sua pouca visibilidade ou mesmo presença limitada no cânone literário pode ser lida por uma alegoria representada por Dias Gomes em $O$ pagador de promessas. Nessa consagrada peça teatral vertida no filme coroado com a Palma de Ouro de Cannes em 1962, o protagonista vê-se impedido de cumprir uma promessa de levar uma cruz ao altar de uma igreja de Santa Bárbara pelo fato de o padre considerar sua promessa-feita a Iansã em um terreiro de umbanda-uma heresia. A trama gira em torno das consequências da intransigência do padre em relação ao sincretismo do protagonista, Zé do Burro. A confusão "natural" na cabeça de Zé do Burro aponta para a fusão que se estabelece no funcionamento de um processo autêntico de constituição da diversidade brasileira (o sincretismo religioso é resultante e articulador da sobrevivência de práticas diversas, porém sem razão de serem auto-excludentes)-daí o espanto de todos os personagens, tipos, figurantes e representantes de variadas facetas da cultura brasileira em relação à intransigência do padre. Não é senão uma questão de tempo até que a promessa seja cumprida, porém o preço é a vida do protagonista, levado ao altar sobre a mesma cruz que carregara por muitas léguas desde o interior da Bahia até a capital, a cidade de Salvador. A alegoria da intransigência do padre revela seu movimento em direção contrária ao processo natural de fusão (forging) que vem se constituindo o que se conhece como cultura brasileira até os dias de hoje.

De maneira semelhante imaginamos que relegar-se a uma mínima fatia do cânone literário a contribuição da diáspora afro-americana (representada em sua totalidade por uma abrangente literatura afrodescendente nas Américas) representa um movimento contrário ao reconhecimento processo de formação da identidade do que se constitui hoje a literatura nas e das Américas. Em muito se perde ao não se considerar uma articulação do conjunto literário-possibilitada por estudos em literatura comparada, por exemplo-atravessado por tantos marcadores de identidade (como elementos culturais, históricos, sociais, econômicos etc.) de que comungam as Américas.

Como na referida obra de Gomes, é preciso articular-se um movimento que questione e repudie resistências persistentes que forçam um hiato, e não se dirijam a um processo de fusão ou comunhão de traços identificatórios na produção literária da diáspora afro-americana. Na obra de Gomes, foi a população, e não um gesto do líder religioso, o que levou a cabo o cumprimento da promessa do protagonista, legitimando o sincretismo em sua autenticidade; assim, imaginamos que não surgirá necessariamente um convite ao cânone como gesto de inclusão literária da diáspora afro-americana, senão seu caminho passo a passo como resultado da produção incisiva de autores, da multiplicação de leitores e da consequente elaboração de pesquisa que levem em conta os tantos aspectos interdisciplinares que criam a interseção inerente a essa diáspora.

Ao notar a dificuldade que enfrentará o protagonista para pagar sua promessa, uma das personagens, Minha Tia, baiana, vendedora de iguarias nos arredores da igreja, saúda e pede proteção de Iansã: "Eparrei! Maleme pra ele, minha mãe!" (Gomes 110). "Eparrei" e "Maleme" são termos de origem ioruba que significam, respectivamente, "olá" e "proteção". Sua fala aponta para a recepção que Zé do Burro recebe dos habitantes da capital baiana, daí a necessidade de ela pedir a bênção a Iansã. Minha Tia dá boas vindas (reconhecendo a presença e pedindo guarida) àquele que tenta trazer ao centro da igreja uma mensagem de comunhão entre celebrações religiosas. No entanto, as tempestades por que passará são previstas por Minha Mãe. Essa mesma invocação segue em paralelo com invocações religiosas a Santa Bárbara, protetora contra as tempestades. Na questão da diáspora africana, o reconhecimento e a salvaguarda de sua importância são vistos aqui também como imprescindíveis para a sua sobrevivência.

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# Response 2 to "The Place of the Forge: The African Diaspora, History, and Comparative Literature" 

# Disrupting Moments in World Language Education: Promising Changes 

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Keywords: African diaspora/diaspora africana, disrupting/disruptiva, intercultural/intercultural, interdisciplinary/interdisciplinario, learning paradigm/paradigma de aprendizaje

In his essay above, John Maddox is one of many scholars who promotes "the role of African Diaspora history in understanding particular works in world languages and comparative literature . . . because of its international, multilingual scope." I would argue that the inclusion of African diaspora history in these departments, although "disruptive" (meaning to throw into disorder the formal curriculum) is proving to be critical to the overall quality of these programs. Indeed, the rationale for incorporating and integrating discussions of this nature in our classrooms is tied to the intercultural and multilingual components of our field.

As the second decade of the twenty-first century moves forward and communication and learning technology accelerate-coupled with a growing immigrant population-language professionals find that they need to be more flexible and culturally responsive in their course content and delivery. Furthermore, while the study of learner attitudes, motivations, and beliefs continues, experts in course and curriculum design are witnessing what Randal Bass calls "disruptive moments in teaching" (1). According to Bass:

> Our understanding of learning has expanded at a rate that has far outpaced our conceptions of teaching. A growing appreciation for the porous boundaries between the classroom and life experience . . has created not only promising changes in learning but also disruptive moments in teaching. (1)

Bass continues, "formal curriculum is being pressured from two sides. Both of those pressures are reframing what we think of as the formal curriculum" (2).

With the recent shift from an instructional paradigm to a learning paradigm, many books and articles on the science of learning are available. Today, educators find themselves connecting what they now know about learning to instructional practices. Therefore, if our goal as world language professionals is to help students achieve linguistic and intercultural competence-two essential learning outcomes that both educators and employers endorse-we need to connect these outcomes with students' engagement in a planned sequence of high-impact practices.

In 2008, the National Survey of Student Engagement published a list of ten high-impact practices. According to the survey:

[^4]These practices include: learning communities; service learning; collaborative assignments and projects; capstone courses; diversity/global learning; common intellectual experiences; writing-intensive courses; undergraduate research; internships; and first-year seminars.

Kuh states, "these practices have high impact because they induce student behaviors that lead to meaningful learning gains" (13).

All of this brings us back to "the place of the forge." African studies intersects with many disciplines, world languages being one. The study of Spanish, French, and Portuguese, together with the literature, and colonial and post-colonial history of the countries where these are spoken, strengthens the bond between comparative literature, African studies, and languages. This "disruption" in the formal curriculum of these programs is having positive educational results. World language professionals do well to ask, "What do students need to know, and be able to do that will "enable them to both thrive and contribute in a fast-changing economy in ... global, societal, and often personal contexts?" (Kuh 2). I contend that if global competence is one of our desired student outcomes, our course material should include the reading and analysis of works by and about people of African descent, texts that illuminate the human condition and challenge the learner to explore the themes of identity and social injustice. Furthermore, our world language frameworks should involve teaching for social justice, as "Social justice challenges, confronts, and disrupts misconceptions, untruths, and stereotypes that lead to structural inequality based on race, social class, gender" (Nieto 2).

Kuh's list of important student behaviors induced by high-impact practices, includes "discovering relevance of learning through real-world application" (15). The authors of Words and Actions: Teaching Languages Through the Lens of Social Justice provide examples of "real-world application" of social justice education in the world language classroom (see Glynn, Wesely, and Wassell). They help us see how a framework that fosters the exploration of identity, real-life experiences, intercultural understanding, historical empathy, and action against injustice, has great impact on learner success. As a result, learners better understand themselves in relation to others, and acquire the needed intellectual tools to move into the position of advocate for justice.

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# Translation, Interpreting, and Language Studies: Confluence and Divergence 



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#### Abstract

Perspectives on the interplay of translation, interpreting, and language studies regularly position these related fields in various stages of tension. Renewed interest in translation and interpreting may lead to their incorporation in language programs in an effort to provide cross-cultural and translingual skills for graduates. Such curricular changes will result in several outcomes for these fields. First, formalized translation and interpreting programs will be established to prepare professional language service providers. Second, program graduates will be informed consumers of language services. Third, new offerings may serve as a vector for developing cross-cultural mediation and a method for further language development.


Keywords: interpreting/interpretación, Language for Specific Purposes (LSP)/lengua para fines específicos, pedagogy/pedagogía, translation/traducción

## Introduction

Translation, interpreting, and language learning share a long, interconnected history. The overlap of disciplinary research in the academy and the use of translation and interpreting in second language acquisition have waxed and waned as these fields developed. ${ }^{1}$ Translation, in particular, has been a part of the language learning classroom and served as the foundation of the aptly-named grammar-translation method. As recently as the 1940s, this formalistic approach to second language acquisition occupied a central role in classrooms. The ultimate objective of this method was not language acquisition, since little focus was placed on pronunciation or oral production of the language. Instead, the development of "faculty of logical thought" (Richardson 1983: 21) was often proffered as one of its merits (Chastain 1971; Richards and Rodgers 2014). As a contrastive instructional strategy, translation served largely as the means to achieve other learning objectives rather than being the end instructional goal.

With the subsequent shift in the mid-twentieth century to the natural and communicative approaches to language learning, translation and interpreting were largely dismissed from language classrooms (Howatt 2009). In tracing translation's role in language education, Colina (2002, 2003) notes the pervading perception of translation and interpreting as an inadequate teaching method in the language classroom. She hypothesizes that this position may be the result of underlying formalistic views of language despite formalistic teaching methodologies having already fallen out of favor. ${ }^{2}$ In a review of language teaching research, Ellis (2012) highlights translation's limited use in a number of language teaching methods. Laviosa (2014) also describes the shift away from translation as a taught skill or task to its use mainly as a comprehension check.

A resurgence of language for special purposes in the last few decades, however, has led to a closer examination of skills-based instruction and a growing interest in translation and interpreting. A 2007 Modern Language Association (MLA) report lists translation and interpreting as continuing priorities, in part because they are skills that form part of transcultural
competence. Carreres (2014) furthers this claim, noting "many individuals with no formal training in translation will have to carry out translation tasks in the course of their professional and/or personal lives" (126). Therefore, she argues that translation as a language-based skill is "one of the most authentic" (127) that can be taught in the language classroom.

Divergent perspectives on the relationships among translation, interpreting, and language studies demonstrate the breadth of these three fields. Predictions regarding their future nexus are necessarily tentative. The present essay is a forward-looking consideration of how translation and interpreting studies can co-exist with language studies and how their interaction may revive interest in language education and crosscultural mediation. The discussion is largely centered on the current US context.

## Development of the Disciplines

The 1940s marked the approximate turning point when translation was relegated to a lesser status in language acquisition. Translation and interpreting studies, however, did not languish in their absence from the language-learning classroom-instead both have flourished as fields unto themselves. James Holmes's (2004) map of translation studies illustrates the breadth of the field, which has arguably expanded since the map's earliest versions. Moreover, interpreting studies is no longer subsumed as a subdisciplinary division within Holmes's map. As Pöchhacker and Shlesinger (2002) describe in their introduction to The Interpreting Studies Reader-ostensibly one of the field's first encompassing collections-interpreting studies are similar to those of translation studies. Pöchhacker and Shlesinger affirm, however, that interpreting ought not to be classified as a medium-restricted form of translation. Despite this differentiation, the authors acknowledge the intrinsic relationship maintained between translation and interpreting studies.

Indeed, translation and interpreting studies have not been divorced entirely from language studies. Translation and interpreting competence models regularly situate language competence at their core or as a pre-requisite prior to subsequent skills acquisition (Colina and Angelelli 2016; Kiraly 2000). A number of course manuals and textbooks in translation and interpreting attest to the linguistic and cultural competences required of language professionals (e.g., Colina 2015; Gillies 2013; Washbourne 2010). Likewise, scholarly investigation in the fields has ties with a number of disciplines. Angelelli and Baer (2016) adopt a post-structuralist perspective on translation and interpreting research and present a broad range of conceptual frameworks in which scholarship is conducted. Contributors to their volume outline commonly adopted theoretical frameworks in translation and interpreting studies and trace their origins from related fields. For example, Angelelli (2016) examines research in bilingualism and multilingualism and the relationship held between approaches to these areas of investigation and translation and interpreting. As she notes, these concepts are central to the field despite their limited interaction to date. ${ }^{3}$

More recently, scholarly inquiry has returned to translation and interpreting as potential teaching methodologies in the classroom. Sometimes called "pedagogic translation," scholars in the field have begun to draw together research on second language acquisition, translation, interpreting, and language learning. Cook (2010) and Laviosa (2014) offer two book-length treatments on the topic that ground their suggestion to incorporate translation back into the classroom in theory and recent SLA research. Laviosa's (2014) monograph proposes a holistic translation-based pedagogy and hopes to stimulate dialogue on "the role of translation in the development of communicative, metalinguistic, and transcultural competences" (2). Significant work is still needed to investigate the role interpreting may play in language acquisition. Lee (2014) provides evidence of improved language proficiency through sight translation and consecutive interpreting exercises. Blasco Mayor (2014) adopts the opposite approach, and instead examines second language proficiency as a potential indicator of interpreting aptitude.

## Three Predictions

The evolving landscape of research on translation, interpreting, and language studies naturally leads to convergent areas of interest and inquiry. Each field brings its perspective to language, culture, and cross-cultural mediation. When considered as a whole, these three disciplines can mutually inform scholarship and practice. As noted previously, the 2007 MLA report squarely positions translation and interpreting as priorities for university language programs. This placement should not be taken as a vocationalization of higher education. On the contrary, the incorporation of translation and interpreting in educational contexts allows language departments to engage research on translation and interpreting and their role in authorship, power, history, and culture. ${ }^{4}$ These humanistic perspectives dovetail with pragmatic objectives to better equip graduates with crosscultural, translingual skillsets that will be of immediate use. Here, three possibilities for future confluence of these fields are explored. This consideration is undertaken with the explicit understanding that these scenarios are not mutually exclusive and may ebb and flow.

The first prediction is that the confluence of translation, interpreting, and language studies will lead to the creation and expansion of formalized translation and interpreting programs to prepare professional translators and interpreters. The Bureau of Labor Statistics projects growth at a "much faster than average" rate for jobs in translation and interpreting over the 2012-2022 period. Nevertheless, relatively few translation programs exist in the United States beyond the level of certificate programs. A similar situation can be described for interpreting programs. Matthews and Ardemagni (2013) explore the state of judicial interpreting programs in the United States and identify only a dozen programs nationwide at varying levels.

The considerable growth of job prospects for graduates of translation and interpreting programs coupled with the present dearth of academic programs serves as compelling evidence for language programs to diversify their offerings. As Matthews and Ardemagni (2013) attest: "Colleges and universities in the United States are now beginning to play a significant role in the education of judicial interpreters, but there is an opportunity for academia to demonstrate genuine leadership in the field" (91). This sentiment is equally applicable to other types of interpreting and to written translation. Baer and Koby (2003) and Krawutschke (2008), as well as several of the contributors to their edited collections, describe some of the challenges related to translation and interpreting being taught in the university context. They offer practical solutions and reflect on the current state of translation and interpreting pedagogy in language programs. If, however, we consider the divergence of scholarship in translation and interpreting from language studies, it is clear that caution should be exercised in developing programs without the requisite expertise in the area. Rather than relying on experts in related disciplines, programs ought to consider complementing their current faculties with translation and interpreting scholars. ${ }^{5}$ In doing so, skills and competences required of professional translators and interpreters can be articulated with current course offerings (see, for example, Colina (2002, 2015), Gillies (2013), Kiraly (2000), and Washbourne (2010) for more complete descriptions of these competences). Moreover, scholarly inquiry will diversify the departmental research profile.

The development of translation and interpreting programs is imperative now and in the foreseeable future to prepare professional language service providers. These programs can be stand-alone academic units or housed within language programs. While there are benefits and drawbacks to each approach, the development of these programs within existing academic units may be more feasible. Increased visibility of translation and interpreting within language programs provides students with additional career path options and dovetails with curriculum in language for special purposes.

The second prediction is that translation and interpreting will be integrated into current curricula to help prepare well-informed consumers of language services. While full-fledged
translation and interpreting programs may not be immediately possible, courses in both fields allow students to explore the challenges inherent in professional multilingual communication. As noted previously, many graduates will undertake translation and interpreting in non-professional contexts (Carreres 2014: 126). In providing the fundamentals of these two tasks, language programs will position students to be better suited to perform these tasks in certain contexts. Moreover, graduates will be able to recognize the necessary skillsets required, to understand how to work with professional translators and interpreters, and to identify contexts in which their use is appropriate.

Learning objectives related to translation and interpreting are particularly salient in the US context in light of results from a 2015 Instituto Cervantes report. Currently, the United States is estimated to have the second largest Spanish-speaking population of any country; only Mexico has more hispanophones. If predictions hold true and by 2050 the United States is home to more Spanish speakers than any other country, graduates of language programs most assuredly will need a foundation in both translation and interpreting.

The third prediction is that the confluence of translation, interpreting, and language studies will foster improved cross-cultural awareness and mediation. The multi-faceted and interdisciplinary nature of translation and interpreting is self-evident at the level of the wordface. However, both disciplines are also concerned with the embedding of communication in a cultural and situational context. Therefore, coursework in translation and interpreting will stimulate additional reflection in the classroom in a way that extends language to broader considerations such as the intersections of culture, politics, and religion. This type of investigation can be integrated into the language classroom, particularly if it is contextualized as a means of multilingual communication.

## Conclusion

Translation and interpreting studies are established fields of investigation in their own right, but they ought not to be considered in opposition to the goals of language studies. In fact, both fields are well suited for inclusion within language departments since they share common interests in language, communication, and culture. Translation and interpreting need to be reconsidered as means to enrich language learning, in terms of both acquisition and application.

Three ideas are offered here as predictions for the future direction of the collaboration of these three fields. First, universities should reflect on current course offerings and should open a space for dialogue and incorporation of translation and interpreting. Both scholarly inquiry and teaching in these areas will bolster curricula as programs are developed and expanded. Second, students will be better equipped to engage translation and interpreting in a number of contexts thanks to the inclusion of translation and interpreting in language classrooms. While some graduates will work as professional translators or interpreters, all students will recognize the complex task of multilingual communication and become informed consumers of language services. The confluence of translation, interpreting, and language studies will reinforce the importance of linguistic mediation that is culturally sensitive and appropriate. Finally, translation and interpreting will be reconsidered as an important means to enrich language learning by embedding it in a broader cultural and professional context. The prospects for cross-fertilization and mutual support are immense. The three predictions offered here outline broad opportunities for the future development of these fields.

## NOTES

[^5]${ }^{2}$ Incidentally, Colina (2002) also explains that this dismissive attitude is at times shared by translation and interpreting trainers who do not see their classrooms as a place to learn a language. Instead, the prevailing wisdom of trainers is that bilingual competence ought to be assumed as a prerequisite to entrance into translation and interpreting programs.
${ }^{3}$ An emerging and related area of research, translanguaging, has gained traction in its engagement with translation studies. Perhaps notable evidence of this burgeoning field of investigation is the creation of a new journal, Translation and Translanguaging in Multilingual Contexts, published by John Benjamins. For an overview of translanguaging research, see Beres (2015) in its inaugural issue, or García and Wei (2014).
${ }^{4}$ Translation and interpreting studies are truly interdisciplinary and therefore these constructs only serve as examples. See Angelelli and Baer (2016), Baker and Saldanha (2009), Chan (2014), Mellinger and Hanson (2017), Pöchhacker (2015), and Saldanha and O'Brien (2013) for extensive treatment of the various research questions and methodologies addressed in both fields.
${ }^{5}$ A cursory overview of current job listings in Spanish departments suggests that translation and interpreting are becoming an increasing priority. The lament of lack of terminal degrees in the area may begin to wane as universities establish doctoral level programs in translation, such as the one founded in 2007 at Kent State University.

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# On Translation's Place in Language Teaching and Learning and in University Language Programs 

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Keywords: interpreting/interpretación, language learning/aprendizaje de lenguas, language teaching/ enseñanza de lenguas, translation/traducción, translation studies/estudios de traducción

Since translation-which here includes both written and spoken modes-has often been considered incompatible with communicative language teaching and learning, translation studies must carefully find its place in university language programs. Translation's unfortunate reputation as a means for second language (L2) acquisition stems from some of its earliest pedagogical implementations, which, particularly in the case of younger learners, consisted of:

> sentences for translation ... especially constructed to illustrate particular points of grammar and to ensure graded progression. This focus on isolated sentences, however well intended, drew the ire of proponents of so-called 'Natural' methods of language learning and teaching, steeped as many of them were, in the new discipline of psychology with its emphasis on connectivity and association (Pym, Malmkjær, and Gutiérrez-Colón 2013: 12)

The activity of translating unconnected sentences was contrary to this emphasis and, hence, did not permit natural conversation. Moreover, the grammar lessons contained in grammartranslation course books focused more on word classes than on the syntactic relationships between them, thus encouraging word-for-word translation and further disconnection and disassociation (Pym, Malmkjær, and Gutiérrez-Colón 2013: 12). ${ }^{1}$ What was missing was research exploring "the benefits of creative and communicative ways of making translation a useful and practical learning activity" (Pym, Malmkjær, and Gutiérrez-Colón 2013: 16). ${ }^{2}$ Translation activities may vary greatly (from written to spoken or audiovisual or from scaffolding in initial L2 learning to complex tasks designed to build several skills at advanced levels), but, "Translation should not be proposed as a stand-alone teaching method in itself" (Pym, Malmkjær, and Gutiérrez-Colón 2013: 139). Thanks to increasing recognition of translation studies, more research is currently being carried out on how translation may complement L2 teaching and learning. More (refined) research should help elucidate (more clearly) the different ways translation may specifically be combined with general L2 approaches to produce optimal effects.

University language programs undertaking curricular programming in translation should carefully weigh student needs, whether the goal is to produce graduates who will indeed pursue career paths in translation or whether it is only to equip L2 graduates with complementary translation skills and knowledge. Either way, students who are placed in translation classes prematurely, when L2 skills are underdeveloped, may depend (too) heavily on these courses for language acquisition. These students would likely be better placed in a communicative or immersion environment where they might more adequately build these skills. One way active

L2 acquisition may, to a certain extent, be built into a translation course is by creating a CLIL (content and language integrated learning) or immersion setting. However, there is currently no consensus on whether this is a best-practice translation teaching method, as practices seem to vary depending on the country, institution, or instructor. Washbourne (2010), for example, is of the opinion that "Striving for an 'immersion' environment in a translation class sends the message that language acquisition is the primary goal, which it is not" (11). Regardless of when or how programs introduce translation, Hague (2013) aptly reminds us that:
successful translation programs do not limit their requirements to translation courses. Instead, they also require that students take language, literature, and culture classes. The expectation is that these courses will help students develop the linguistic and cultural sub-competencies necessary for translation competence. In so doing, students should also gain the criticalthinking skills and experiential learning promoted in modern views of liberal education. (28)

Even if students do not go on to become professional translators, there is value to be found in translation studies. Not only may students become well-informed translation consumers, knowledgeable about multilingual and multicultural communication needs and challenges, they may also cultivate a broad humanistic "appreciation of the craft and contributions of translation to the world in which they live" (Doyle 1991: 19).

## NOTES

${ }^{1}$ See Koike and Klee (2013:4-6) for a user-friendly brief history of the grammar-translation method.
${ }^{2}$ Here it should be noted that "Translation Studies established itself as an interdiscipline partly by turning its back on the use of translation in language learning, thereby leaving an open road where the ideologies of Communicative Language Teaching could belittle translation or shun it entirely" (Pym 2015).

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# Fertilización recíproca de los estudios de traducción e interpretación y los estudios de lengua: Innovación metodológica 



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Palabras clave: innovation/innovación, interpreting/interpretación, methodological translation/traducción metodológica, teaching methodologies/metodologías de la enseñanza

## Introducción

Desde la antigüedad el campo de la traducción e interpretación ha mantenido una estrecha relación con los Estudios de Lengua y esta relación se ha reflejado en la configuración de la disciplina. En concreto, a partir de la década de 1950, destaca la influencia de teorías del campo de la lingüística y los estudios culturales. Los avances de dichas disciplinas han ido fertilizando y afianzando el rigor teórico y metodológico de los estudios de traducción e interpretación hasta la actualidad. Dicho rigor teórico y metodológico ha dado lugar en la última década a innovaciones metodológicas que fomentan el mutuo enriquecimiento de estas tres ramas en los departamentos de lenguas, en concreto, en el contexto universitario estadounidense. Por tanto, en esta réplica, pretendemos abordar y contribuir al diálogo sobre la confluencia, según palabras del autor, o coexistencia de disciplinas como garante de innovación metodológica tanto en la docencia como en la investigación. A este respecto, en la medida de lo posible, profundizaremos en las tres predicciones que ha presentado Mellinger (2017).

## Innovación metodológica

En cuanto al análisis del producto como objeto de estudio, la innovación se ha cifrado en el acercamiento descriptivo de Toury (1995), la sociología de la traducción (Wolf y Fukari 2007) y la traducción cultural (Pym 2010), que se han consolidado como los marcos teóricos por excelencia. A su vez, la metodología más prolífica en el estudio del producto se centra en los estudios de traducción basados en corpus bilingües (Kruger, Wallmach, y Munday 2011) por su versatilidad metodológica.

El ímpetu innovador que se observa en los estudios del producto, se constata igualmente en las investigaciones centradas en el proceso de la traducción. Estas investigaciones, iniciadas a partir de estudios de lengua, han sido particularmente innovadoras por su acercamiento marcadamente interdisciplinario. En concreto, la innovación apunta a nuevos métodos de investigación, tanto cuantitativos como cualitativos, y nuevos diseños empíricos, entre los que la triangulación de métodos emerge como predominante; por ejemplo, la combinación de grabaciones de pantalla de computadora, teclado y ratón con técnicas de seguimiento de ojos. Estos nuevos métodos de recogida de datos hacen posibles análisis minuciosos del comportamiento traductológico (Shreve y Angelone 2010: 6). Dada la influencia de la tecnología en las industrias de la lengua, tanto los estudios de traducción automática como los de posedición se
han convertido en áreas fecundas que prometen nuevos modelos de traducción (Koehn 2010) en los que se comparan la calidad del proceso traductológico automático y humano. Dicha innovación metodológica es el ejemplo más ilustrativo de evolución disciplinaria en la última década de los estudios de traducción e interpretación.

La innovación metodológica en la didáctica se ha alimentado por ende de la innovación metodológica en las investigaciones del proceso y de ahí el impacto de sus aplicaciones didácticas tanto en metodología de la enseñanza como en el refinamiento de programas de formación del traductor. Dada la incorporación de la interdisciplinaridad también en la didáctica, los Estudios de Traducción, y en menor medida los de Interpretación, han evidenciado la incorporación de nuevas metodologías de la enseñanza que han complementado al método comunicativo en las clases de idiomas. Metodologías de enseñanza tales como las que se centran en el enfoque en proyectos (Li, Zhang, y He 2015) y la enseñanza por tareas (Washbourne 2009) han adquirido una presencia considerable en el aula de traducción e interpretación. A su vez, estas nuevas metodologías han contribuido nuevas formas de evaluación de competencias multidimensionales, lo cual permite lograr los objetivos sugeridos por el autor en la tercera predicción del artículo original.

Asimismo, la innovación metodológica en la didáctica aborda la primera predicción del autor. La innovación metodológica en la docencia no solo contribuye a la innovación curricular, ya que sirve de plataforma dinámica y flexible para la oferta de nuevas asignaturas interdisciplinarias, sino que vigoriza la misión del departamento a diversificar el catálogo. Entre la oferta didáctica que ha adquirido relevancia destacan las materias con énfasis en las tecnologías de la traducción, la gestión de proyectos, la localización de programas informáticos y la traducción audiovisual. Por ende, las nuevas metodologías enfatizan la dimensión instrumental y práctica de la lengua y, por tanto, el estudiantado se beneficia de la adquisición de competencias multidimensionales que facilitan en buena medida la transición al mundo laboral.

## Conclusión

La coexistencia de los estudios de traducción e interpretación y de lengua es necesaria para garantizar una continua evolución de innovación metodológica en la investigación y en la didáctica. En esta réplica hemos abordado y concretado aquellos aspectos innovadores que hoy caracterizan a los estudios de traducción y que además complementan los estudios de lengua en la creación de un ente interdisciplinario. A modo de reflexión final, invitamos a los departamentos de lenguas a explorar las opciones de innovación metodológica abordadas con el objetivo de enriquecer la programación curricular, ante todo con el fin común de lograr la excelencia investigadora y académica en el ámbito interdisciplinario.

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# The World Is Not Flat, So Why Are Our Textbooks? 



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#### Abstract

We review the evolution of the modern language textbook, exploring its function in the curriculum of Spanish classes. In light of the advantages offered by new technological resources, we propose that the paper-based textbook has outlived its usefulness in today's multidimensional world, both logistically and pedagogically. To demonstrate, we explore three aspects of the paperless classroom: a transformed focus, a design that makes learning visible, and digital implementation. Specific examples are from two projects for introductory and intermediate Spanish.


Keywords: communicative language teaching/enseñanza de lenguas enfocada en la comunicación, Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)/aprendizaje de lenguas por medio de las computadoras, curriculum/ plan de estudios, digital tools/herramientas digitales, multiliteracies, textbooks/libros de texto

## 1. Introduction

In this essay we explore the evolution of the role of language textbooks in Spanish curricula, and summarize challenges presented by traditional iterations of the textbook in contemporary approaches to second language (L2) teaching. ${ }^{1}$ In light of the advantages offered by new technological resources, we propose that the paper-based textbook has outlived its usefulness in today's multi-dimensional world, both logistically and pedagogically. To demonstrate, we explore three aspects of the paperless classroom: the transformed focus of materials, a design that makes learning visible, and digital implementation of the materials.

## 2. Historical Perspective on Language Textbooks

Although instructors frequently point out textbooks' limitations, we continue to rely on them to give our language courses shape and direction (e.g., Lord 2014). Whether this is because of a lack of time on the instructor's part, the need for uniformity in multi-section courses, or an implicit trust that the textbook author(s) know(s) best, the fact is that textbooks often play a deterministic role in shaping the program as a whole (e.g., Richards 2001), and we rely on our text to be the voice that "states curricular goals, lays out material to be taught, and suggests ways of teaching it" (Byrnes 1998: 271). Wiggins and McTighe $(1998,2008)$ have noted that instructors often begin with the textbook to structure courses rather than establishing learning outcomes and then choosing learning materials to achieve these outcomes.

In this vein, language textbooks themselves are responsible for a "coverage model" (Chaffee 1992) approach to our curricula, in which our courses are designed to cover all grammar points we can think of. The Spanish textbook market itself, dominated by only a handful of large
publishers, is partially to blame for this situation, since textbooks must appeal to a broad audience and each text strives to be comparable in coverage to other leading texts (Allen and Paesani 2010; Bragger and Rice 2000; Blyth and Davis 2013; VanPatten 2015). Yet instructors are often resistant to innovation in our texts, even while simultaneously espousing reformed approaches to teaching. In fact, although most researchers and instructors advocate a proficiency-oriented, task-based approach, research confirms that we continue to design our classes around our texts (Bragger and Rice 2000; Fernández 2011; Rubio, Passey, and Campbell 2004) rather than demand that second language acquisition (SLA) theory and research in applied linguistics inform our course materials. Allen and Paesani (2010) note that current FL textbooks, by tacitly endorsing this grammar coverage approach, lack meaningful contexts, relying instead on "form-focused, mechanical exercises and a lack of engaging content" (218), even in texts that claim to be highly "communicative."

We propose not that we abandon any reliance on textbook programs, but rather that Spanish texts must reinvent themselves to serve the needs of the real-world Spanish classroom; instructors, publishers and students are ready to embrace such modern materials. The time has come for the next generation of language teaching materials.

## 3. The Future of Language Teaching Materials

Language teaching materials of the future must provide instructors with the tools they need to modify their curricula. The growing criticisms of communicative approaches (Allen and Paesani 2010; Blythe and Davis 2007; Bragger and Rice 2000; Byrnes 1998; Lord and IsabelliGarcía 2014; Meyer 2009; Rossomondo 2012) signal the field's readiness for change. Prompted by the MLA's (2007) call for "new structures for a changed world," we have seen increasing interest in teaching materials that are more contextualized, more relevant, and more likely to speak to students' "intellectual" as well as "linguistic" development (Meyer 2009: 86). We need an approach to teaching that connects language and content across all levels of instruction, allowing even beginning language learners to engage in critical analysis.

Although such approaches should continue to focus on oral/aural communication (especially given the unique role of Spanish as a second language in the United States), we must supplement the transactional and self-referential nature of communicative approaches to foster the ability to operate between languages and cultures (Geisler et al. 2007). To do this, the next generation of teaching materials encourages the critical analysis of texts of all kinds, and embraces the tenets of a multiliteracies model (e.g., Paesani, Allen, and Dupuy 2014; Kern, 2000; New London Group 1996; Swaffar and Arens 2005). ${ }^{2}$ Note that here we use 'text' in its broadest sense, from written to aural, digital to print, lyrical to prose.

Literacy-oriented frameworks, while privileging the development of reading and writing, are not limited to a skills-based approach. Instead, as Warner (2011) explains, this framework "places renewed emphasis on interpretation and critical awareness in language study, but it also maintains language use as an important objective of language study" (10). They encourage learners to engage with texts by pushing beyond decoding what is being said to begin analyzing how and why language is used in different contexts. Despite emerging evidence to the contrary (Allen and Paesani 2010; Maxim 2006), many Language Program Directors (LPDs) fear that such approaches are impractical in foundational-level courses (Rossomondo 2012). We argue instead that from the earliest stages, learners can and should be encouraged to analyze not just linguistic information but other (con)textual information of language, such as images, metaphor and strategies, referred to by Kramsch (2006) as the development of symbolic competence, or by Danesi (2000) as metaphoric competence. This in turn helps learners appreciate the multiple interpretations of any text and recognize the co-constructive relationship between language and ideology. They can be encouraged to think more deeply, to question their assumptions, and to
use language creatively while drawing on these linguistic models for various purposes. If our end goal is a learner who is able to actively participate in our multilingual and multicultural world, this goal should drive our curricula from the beginning.

In our opinion, a new approach to the "textbook" that encompasses all of its many facets is necessary to effectively incorporate the contributions of scholarship in SLA, applied linguistics, and literary studies. The next generation of materials, by capitalizing on digital delivery, offers a new kind of text. As outlined by Garrett (2009), Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) has evolved to include authentic materials, tutorials, and communication. In conjunction, these developments have the potential to inform the design of self-contained digital learning platforms to offer meaningful content, structuring practice, and purposeful negotiation of ideas and identities among a community of learners.

The following section explores three technology-enabled design features that the next generation of Spanish instructional materials incorporates. We supplement that discussion with examples from existing and in-development digital projects to extrapolate from theory to practice. The first is a commercial product in development for introductory Spanish language courses; the second is Acceso (http://acceso.ku.edu), an open educational resource for intermediate-level Spanish that is collaboratively developed and maintained at the University of Kansas. ${ }^{3}$

## 4. Visionary Materials

We divide this discussion into the three primary principles that guide the next generation of teaching materials: transformed focus, design that makes learning visible, and digital implementation.

### 4.1 Transformed Focus

As we have discussed, the focus of these materials must move beyond the traditional grammar-based approach and towards a focus on textual context. Grammar and vocabulary should be covered if and when necessary as determined by the learning process, so that learning becomes truly contextualized for both students and instructors. A simultaneous emphasis on skill and strategy development is essential as learners build their comprehension and interpretation of the texts. These texts are the bases for the guided critical cultural exploration that engage learners. In this respect, we follow Meyer's (2009) assertion that "ideas and concepts should anchor students' intellectual and linguistic trajectories in the college-level foreign language curriculum at all levels of instruction," although we simultaneously recognize the inherent challenge in developing "students' thinking abilities at their intellectual levels while developing their linguistic skills in the target language, which are at a much lower level" (86). Nonetheless, by framing "the textual within the communicative" (Allen and Paesani 2010: 134), these materials encourage learners to engage with the text to interpret language use, to participate in critical cultural inquiry through reflection on multiple meanings and perspectives, and to draw on the text to develop linguistic repertoires for expressing emerging identities as participants in Spanish-language communities.

At the earliest levels of instruction, learners do this in the introductory digital learning environment (DLE). For example, the texts in focus are interactive social media profile pages-a genre that is familiar to students and provides contextualized occasions for Spanish language usage. To interact with this content, students must begin to grapple with the dual copulatives (ser and estar); high-frequency vocabulary such as numbers, personal identifiers, descriptive adjectives; and the concept of agreement (noun/verb; noun/adjective). They also explore patterns of social media use in countries where Spanish is spoken (including the United States) and how we present ourselves in this mode. In this way the texts themselves drive the engagement of
relevant grammar, vocabulary, and strategies, and contextualize content learning and cultural comparisons.

At the intermediate level, learners are capable of engaging progressively more complex texts and topics. Students using Acceso work with an excerpt from Manolito Gafotas (Lindo 1994), a popular series of children's novels in Spain. The text is a humorous narration of Manolito's adventures at a public swimming pool that occasions the exploration of past tense aspectual distinctions (preterite and imperfect use) and the consideration of the culturally bound aspects of humor. While this excerpt could be included in a paper textbook, the most useful aspects could not be: interactive links to relevant cultural information, glosses with images and explanations, comprehension checks with automatic feedback to constrain and guide the learners' reading, and digital audio files of naturally-paced and slowed-down readings of the excerpt by a native speaker from the actual neighborhood.

### 4.2 Visible Learning

The second design feature requires that learning be visible to both learners and instructors. Materials should be developed by following the basic tenets of backward design (e.g., Wiggins and McTighe 1998, 2008), which are to decide what objectives are desired at the outcome, and then determine what tools and skills learners will need to get there. The outcomes that learners achieve need to move beyond mastery of discrete grammar points in isolation and focus on the completion of tasks that combine contextualized language and communication to close the assessment loop. To demonstrate learning in the first introductory module, students are guided in the creation of their own social media profile pages. This profile serves as the jumping-off point for participation in the social platform where they continue to post their products and comment on each others' work throughout the remainder of the program. In much the same way, Acceso structures intermediate-level students' collaboration as they create alternative endings for Manolito's adventure at the pool by drawing on their emerging abilities to employ the preterite and imperfect, new vocabulary, and analyses of culturally-bound approaches to humor.

In an ideal world, learners will be responsible for mastery of the defined objectives, but should be allowed to achieve these through a variety of means. For example, students who have previously studied Spanish or have had exposure at home may not need dozens of activities for every concept but only a review, while less experienced learners might need considerable structured practice processing and producing before moving on to integrate structures for more complex communicative purposes. We know that all learners do not need to progress through the same instructional path at the same speed, so we require only that they demonstrate mastery by completing a carefully designed task that synthesizes the objectives set forth. In this way, practice becomes a means to an end rather than an end in and of itself. Inherent in both digital projects are the imperatives that students be aware of their own learning, and that instructors be provided with evidence of this learning in order to provide meaningful feedback to guide their students' development.

### 4.3 Digital Implementation

The final element of a successful instructional program is its implementation. Digital delivery offers benefits not only in terms of content and interaction with this content, but also in terms of helping students develop digital literacies. Digital delivery does not mean print materials that have been adapted for online consumption, such as the typical e-text that now accompanies most printed texts. We are referring instead to native digital materials, developed from the ground up for digital presentation and use. Both of the programs referenced in this section were conceived of as digital from the outset.

Our students are accustomed to accessing information digitally and to employing technology to contribute to a collaborative culture of social media, so our materials must provide them the opportunity to further develop these skills in an academic context that promotes critical thinking. As Ganley and Sawhill (2007) have argued, we must work to promote not just the development of the "traditional literacies of critical reading, thinking and communication," but also to foster the development of the "emerging literacies of collaboration, online communication and multimedia navigation" (5).

The social media component of the DLE for introductory Spanish allows students to collaboratively realize tasks in Spanish and share and comment on products that they create. Learning in Acceso is supported through a series of individual and collaborative blog assignments that structure students' online interactions with the content and each other in Spanish. ${ }^{4}$ Another component of the first-year program structures critical exploration of digital resources (which are developed around thematic topics, mindful of the learners' limited experience with Spanish and housed in a closed environment): after completing an introductory reading on social media use in the Spanish-speaking world, students are directed to explore how this manifests itself in individual countries by searching for and accessing up-to-date information that is housed in a "virtual globe" repository. They then report back what they learn and work with their classmates to construct a more complete understanding of the variety of social realities that share Spanish as a common language. Acceso, which is entirely Web-based and open, pushes the more advanced learners to conduct similar exploration outside of a protected environment. Students access authentic materials available on the Web and evaluate the legitimacy and bias of these sources before deciding what to bring back to their collaborative learning teams. Realizing these types of activities allows students to develop digital literacy skills that serve them in future Spanish classes, as well as in other disciplines.

Finally, digitally designed and delivered materials can solve the perennial problem of the artificial division between classroom, homework, and testing. We focus instead on how we present material, how students practice and engage with this material, and how their learning of the material is assessed. In both programs described here, learners' initial contact with the material takes place outside of class, as learners refine receptive and productive language use through automatically corrected closed-ended activities and instructor-graded open activities that progress from the sentence to the discourse level. Because this preparatory work is stored digitally, instructors are able to identify gaps in understanding and areas for further explanation before choosing class activities. Class time, whether virtual or in person, is reserved for meaningful student-to-student or student-to-instructor interactions. Following backward design principles, assessments are no longer a surprise to learners, but rather the goal towards which they have been working throughout the unit. Digital assessment tasks are the logical conclusions of each unit.

## 5. Conclusion

By incorporating these principles, the next generation of Spanish teaching materials will offer learners and instructors a much-needed digital transformation for today's real-world language classes. Regardless of which particular project or product one uses, it is imperative that both publishers and educators rethink their use of materials to better fit the needs of our students in a rapidly changing landscape, with an emphasis on cohesiveness, cultural relevance, and the evolving (digital) epistemologies of college-age learners. Despite the current dearth of available texts fitting this description, we hope that the materials described in this essay can stimulate similarly principled projects in the near future, in order to offer learners and instructors the tools needed to transform not just what we teach, but how we teach it. Rethinking the content, design, and implementation of our Spanish language instructional materials promises to create a learning environment better suited for a translingual and transcultural world.

## NOTES


#### Abstract

${ }^{1}$ The authors are the developers of the materials described in this essay (Rossomondo created Acceso, and Lord and Rossomondo are co-authoring the in-development digital text). They share the same vision for the future of Spanish language instruction and materials development, and both contributed equally to the essay. ${ }^{2}$ The reader is referred to Kern (2000; see chapter 3) and Allen, Paesani, and Dupuy (2014) for a thorough discussion of this approach and the considerations for implementing it in the classroom. ${ }^{3}$ See Rossomondo (2012) for a description and examples of the Acceso project. ${ }^{4}$ These models follow a social constructivist approach (c.f., Vygotsky 1962, 1980) to structuring formal language study by exploiting the community of learners that forms our classes.


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Response to "The World is Not Flat, So Why are Our Textbooks?"

## The Next Course: The Slow Textbook



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Keywords: authorship/autoría, collaboration/colaboración, curriculum/currículo, textbooks/libros de texto, Slow/lento

"The World is Not Flat, So Why are Our Textbooks?" reflects the tension of looking forward and looking back that both underlies and impedes progress in curriculum design. While it is indisputable that "the time has come for the next generation of language teaching materials" (Rossomondo and Lord 252), as Bill VanPatten and others have noted, innovation in the world of textbook design moves at a pace that can best be described as "glacial." In addition to the ideas mentioned in the accompanying article, one further way to transform the focus, design, and medium of "flat textbooks" is, ironically, for instructors to just slow down by adopting the principles of the Slow Movement and authoring "well-rounded" digital teaching materials either individually or, ideally, by teaming up with their language departments.

The Slow Movement is about achieving balance in life by eschewing modernity's "cult of speed" with its inevitable shortcuts of quality, thought, and empathy for under-represented groups. Slow embraces local, seasonal, organic, and sustainable practices for a life that privileges quality over quantity. Carlo Petrini's Slow Food Movement arose, in part, as a reaction to globalization and situations in which multinational capitalist ventures (embodied by the American fast food "restaurant") impose foreign definitions of time, relevance, and productivity on countries with deep cultural traditions. Such situations create unwelcomed outcomes in the commercial, cultural, and public health spheres of economically marginalized individuals. As recent debates about GMOs have shown, corporations make decisions at a distance from consumers and clearly have competing sets of interests.

Fast culture manifests itself in many areas of university life, especially, for our purposes, in the co-dependent relationship between language instructors and "Super-Sized" corporate textbook programs. (In a provocative quip, VanPatten (2015) bemoans the possibility that many university language instructors may in reality be nothing more than "skilled as textbook users" [7]). The uniformity, sequencing, and scaffolding that textbooks provide to large, lower-level language programs staffed by novice TAs has its place, but do we really want to train university instructors with teaching materials shaped by editorial teams at publishing houses? We are all familiar with the shortcomings of mainstream texts which, despite the good intentions of their authors and editors, are necessarily constrained by formatting, budget, copyright, design, and market pressures that instructors or graduate programs working together outside the parameters of profit simply do not have.

When individuals write their own Spanish programs, the resulting materials can be tailored to their local audience and academic calendar. Collaboration between "language experts" and colleagues (particularly native speakers) will strengthen and enrich instructional approaches and deepen cultural activities. Furthermore, when instructors share the burden of quality control over what they teach, decisions over relevant contexts, scope, and sequencing can be made for purely pedagogical, rather than market-based reasons. Teachers, after all, understand the needs of their students better than sales reps or focus groups. Self-authored slow-textbooks can also reflect the heritage and realities of local (rather than imagined) Hispanic communities and thus facilitate opportunities for outreach and service. Sustainable, digital materials can contain innumerable images and texts organic to a department's study away options and thus help feed a program's upper level offerings and major. Finally, these new "books" can truly be seasonal by focusing on holidays in context while helping keep student costs low, strengthening language departments, and improving communication with local Hispanic communities.

In their 2016 book The Slow Professor, Maggie Berg and Barbara Seeber argue that "adopting the principles of Slow into our professional practice is an effective way to alleviate work stress, preserve humanistic education, and resist the corporate university" (ix). As Martha Nussbaum and others have proven, motives of profit change the fundamental democratic nature of higher education. Slow-textbooks, on the other hand, send a strong message of self-reliance, lifelong learning, and a healthy skepticism of the influence of corporations to students that may never experience such lessons again after graduation.

Local, seasonal, sustainable, non-corporate, and organic to an institution: these five visionary lessons from the Slow Movement can help transform the future of teaching Spanish in the United States.

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# The Future of K-12 Teacher Education: Spanish and Portuguese 



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#### Abstract

US teacher education has been scrutinized for years. In this essay, the author discusses the four major questions that have driven educational reform. Afterward, a historical account of teacher education focusing on teacher certification, teacher testing, and the teaching of modern languages is presented. An international perspective is added by highlighting successful practices in Finland. The voices of several leaders in the field are also presented to offer readers insight into the future of language teacher education. The article concludes with proposals about future directions for language teacher education with particular attention given to the teaching of Spanish and Portuguese.


Keywords: advocacy/apoyo, education reform/reforma educativa Portuguese/portugués, Spanish/español, teacher education/formación docente

## Introduction

Teacher education has been under siege for decades, and teachers in the United States are in reformers' crosshairs more than ever these days (Cochran-Smith 2000). Writing for Forbes, Leef (2013) reported that many students leave high school with dismal abilities in crucial areas (e.g., math, reading) because "many of their teachers are not very good themselves" (1). Seen historically as an easy target for critics who are unconcerned about what those inside the profession think (Labaree 2004), our nation's leaders promote the notion that "many, if not most of the nation's 1,450 schools, colleges, and departments of education, are doing a mediocre job of preparing teachers for the realities of the twenty-first-century classroom" (Duncan 2010: 1).

The purpose of this essay is to discuss the future of $\mathrm{K}-12$ teacher education with respect to Spanish and Portuguese. The paper begins by contextualizing the state of affairs in terms of the questions that have driven educational reform over the past 60 years before briefly discussing the history of teacher education in the United States. An international perspective is offered regarding teacher education in Finland, a country whose educational system has drawn great attention since the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. The report "PISA 2012 Results" stated that Finnish children ranked first among students in 64 countries and economies in 2009. The essay concludes with insight from experts in the field and the author concerning the future direction of $\mathrm{K}-12$ teacher education in the next 30 years.

## Four Questions that Drive Reform

According to Cochran-Smith (2000), the history of teacher education reform in the United States over the past 60 years can be documented in terms of four major driving questions in terms of teacher attributes, effectiveness, knowledge, and outcomes. The political climate shaped the order in which these questions emerged, the degree and kind of public attention to K-12
education, the supply of and demand for teachers, state and federal policies regarding funding, and even perceptions of teacher education as a profession.

## Attributes

During the early 1950s through the 1960s, the Attributes question asked about the qualities and characteristics of prospective teachers, good teachers, and teacher education programs at the time when President Eisenhower noted a severe shortage of language teachers (Swanson 2012: 78). Researchers explored the personal characteristics of teachers and those that prepared them, such as a pleasant voice free of a pronounced foreign accent and good diction based on accepted standards of usage (Los Angeles City Schools 1963).

## Effectiveness

Beginning in the late 1960s through the mid-1980s, a change of focus emerged. The notion of what it is means to be an effective instructor replaced the emphasis on studying teacher and preparation program attributes. Questions revolving around effective teaching processes and strategies and what teacher education processes were most successful in ensuring that pre-service teachers learn these strategies were the focus. At this time, many teacher education programs developed systems for evaluating prospective teachers according to scientific objectives and performance criteria.

## Knowledge

Starting in the early 1980s and continuing through the 1990s, public and governmental concern about teacher education and teacher quality became the focus. This period reflected a shiff from an emphasis on what effective teachers do to a focus on what they know, and perhaps even more importantly, what they need to know and be able do. Furthermore, research centered on what the teacher knowledge base should be.

## Outcomes

What could be considered the most significant educational topic of the new millennium has been the Outcomes question-the measurement and demonstration of the outcomes of teacher education. The basis of the query suggests that the ultimate goal of teacher education is student learning, and that there are certain measures (e.g., edTPA, Common Core) that can be used to determine the degree of success (or failure) for teacher education candidates, students, teacher education programs, and institutions that prepare teachers. Although these four questions have been in the forefront of teacher education for the past 60 years, several (e.g. Knowledge, Outcomes) continue to be the focus of teacher educators.

## A Brief Historical Account of Language Teacher Education

While US teacher education has a rich history of its own (see LaBue 1960), I briefly recount some noteworthy aspects of educational reform worldwide: teacher certification, teacher testing, and the teaching of modern languages, especially Spanish and Portuguese. The genesis of teacher preparation as a profession can be traced to the fifteenth century with a letter to the King of England written by William Byngham, a London parish priest, requesting the creation of a teacher preparation school (Johnson, Collins, Dupuis, and Johansen 1985). The God's House College was established in 1437 to begin formally preparing teachers, and remains in existence today as Christ's College Cambridge.

During colonial times, US curricula offered modern languages such as Spanish and Portuguese among others (Gutek 1991). Researchers (e.g., LaBue 1960; Spell 1927) have documented that teachers in New England were selected not on subject matter knowledge or pedagogical skills, but more on whom one knew or to whom one was related. However, the populace expressed dissatisfaction with nepotism and conducted examinations to issue certificates to those who applied. Teacher education focused mainly on the questions of Attributes and Knowledge in the colonies (later, states) and in the western territories until the mid-1800s. On the east coast, state educational agencies controlled certification between 1789 and 1860 . Pennsylvania was the first state to require teachers to pass a basic skills test (e.g., arithmetic, reading) in 1834. In the southwest, however, there were not any official examinations to become a teacher. The King of Spain proclaimed the establishment of public schools (e.g., in the territory of New Mexico) and the clergy taught children in Spanish beginning in 1721, and teachers were brought from Spain.

From the late 1800s to the early 1900s, Knowledge and Attributes remained the focus as normal schools ${ }^{1}$ became prevalent along with teacher colleges and the beginning of schools of education. By the end of the 19th century, most states required teachers to pass locally administered certification exams (Ravitch 2003) and state authorities began to regulate teacher certification based on Knowledge and Effectiveness.

In the first half of the 20th century, teacher education continued to develop as more and more teacher colleges and normal schools appeared. At the start of World War I, German offerings at the secondary level plummeted and Spanish replaced it "not for any love of Spanish, but rather as a matter of simple expediency. Portuguese, for all practical purposes, did not exist in the American curriculum" (Klein 1992: 1036). At the beginning of World War II, the American Council on Education's National Teachers' Examination of the 1930s was abandoned, leading to emergency credentials for teachers. The shortage of language teachers that ensued remains today (Swanson 2012). Unfortunately, in many cases, school districts resort to hiring native speakers to fill vacancies that are not certified to teach.

In the years following World War II, issues surrounding school quality and accountability emerged. The system of US teacher preparation came under attack for its low entry and exit standards, its over-emphasis on pedagogy rather than content area knowledge, a lack of professional knowledge base, and the absence of a relationship between the preparation of teachers and effective classroom instruction (Angus 2001). Five educational groups (e.g., Council of Chief State School Officers) founded the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education in 1954 as a mechanism to help establish high quality educator preparation ("About NCATE" 2015). Over the years, landmark court decisions (e.g., Brown vs. the Board of Education), federal legislation (e.g., National Defense Education Act of 1958, No Child Left Behind Act of 2001), and world events (e.g., the launch of Sputnik) were influential and they continue to have an impact on language education and language teacher preparation.

## The Case in Finland

Finnish educational philosophy stands in contrast to the United States. The Finnish National Board of Education's ("Education System" 2015) main objective is provide citizens equal opportunities to education, and its focus "is on learning rather than testing" (1). Unlike the United States, the Finnish education system relies on the expertise of its teachers instead of focusing on standardized tests to drive school performance.

The Finnish National Board of Education's "Teacher Education in Finland" (2015) notes that teacher preparation institutions are highly autonomous as they determine teacher education content and curricula. At no cost to students, pre-service teachers are taught the research process so that they become independent problem-solvers who can read and use the most recent research for educational purposes. Unlike the United States, there is an air of trust in teacher and teacher education; national evaluations or registration of teachers is non-existent.

Each pre-service teacher must complete a fifth-year Master's degree in theory and practice and then "are granted equal status with doctors and lawyers" (Hancock 2011: 4). The result, at least from a testing perspective on the 2012 Programme for International Student Assessment, is that Finnish children were ranked fifth in science and sixth in reading among the 64 participating countries and economies ("PISA 2012 Results" 2012). As a result, there is intense competition to become a teacher, which may be explained by the high salaries, autonomy, and respect for teachers. Approximately one in four applicants are selected each year. (Hancock 2011).

## The Future of US Language Teacher Education

Reflecting on the history of language teaching in the United States, some of what I recounted earlier (e.g., the over-reliance on testing) will likely continue to persist for the next few decades. For example, it is excessive when teacher candidates in Georgia have to spend $\$ 817.50$ in teacher quality tests, criminal background checks, liability insurance, etc. in order to enter a profession that offers such a low starting salary (Hildebrandt and Swanson 2014).

Furthermore, I believe that school districts will continue to look at hiring native speakers of Spanish and Portuguese from various countries to combat the teacher shortage as in the past. While native speakers can be an appealing source of teachers, we need begin a concerted effort to recruit, prepare, retain, and value a new generation of home-grown language teachers (see Swanson 2013 for specific strategies). Finally, I believe our profession can be improved by implementing ideas from the Finnish educational model such as focusing on student learning instead of testing ("Education System" 2015), nurturing and respecting teacher autonomy, and offering respectable salaries. Our profession needs to continue to work on the positive characteristics of the Finnish model.

Looking ahead to the future of language teacher preparation, it is helpful to present the opinions of several prominent WL teacher educators on the future of language teacher preparation before I conclude with my own suppositions. First, Dr. Paul A. García, a teacher preparation specialist with more than 45 years of experience, notes that there are three interdependent macro-issues that define the historical and present challenges:

1) We repeat the past. It invades our present and can foretell future.
2) We reduce or lower standards of excellence established by leadership.
3) We acknowledge the debilitating effects of being a disunited profession (García and Davis-Wiley 2016).

From these macro-issues, García derives a series of micro-issues from the literature (e.g., Allen, 2008; Ingold and Wang, 2010). He notes that these issues are of course not so micro in nature. For him, they become a set of seven framing questions essential to language teacher development (LTD):

1) Who should determine pre-service induction?
2) What has changed in LTD?
3) Who are and will be the future language teachers?
4) Who is the teacher educator in terms of attributes and experiences?
5) Who else participates in LTD?
6) What should the period of induction be in terms of time and experiences?
7) Who and where are our future pre-K-12 language students?

García calls for our leading language organizations and professional associations to establish and subsidize a national conversation on future language teachers.

Next, I consulted with Dr. Pamela Wesely, Associate Professor of Foreign Language and ESL Education (University of Iowa). Her thoughts focused on the K-12 context in the United States because of "[her] interests and life experiences". She mentioned that the profession should focus on a few smaller goals such as "making the pie bigger-teaching more language students at more levels in K-12 schools." She strongly advocates in favor of increasing the number of elementary and middle school programs, as well as cultivating programs in less commonly taught languages and helping them proliferate. She also states that language teacher preparation must abandon the grammar-based curriculum and embrace the communicative approach (personal communication, June 9, 2016).

Finally, I interviewed Dr. Susan A. Hildebrandt, Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics and Spanish at Illinois State University. She postulated that over the next 30 years, we are going to witness a holistic review of the construct of what makes a good teacher. She advocates a desilofication of education, an acknowledgement that the aforementioned four questions driving educational reform are inseparable and interact directly with individual student characteristics, backgrounds, and experiences (personal communication, 8 June 2016). She noted that "we have historically focused on the trees and missed the forest, and teacher effectiveness cannot be boiled down to single or even multiple measures. Rather, it should be seen as a sophisticated interaction among all four of the questions posed above."

## Concluding Thoughts

Along with the four major questions that have driven educational policy since the 1960s, I believe there are two other questions that merit discussion regarding the next 30 years of language teaching-the Relevancy question and the Vision question. With respect to the Relevancy question-is language teacher education relevant for today's citizen? It is important to examine the how the current business model in education directly impacts language teacher education. Unlike Finland, traditional value of respect for teachers in the United States has evaporated into a consumer-oriented demand for an education that promises elusive prosperity.

There has been a shortage of K-12 language teachers, including Spanish, throughout the United States and abroad (Swanson 2012). The pipeline to develop Spanish teachers, for example, students studying Spanish in higher education, has decreased for the first time since 1995 beginning in 2009 (Goldberg, Looney, and Lusin 2015). Given that Spanish enrollments have decreased and that those individuals in Spanish programs constitute part of the language teacher education programs enrollment, there are even fewer potential Spanish teachers, which will only exacerbate the shortage. Furthermore, as language programs in Portuguese, for example, are cut (e.g., Gallagher 2014), any possibility of developing teachers in those languages disappears too.

As do the members of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese and the readers of Hispania, I believe studying languages and preparing language teachers are worthy endeavors. For decades, studies have shown that learning a new language is important for the development of reading abilities (D'Angiulli, Siegel, and Serra 2001), cognitive abilities (Stewart 2005), problem solving (Stephens 1997), and higher academic achievement on a variety of standardized test measures (Turnbull, Hart, and Lapkin (2003), which are aligned well with national twenty-first-century skills initiative.

Teachers are preparing students for their adult lives and the business model needs to be applied to commercial endeavors, not education. The current notion of students as customers significantly changes teaching and learning as teachers. For example, linking teacher merit pay to student outcomes is ridiculous when consequences are limited only to educators. As a former public school Spanish teacher, I cannot remember the number of times I heard from students that "it doesn't matter how I do on the test because if I ace it or not, I still graduate." However, if our customers/students perform poorly on some standardized test, it is consequential for
teachers, administrators, and school districts. Until every stakeholder, including students and parents/guardians, has a vested interest in the education of our citizenry, any application of the business model remains rather problematic.

With respect to Vision, I concur with Drs. García, Hildebrandt, and Wesely. I call for a common vision of language teacher education so everyone from the dual language immersion Spanish and Portuguese teacher to language teaching organizations has a common discourse about the value of language study. Given that educational reform is driven currently by Outcomes, we must continue to promote that language learning supports academic achievement in so many ways, such as tremendous gains on the SAT exam (The College Board 2003). In December 2015, Congress reauthorized the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, known as the Every Student Succeeds Act, and President Obama signed it into law. While language education is part of the Well-Rounded Education Opportunities section, teachers and leaders in the field must continue to inform legislators that studying a second language early in life has a positive impact on the favored content areas of reading and math (D'Angiulli, Siegel, and Serra 2001). Furthermore, publicly advocating for the Seal of Biliteracy should take place.

A common dialogue can help our profession unify and keep professionals abreast of the national trends such as proficiency in language learning and the challenges presented by technology (e.g., Rosetta Stone, downloadable language apps). Cochran-Smith (2000) suggested that the future of teacher education in the United States depends on how we construct the issues within the educational community, how we engage in the public debate, and whether we have a voice in framing the questions that matter, on which we are the experts. Language professionals and others must forge a concerted effort to effect positive change and be part of the much-needed professional dialogue. Undoubtedly, teacher education will continue to be scrutinized for the foreseeable future. Language learning and teaching are worthy endeavors and we must be part of the national education conversation and bring language teaching and learning to the forefront of educational policy at all levels.

## NOTES

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# Envisioning a Future of Re-examination of Foreign Language Teacher Education 

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Keywords: foreign languages/lenguas extranjeras, language proficiency/proficiencia de lengua, Portuguese/ portugués, Spanish/español, teacher education/formación docente

The precarious situation facing the foreign language community in the United States presages a future of re-examination of foreign language teacher education. However pervasive the shortage of foreign language teachers may be as evidenced by Swanson $(2012,2013)$, of equal concern are the target language proficiency levels and pedagogical skills of the teachers, as well as their knowledge about their students' motivations for studying the languages (Brooks and Darhower 2014; Pratt, Agnello, and Santos 2009; Rhodes and Pufahl 2008; Richards, Conway, Rosvist, and Harvey 2013), but I will limit my response to language proficiency.

The Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers proposed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (ACTFL/CAEP) require preservice teachers of Portuguese and Spanish to have a minimum proficiency level of Advanced Low (ACTFL/CAEP 2013). This is also the widely accepted minimum requirement for certification. However, the literature indicates that students coming out of US foreign language undergraduate programs hardly ever achieve that level (Darhower 2014; Glisan 2013; Tedick 2013), and only $54 \%$ of teacher candidates attain Advanced Low oral proficiency (Glisan, Swender, and Surface 2013). Rhodes and Pufahl (2008) also report that more than one quarter of elementary school foreign language teachers are not certified, and the percentage of elementary schools that had uncertified language teachers increased from $17 \%$ in 1997 to 31\% in 2008.

VanPatten (2015) cautions about the dearth of experts in language acquisition and notes that the combined expertise (linguistics, language acquisition, language teaching) of tenure-line faculty members at PhD granting institutions in Spanish is about $20 \%$ and only $6 \%$ of them has expertise in second-language acquisition. That, to him, indicates a major lacuna in "language departments," and he questions: "Who is driving the bus of language development?" (2). He expresses the concern that since very few language experts are exiting doctoral programs, most of the people who will be at the helm of language departments and programs will not be language experts. He explains that "language acquisition is the place where the rubber meets the road" as language acquisitionists are the ones who have the best chance of informing language teaching (5). He adds that without a strong presence of language experts, there is a predominance of old myths such as the belief that language is a list of rules, which in my view explains the continued pervasive use of grammar-based curricula despite the abundant literature on the indispensability of communicative approaches for communicative competence.

Therefore, school districts will increase the hiring of Spanish and Portuguese native speakers from other countries until there is a consistent flow of homegrown teachers who meet the
required language proficiency standards. The "Visiting Teachers from Spain in the USA and Canada" program of the Ministry of Education of Spain for example continues to gain popularity in school districts.

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# What's Next? Heritage Language Learners Shape New Paths in Spanish Teaching 



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#### Abstract

The US Census projects that the Hispanic community in the United States will reach 128.8 million by 2060, and this growth requires a better understanding of Spanish as a heritage language (SHL). This essay examines three future areas of development within SHL instruction. First, more communication between communities of research and practice is necessary to improve classroom instruction. Second, novel SHL teaching materials ought to promote a "pedagogy of multiliteracies" approach. Lastly, we provide a discussion that moves beyond differentiated language instruction by considering SHL at all instructional levels and implementing a "heritage studies" curriculum.

Keywords: classroom instruction/instrucción en el aula, heritage studies/estudios de herencia, pedagogy of multiliteracies/pedagogía de multialfabetizaciones, research and practice/investigación y práctica, Spanish as a heritage language/español como lengua de herencia


The last 25 years have been a period of increasing Hispanic ${ }^{1}$ immigration into the United States. According to recent reports, the number of Hispanics in the United States now amount to 55 million (without taking into account undocumented immigrants who reside within our borders). Moreover, it is estimated that this number will rise to 128.8 million by 2060 (US Census Report 2014). With this dramatic growth comes the responsibility to achieve a better understanding of the underpinnings associated with the Latino experience in the United States and their contributions to its linguistic and cultural fabric.

Starting with the immigrants themselves, they often struggle to assimilate into a society that does not speak their language nor shares their cultural traditions (Suárez-Orozco and Suárez-Orozco 2009). Their offspring have an easier time adjusting to the mainstream culture, but often feel uncertain about their identity, struggling between the home- and host-cultures (Carreira and Beeman 2014). Due to becoming acculturated to mainstream US culture, they oftentimes are left with meager knowledge of their family history and ancestry. Languagewise, they soon develop full-linguistic competency in English while maintaining, to different degrees and levels of attainment, their home language. Given the nature of the home language and the socioeconomic asymmetrical conditions in which it is found in the face of the societal language, the minority language has come to be referred to as heritage language (HL). Those who speak a HL are therefore heritage speakers (HS). Due to space restrictions, we are forced to oversimplify complex issues related to heritage language acquisition, and its development and
use (see Beaudrie and Fairclough 2012; Montrul 2016; Pascual y Cabo 2016). Suffice it to say that despite being exposed to the HL from birth and in a naturalistic environment, the linguistic competence of HS generally differs from that of monolingual speakers of the same language in significant ways. Such outcomes have been theorized to emerge due to differences in the quantity and quality of input they are exposed to, to the degree of engagement (or lack thereof) in using the HL , and to limited educational opportunities in the HL (Montrul 2008).

As a result of these unique linguistic outcomes, HS oftentimes are subjected to and internalize deficit discourses about their HL. As such, it is not uncommon for them to display low linguistic self-esteem (Carreira and Beeman 2014). Yet, other times, in recognizing the great value associated with reconnecting with their heritage, many HS decide to enroll in Spanish classes during their college career (Beaudrie 2012). These now HL learners share the classroom space with traditional second language (L2) learners and with instructors that may or may not be adequately trained to deal with this specific student profile (Beaudrie, Ducar, and Potowski 2014). The outcome of this experience is not always beneficial for either party involved since their respective needs or interests are hardly ever met (Bowles and Montrul 2014). Additionally, given the biased emphasis of most Spanish courses across the United States that promote a foreign standard variety, the Spanish language classroom becomes a dreaded space in which their inadequacies (prescriptively speaking) are consistently pointed out and penalized (Clark and Coryell 2009).

To address these issues, many advances have been made in a number of subfields including language acquisition, identity, education, literacy, pedagogy, and policy among others (e.g., Beaudrie and Fairclough 2012; Carreira and Beeman 2014; Colombi and Roca 2003; Correa 2011; Klee and Lynch 2005; Leeman 2015; Montrul 2008; Silva-Corvalán 1994; Valdés 1999). Driven by such advances, courses and programs specifically designed with the HL learner in mind have emerged throughout the country (Beaudrie 2012). These programs provide learners with increasing opportunities to use and to be exposed to their HL; to challenge dominant social hierarchies; to model and construct positive linguistic and cultural identities; and to serve as a site for HL literacy-development.

Considering the current and future demographic changes, it is likely that HL learners will shape the Spanish teaching profession. Motivated by our desire to improve current practices, we provide a discussion that will hopefully engage multiple perspectives in the (re)shaping of the Spanish teaching profession. The remaining portion of this visionary essay addresses what will be most likely the future lines of development within Spanish HL instruction. Changes are proposed in three areas: 1) the communication between communities of research and practice; 2) the adaptation of a "pedagogy of multiliteracies" to develop novel teaching materials; and 3) the implementation of a "heritage studies" curriculum that goes beyond language development at all levels.

First, to address the exponential growth of Spanish HL learners in secondary/post-secondary school settings (Carreira and Potowski 2010), and to help practitioners address the language development needs of these learners, a number of resources have been developed: textbooks, teacher-training workshops, theme-specific conferences, etc. Furthermore, scholarship addressing pedagogical concerns and advances in teaching Spanish as a HL is on the rise (e.g., Beaudrie, Ducar, and Potowski 2014; Durán-Cerda 2008; Llombart-Huesca 2012; Parra 2013). Given the urgency and challenges that practitioners face in their classrooms, these resources have served as useful tools to design curricula for HL learners.

However, despite the increased availability of such resources, thus far, very little is known about the effectiveness of these methods on HL learners' learning outcomes. In fact, only a few studies (Blake and Zyzik 2003; Bowles 2011; Bowles, Adams, and Toth 2014; Bowles and Montrul 2008; Potowski, Jegerski, and Morgan-Short 2009) have tested how pedagogical interventions affect language performance and development among heritage learners. What these studies suggest so far is that HL learners seem to respond differently to pedagogical interventions in
comparison to their L2 peers. For instance, during HL-L2 task-based interactions, HL learners offer more assistance to their L2 peers, especially in the area of vocabulary (Blake and Zyzik 2003; Bowles et al. 2014); however, for written tasks, HL learners depend more on their L2 partners regarding issues of orthography/accent placement (Bowles 2011). Additionally, while HL learners benefit from explicit instruction, their improvement is not as large as for L 2 learners (Potowski et al. 2009). These findings, though, remain inconclusive, as more research is needed to ascertain the optimal conditions under which HL learners can make the most significant progress. Considering this, we foresee an increase in empirical studies that will shed light on the interactions between pedagogical variables and prior language experience of HL bilinguals with the goal, when possible, of informing best teaching practices.

While conducting further research on language performance and development of HL learners is crucial, a need exists for communication between communities of research and practice to bridge empirical findings and classroom teaching. As reliable results from (quasi)experimental studies accumulate, these findings need to be accessible to practitioners, who then must decide which findings are relevant to their teaching practice. In fact, based on research findings, we propose that practitioners conduct collaborative action research projects (Mills 2014) as one alternative to determine whether they obtain similar outcomes in their classrooms. In turn, through publication or existing conference venues, practitioners can report their findings, and address the successes and challenges in applying research findings in their teaching. This can encourage insightful dialogues between practitioners and researchers, which can also guide new inquires related to classroom-based practices that address HL development.

A second area concerns the development of pedagogical materials that address the promotion of "multiliteracies" in the HL. Scholars and practitioners have long been interested in HL learners' development of literacy skills as a key component of HL programs (Valdés 1978). Nancy H. Hornberger and Shuhan C. Wang (2008) expand the notion of biliteracy to comprise not only classroom-based literacies, but also those pertaining to HL learners' experiences in their homes by considering a number of practices, stakeholders, and spaces. Along these lines, we advocate for novel teaching materials that take into account a "pedagogy of multiliteracies" that sets forth the development of literacies through a "multilingual and multimodal" lens, as espoused by Bill Cope and Mary Kalantzis (2009). Cope and Kalantzis argue that "multilingual" should not only refer to different (minority) languages per se, but also to how speakers address discourse differences in one language, and are able to construct and negotiate meaning in a number of spaces. "Multimodal" is seen as the need for language expression in different modes (e.g., visual or audio) to function in a society that is generating an array of multimodal texts through which communication occurs, which is, largely in part, due to advances in technology and digital media. Finally, a "pedagogy of multiliteracies" would recommend that practitioners assess the goals and needs of HL learners to gather information on the types of literacies they would like to acquire and develop.

In short, a need exists for the creation of novel pedagogical materials that provide HL learners with opportunities to develop the necessary literacy skills to function in the twenty-first century. But, to create these pedagogical materials, it will be necessary to continue assessing the learning and professional goals of HL learners as to how they will use their literacy skills in the HL (Carreira and Kagan 2011). Thus, the outcomes of these assessments should guide the creation of relevant pedagogical materials that promote appropriate literacy skills that tackle the burgeoning needs HL learners will face in using the HL in and beyond the classroom. These goals may include writing an argumentative essay for a Spanish literature class; translating medical documents for non-English speakers in their communities; recording professional podcasts to provide instructions for renting a car; and, creating user-friendly Spanish websites to promote banking services. A promising method for deriving relevant pedagogical materials is through task-based approaches that incorporate a needs-analysis of learners' communicative needs (e.g., Serafini and Torres 2015) that leads to the creation of problem-solving communicative tasks that
can vary in requiring learners to interact with a number of text modes, genre and digital media while forming new or strengthening existing form-meaning connections in the HL.

Lastly, our goal is to move beyond separate curriculum and instruction that serves the varying linguistic needs of HL and L2 learners by considering HL development issues at all curricular levels; and a curriculum that engages all learners (HL and L2) with the construct of heritage in its broadest sense. While this current initiative of differentiating HL instruction and curriculum has been a major step forward in addressing the needs of HL learners, this approach has also been restrictive in nature and suffers from some of the same limitations observed in previous approaches to language teaching. The main goal of traditional L2 Spanish instruction has been for students to acquire a variety of Spanish spoken outside of the United States, without considering the current linguistic realities of US Spanish-speaking communities; and thus, sending the message that US Spanish is not worth learning. By having L2 learners work on a "standard" variety of Spanish while HSs work separately on their HL, we are not only sending contradictory messages regarding the overall value of US Spanish, we are also guilty of continuing to advocate for a behavior that stigmatizes a language variety spoken by millions.

Therefore, influenced by a growing population of HL learners, all students will benefit from learning about US Latino communities. HL learners will reap benefits from reconnecting with their cultural and linguistic heritage. L2 learners, on the other hand, can use their gained knowledge of heritage to develop well-informed personal and professional interactions with US Latino communities. Thus, a "heritage studies" curriculum will be relevant for HL learners and L2 learners, since in addition to the language component, it also focuses on Latino history and culture of a particular US region.

Scholars and teachers will need to examine "heritage" beyond language development. A heritage studies curriculum with an emphasis on language, Latino history and culture focusing on region can bring together three different fields. While the HL acquisition field has been dominated by work from fields as bilingualism, sociolinguistics, and second language acquisition, scholarship in heritage studies is drawn from fields of not just cultural studies, but also museum studies, history, tourism studies, sociology, and anthropology. Because these fields share the common term "heritage," a productive dialogue among them enriches the Spanish curriculum. Heritage studies courses in a Spanish department will vary depending on instructors, location, and students' communicative needs. Nonetheless, this variability does not lessen the import of heritage studies courses; in fact, it stands at the very basis of the heterogeneity that characterizes the HL field.

Based on this rationale, we advocate for the development of flexible linguistically, historically, and culturally appropriate courses that bridge theoretical perspectives from Spanish language classes, heritage studies, and Spanish HL studies with the goal of inspiring the learning about the heritage and use of Spanish of a particular US region with a global scope. Heritage studies courses can bridge the basic meaning of heritage in Spanish programs in which the word heritage eschews oppression, the underprivileged, and any stigmatizing function when referring to an individual speaker, community, or the field itself. Heritage studies courses understand the adjective heritage to mean that the speaker inherently possesses a specific linguistic and cultural patrimony, a powerful resource that is more often than not ignored.

Like traditional Spanish classes that focus on a foreign standard dialect with prestige associated to its history and culture, so would the heritage studies approach, as it will focus on teaching that the US region has a valuable language, history, and culture. Students engaging with heritage studies will develop a broad and variable idea of heritage that will foster cultural connectedness through offering the learner a vision of place in the broader community and at large. In the same way that teachers use the context of the study abroad program to inspire language learning, they can also motivate students to learn Spanish by focusing on the heritage of the Spanish-speaking community of a particular region. Because this cultural and linguistic resource is already at reach
in many areas, the inclusion of a community-based/service-learning component is desirable for everyone involved. Engaging with local Spanish-speakers in meaningful interactions would provide students with additional motivation and investment in language learning. This would in turn lead to student gains in linguistic skills and more positive attitudes toward the language and culture (Lowther Pereira 2015).

This novel curriculum can also make use of material that students may learn in other classes since it should be designed to not just examine a specific region in the United States, but also examine the larger context. For example, because this curriculum focuses on heritage with a special emphasis on region, it makes students aware of other regions where Spanish is a majority language that serves as the compass in regions of other minority languages such as Quechua in Ecuador or Galician in Spain. In this sense, it offers the frame of a larger geopolitical context between a region in the United States and Spanish as spoken in other global regions.

This approach will contribute to a vibrant and evolving meaning of "heritage" that is beneficial for both Spanish language instruction and heritage studies. Therefore, this curricular model is not just an ancillary curricular appendage, but rather an indispensable addition to Spanish programs. During the next fifty years, it will not be the creation of a Spanish curriculum and a discrete heritage studies course that will be beneficial for institutions of higher education, but the conjunction of both into an integral curriculum that will promote an enriched learning experience and will pave a future theoretical and pragmatic path for a vital program of Spanish HL and heritage studies for everyone involved.

## NOTES

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Response to "What's Next?
Heritage Language Learners Shape
New Paths in Spanish Teaching"

# Spanish Heritage Language Learners: Let's Not Avoid Metalinguistic Knowledge 



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#### Abstract

Keywords: metalinguistic awareness/conciencia metalingüística, metalinguistic knowledge/conocimiento metalingüístico, professions/profesiones, Spanish as a heritage language/español como lengua de herencia, translation/traducción


Perhaps the most important contribution Torres, Pascual y Cabo, and Beusterien's (2017) study makes is proposing to expand the principles that guide heritage language (HL) programs to the entire Spanish BA through a "heritage studies" curriculum, instead of having discreet HL programs operating separately within an L2-oriented program. An underlying crucial claim of Torres et al.'s (2017) essay is the need to address the needs of heritage language learners (HLLs) beyond lower division language courses, which have been the target of pedagogical and curricular proposals in the HL literature. As the authors note, "HL programs provide learners with increasing opportunities to use and be exposed to their HL; to challenge dominant social hierarchies; to model and construct positive linguistic and cultural identities; and to serve as a site for HL literacy" (272). For HLLs who take a Spanish course as a general education requirement or to reconnect with their language and heritage, developing linguistic confidence and cultural self-esteem through language engagement and revision of relevant sociolinguistic concepts should be prioritized. A renewed linguistic confidence is a positive outcome in itself, but for some students, it might be the beginning of a language-related career. Programs that address HLLs' professional and literacy goals must have a strong linguistic component that enhances students' metalinguistic awareness and knowledge. And this is an issue that cannot be circumvented.

The authors suggest bringing scholarship from cultural, museum and tourism studies, history, sociology, and anthropology to widen a HL acquisition field mostly dominated by the fields of bilingualism, second language acquisition (SLA), and sociolinguistics. However, without denying the contributions of these proposed fields, much remains to be done in the linguistic research arena. It has been argued that because of their implicit and naturalistic development, HLLs possess very little metalinguistic knowledge and do not benefit from explicit instructional methodologies. However, a paradox in the HL literature is that rejecting metalinguistic knowledge on the basis that HLLs are not FL/L2 learners assumes an SLA-oriented view of metalinguistic knowledge. Although the most significant body of work on metalinguistic knowledge has traditionally been seen in SLA, as a possible mediator of implicit knowledge, metalinguistic awareness has been widely studied in L1 research, especially its effects on spelling, reading, and vocabulary expansion. It is this L1-oriented research that we need to bring to the HL research. For example, spelling seems to be an "uncomfortable" topic, practically absent from HL research. However, poor spelling adversely affects HLLs' chances to be hired for a job that uses Spanish professionally (e.g., in translation, media, or marketing) (Carreira
2002). Research in spelling development is necessary to inform the teaching profession, since HL instructors do not know how to address spelling issues (Beaudrie 2012). For other aspects of writing, while the role of metalinguistic awareness is a matter of much debate, it has been shown to be beneficial in dialect and register contrastive analysis. Superior metalinguistic knowledge is also a must for many language-related professions. For example, many HLLs with a Spanish BA will become teachers and, no matter the pedagogical approach used by those teachers, it is undeniable that they will need to possess a strong metalinguistic knowledge at all levels. ${ }^{1}$

L1 linguistic awareness develops through specific language and literacy experiences, and progresses incrementally from unanalyzed linguistic representations and a focus on meaning, towards increasingly analyzed representations and attention to formal aspects (Bialystok and Ryan 1985). However, lack of early literacy in Spanish alters this development, and puts HLLs in competitive professional disadvantage with people who have studied in countries whose educational systems emphasize such knowledge. While this might be unfair, we cannot avoid the issue altogether. Rather, we need to conduct research on the specific mental representations of HLLs' linguistic knowledge and the most appropriate approaches to enhance metalinguistic awareness that stem from them. One aspect worth exploring is that of translation. While translation has been rejected in L2 classrooms, HL research and curriculum should explore and amplify HLLs' natural translation abilities in order to strengthen linguistic awareness, translation competence, and pride in bilingualism (Malakoff and Hakuta 1991; Lörscher 2012). If we want to truly shift the exclusive SLA-oriented perspective in the Spanish curriculum, we need to fully explore the linguistic abilities and vulnerabilities in HLL bilinguals.

## NOTES

${ }^{1}$ In fact, teachers who feel insecure about their own declarative grammatical knowledge are more likely to hold prescriptivist views of grammar (Macken-Horarik, Love, and Unsworth 2011).

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# Spanish as a Pivot Language for Third Language Learning in the United States 



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#### Abstract

On college campuses throughout the United States, classes for decades have been offered to help Spanish speakers learn Portuguese, augmented recently by similar courses in Italian, French, and Catalan. Though there exist numerous commonalities between these innovative course offerings, the pivotal role of Spanish stands out. This essay therefore introduces the concept of a pivot language: a widely spoken second language leveraged through explicit instruction to facilitate the learning of a related third language (L3). It is suggested that in an increasingly multilingual country, this trend of taking into account students' prior linguistic knowledge points to where language teaching is headed.

Keywords: Catalan for Spanish Speakers/catalán para hispanohablantes, cognate languages/lenguas afines, French for Spanish Speakers/francés para hispanohablantes, Italian for Spanish Speakers/italiano para hispanohablantes, pivot language/lengua de enlace, Portuguese for Spanish Speakers/portugués para hispanohablantes, Spanish as a heritage language/español como lengua de herencia, third language acquisition/adquisición de tercera lengua


## Introduction

A$s$ the first European language spoken in what eventually became the United States, Castilian Spanish has from early on enjoyed a special place among languages not indigenous to the Americas. Boasting the largest number of native speakers, Spanish today predominates in over half the countries of North and South America, and is by far the language new immigrants to the United States are most likely to speak (Krogstad and Keegan 2014). There are even certain parts of the country (e.g. Puerto Rico, New Mexico) where as a first language (L1) it has a history dating back centuries. The fact, then, that Spanish has long since been the most widely spoken language other than English (LOTE) in the United States-and is projected to remain so throughout the foreseeable future-should be of no surprise.

Considering this, it was only a matter of time before the growing number of post-secondary students in the United States already proficient in Spanish began to influence course offerings in related foreign languages. That it hasn't happened sooner is perhaps more surprising, due likely to a reluctance on the part of institutions to adapt to change and a hesitance among linguists to recognize the acquisition of a third language (L3) as a phenomenon distinct from that of a second (L2). Thankfully there have been those who for decades have been arguing for this distinction (e.g. Thomas 1985). And while L3 scholars have oftentimes had to prioritize advocating for the very existence of their field, many have moved beyond this basic issue to that of how best an L3 can be taught and learned. The current essay fits squarely within this latter line of research.

This essay will unfold by first looking at the primary role Spanish has assumed, both among LOTEs in the United States, as well as in classes explicitly aiming to teach US college students a third language. After a brief history of the teaching of these classes, the essay will explore some of their common characteristics, particularly the reliance upon a pivot language as the point of
departure for learning a related L3. Finally, potential implications will be considered for the field of foreign language (FL) teaching. In the end it is argued simply that it no longer makes sense not to offer language classes expressly to Spanish-speaking bilinguals, with a focus on precisely those issues shown to be salient to L3 learners, reducing time to proficiency and facilitating ultimate attainment.

## The Central Role of Spanish among LOTEs in the United States

According to figures from the US Census Bureau, the percentage of people in the United States speaking Spanish at home has risen steadily since 1980, the first year in which that statistic was measured, from just over $5 \%$ of the US population to $12 \%$ in 2010. While in 1980 Spanish speakers represented $48 \%$ of all those speaking a LOTE at home, thirty years later that figure had grown to $62 \%$ (Ryan 2013: 5-7). This outsize role that Spanish has played in the linguistic makeup of the United States is only expected to increase as time goes on, with it projected to remain the country's most widely spoken LOTE for years to come (Ortman and Shin 2011).

Paralleling the above statistics, Spanish is also several times over the most widely taught L2 in the United States, having unseated French for this distinction in 1969. The next benchmark was in the mid-1990s, when enrollments in Spanish eclipsed those in all other FLs combined. According to the Modern Language Association, in 2013 Spanish counted four times as many enrollments as French, itself still the second most popular FL learned in the United States (Goldberg et al. 2015: 27).

With so many speaking Spanish at home, others who have studied it in school, and a significant international student population from Latin America and Spain, the amount of Spanish speakers on US college campuses has become quite consequential. Accordingly, while official figures have never been compiled, an informal survey of university course catalogs reveals that more and more L3 classes are being offered, aiming to take explicit advantage of the fact that so many students are already Spanish proficient. It is with the evolution of this trend that the next section is primarily concerned.

## Spanish-based L3 Instruction within US Post-secondary Education

Any thorough history of instructed L3 acquisition in the United States is obliged to point to Sicilian émigré Pietro Bachi as the forefather of teaching related languages. Hired to teach Italian at Harvard University in 1826, within a couple of years Bachi was teaching Spanish to speakers of Italian, and a few years after that, Portuguese to speakers of Spanish, publishing a groundbreaking textbook to accompany each class (Marraro 1944: 568-9).

Although there appear not to have been any such experiments for the next hundred or so years, starting in the 1940s various articles in Hispania began calling for contrastive materials to be absorbed into the teaching of Portuguese in order to help Spanish speakers access the language with greater ease (Percas 1948; Holton 1954). Thanks to the efforts of Jack Ulsh (1971), the Foreign Service Institute soon began doing just that. While it remains difficult to pin down the first time Portuguese for Spanish Speakers (PSS) was taught on college campuses, from the publication of the first PSS textbook (Simões 1991) together with articles from the early 1990s (e.g. Jordan 1991; Milleret 1992), we know that this practice was not all that uncommon. Nowadays PSS classes are even more widespread, and as a subfield in its own right there have so far been five SEPFE ${ }^{1}$ conferences, where PSS and L3 learning are regularly given their academic due.

Over the past two decades, classes in Italian, Catalan, and most recently French for Spanish Speakers have started to emulate the success of PSS at an increasing number of colleges, universities, and even high schools, many times cropping up out of sheer pragmatic will. These classes are often designed by language teachers with little formal training in linguistics who seem to innately grasp the benefits, from raising enrollment and retention rates to boosting morale among
heritage speakers of Spanish, who themselves quickly come to view their heritage language as an asset rather than an obstacle (Carvalho 2013). It is up to language researchers and university administrators, then, to embrace the reality of these courses, along with their potential both for language departments and for those studying how foreign languages are learned.

## Dynamics and Terminology of Instructed L3 Acquisition

Key to the development of any new field is the vocabulary associated with it. Although there may be a tendency to view a term like "L3 acquisition" (or the occasionally seen variant "tertiary language learning") as somewhat problematic in its specificity, it seems no more inaccurate than the now well-established term "second language acquisition" (SLA), which is generally used to refer to the acquisition of any non-primary language. Sidestepping issues of individual chronology, instead of relying on futile attempts to encompass a multitude of linguistic backgrounds, the intention here is to identify characteristics-not of the students themselves, but rather those more universally set by educators and administrators.

Complicating the task, dynamics between at least three languages are at play within any L3 classroom. There may be wide variation, for instance, among students' L1, even within the same class. Students' L2 may vary just as widely, since L2 for some may be L1 for others. Then what we often refer to as L3 may or may not be the actual third language a student is learning, making the term "L3 acquisition" a potential misnomer. And so it becomes necessary, if we hope to achieve uniformity or accuracy with respect to labeling, to identify characteristics common to the course itself which will hold for all students.

Instead of L3, for example, the term 'target language' (TL) will always be accurate in reference to whichever language students are there to learn. This term has been in parlance for years in SLA. Next we consider what might commonly be thought of as L1. While this label will not always refer to the same language across all students, in any FL classroom it will be possible to identify the majority language of the school in which the class is being taught. For many this will likely coincide with L1. Those learners for whom this is not their native language will at least enjoy a strong enough command over it to be able to enroll in a school where, again, this is the dominant medium of instruction. An objective label like 'majority language' may therefore be preferable to the more widespread yet far more subjective term 'source language', which in a multilingual setting could be interpreted ambiguously.

The existence, then, of that language in the middle between the majority language and the target language, is what serves to distinguish the L3 classroom and curriculum from all others. Commonly thought of as L2, this language may also very well fail to correspond to the number associated with it, for instance when classes include heritage speakers. Yet because of its pivotal role in facilitating TL acquisition and the increasing amount of L3 classes being offered, in terms of serious research potential, this area will prove more and more fruitful as time goes on. It is with this in mind that the term "pivot language" is proposed, since these classes are designed for students to take their knowledge of a certain language-in this case Spanish-and then turn, or pivot, towards a related foreign language. In the broadest possible terms, therefore, a pivot language can be defined as any widely spoken L2 leveraged through explicit instruction to facilitate the learning of a related L3.

Within this definition lie a few key characteristics. First, a pivot language must be spoken widely enough relative to a certain community (e.g., Spanish), or be of sufficient commercial, strategic, or cultural interest (e.g., Mandarin, Arabic, German), to be able to assemble a class full of proficient speakers. Instruction will typically be somewhat explicit, as this is believed to encourage positive transfer by drawing on correspondences between pivot and target language (Carvalho 2013; Jordan 1991), as well as on the increased metalinguistic awareness that the bilingual (and in particular, biliterate) language learner is often seen to exhibit (Sanz 2000; Thomas 1985). Such explicit instruction may also be effective at reducing interference, or negative
transfer, that occurs as a result of the final requirement, that the two languages be related, or in the words of Ulsh (1971), "close enough to each other to enable us to use the word 'conversion' when describing what the speaker of one language does in order to achieve command of the other" (viii). In this way, access to the target language via the related pivot language will be virtually impossible to avoid, and whatever the order in which the latter was acquired with respect to other background languages, its relationship to the TL gives it special status (e.g. Rothman 2011). In other words, if the majority language is L1, then the student uses the more proximal pivot language (L2) to gain quicker access to the L3. If the majority language was instead learned as L 2 , then in this case the pivot language (i.e., the more proximal L1) arguably plays an even bigger role. In either case, the concept is applied consistently and strikes a useful distinction for educators and researchers alike.

While the term 'pivot language' has been used in translation work for decades, from simultaneous interpretation to machine translation, its use in FL instruction appears novel. In the world of translation, a pivot language is used to facilitate indirect translation between two other languages whenever direct translation is impossible. Although this is not exactly the sense in which this essay promotes the term's adoption, the translation world also features terminology such as 'target language' and 'source language' with meanings that differ slightly from their use in SLA, so this type of borrowing is not without precedent.

In the literature on intercomprehension, a similar concept is often referred to as a 'bridge language.' First gaining currency in Europe and now featured within certain L3 classes in the United States, intercomprehension strategies draw upon multiple related languages to promote TL acquisition, where "every language is at the same time source, target, and bridge language" (Donato and Escudé 2013). Because of the unique, multidirectional nature of these strategies, the flexibility of the term 'bridge language' seems to strip itself of any exclusive status, and consequently the need remains for something more specific. Put differently, if any language can be used as a bridge, the privileged status of Spanish in these L3 classes would seem to warrant its own term. This distinction serves to highlight one of the major differences between European multilingualism, marked by regional diversity yet relative local uniformity, and multilingualism in the United States, where LOTEs are often spread out geographically, with Spanish the most widely spoken by far. ${ }^{2}$ Within such different linguistic environments it should be expected for some terminology to develop independently, and for each community of researchers to establish their own complementary yet varying approaches to multilingualism and L3 acquisition.

Beyond mere terminology, there are precedents for the concept on both sides of the Atlantic. Within Slavic language departments in the United States, for instance, incoming graduate students are often expected to be proficient in Russian. Rather organically in the 1980s, certain programs began using Russian as a pivot language to help students learn Czech or Bulgarian (Gribble 2013; Townsend and Komar 2000). But while that trend seems to have largely died out, in Europe a new one has potentially emerged. In an increasing number of European countries English has not only become the most widely taught L2, but also the most common language for recent immigrants to have previously learned. During a large-scale study of multilinguals learning L3 Dutch in the Netherlands, $68 \%$ listed English as their most proficient FL (Schepens et al. 2016). This broad facility with English is rightly being leveraged by European applied linguists, leading to the creation of materials on tertiary language didactics (e.g. Neuner et al. 2009), and an accompanying focus on English as a pivot language in the teaching of additional, related FLs such as German (Hufeisen 2000).

The phenomenon being teased out is tangible, therefore, and the intention of the present essay has been to help garner for it the recognition it deserves. The goal now becomes to probe deeper into the nature of L 3 learning itself in contexts where a pivot language prominently features.

## Conclusion

Outlined here so far have been the characteristics of a pivot language, as well as some of the reasoning behind identifying it as such. Its exposition brings up further questions, however. For example, is a pivot language always necessary? And if so, how proficient in this language do students, and instructors for that matter, need to be? As these classes very often attract a diverse learner population, the differences in prior linguistic experience, particularly among heritage speakers, can sometimes be rather stark (Johnson 2004). How then should educators handle students with varying degrees of familiarity with pivot-language grammar? In the online era, it is now more possible than ever to adapt curricula to students' needs, and therein may lie the solution. As time goes on we will likely see more of a reliance upon online tools as supplementary language-learning resources, with those able to successfully incorporate students' prior linguistic experience helping the most.

Other questions involve the creation of educational materials and L3 curricula in general. For instance, are special L3 textbooks desirable? And if so, what is their proper role? Although many US students of Portuguese speak Spanish, the vast majority of introductory textbooks are still designed with the monolingual English speaker in mind. Additionally, it remains unclear how many PSS classes adopt a substantially different curriculum from that used to teach non-PSS Portuguese (Bateman and de Almeida Oliveira 2014: 276-7). Yet, there exist very clear differences in how L3 classes can be approached compared to the traditional FL model. From the very first day of class, spoken and written fluency in the pivot language allows students to understand much more of what they hear and read than their monolingual counterparts, enabling an earlier reliance upon receptive communication and authentic texts than would otherwise be possible (Carvalho et al. 2010). Furthermore, specialists in FL instruction would do well to consider calls to deviate from the standard communicative model at various points in the retooled L3 curriculum (Carvalho 2013; Jordan 1991).

It may well be, then, that these visionary courses are the harbingers of a significant new trend in FL teaching, taking into account prior linguistic knowledge to an extent that has never been quite as possible, nor as necessary. If we want other L3 Romance classes to follow the trail blazed by PSS, most helpful would be the creation of an overarching group to bring together scholars and instructors under what has emerged as a common thread: L3 instruction most typically featuring Spanish as a pivot language. This seems to the author like the most efficient way to be able to answer key initial questions, such as which classes are being taught at which schools, for how long have they been offered, how much more quickly do students reach proficiency, and by how much have these classes helped boost enrollment. One hopes this type of project will soon be underway, which will then help us answer the deeper questions posed within the preceding paragraphs.

In conclusion, this essay aims to fit in with what needs to be a series of studies identifying common factors in Spanish-based L3 instruction. These efforts will then be able to contribute to the larger conversation, going well beyond any one language or language pair. If these studies can help uncover language-learning universals for L3, the benefit to the field of linguistics would be enormous. Throughout the history of L3 acquisition-especially in terms of teaching related languages and embracing a pivot language in class-both Spanish and Portuguese have played unique roles, which are certain to be more widely acknowledged as time goes on. These forward-thinking pedagogical interventions may well become what help keep language instruction relevant in the twenty-first century, borne of the particular nature of American multilingualism, and fostering in turn a more multilingual US student population better able to handle the challenges of an increasingly interconnected world.

## NOTES

${ }^{1}$ Simpósio sobre Ensino de Português para Falantes de Espanhol
${ }^{2}$ The next most widely spoken language in the United States, Chinese, has over 13 times fewer speakers than Spanish, according to figures from the 2010 Census (Ryan 2013).

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# Polyglots, Multilinguals, and Translanguagers: Spanish as a Gateway Language 

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#### Abstract

Keywords: French for Spanish Speakers/francés para hispanohablantes, intercomprehension/intercomprensión, Italian for Spanish Speakers/italiano para hispanohablantes, language noticing/el darse cuenta de lenguas, Portuguese for Spanish Speakers/portugués para hispanohablantes, reconsolidation/reconsilidación, translanguaging


The article "Spanish as a Pivot Language for Third Language Learning in the United States" is an important addition to this centennial issue of Hispania, for it offers an assessment of Spanish not only as the dominant language other than English taught in schools, colleges, and universities in the United States, but also as a tool of access for knowledge transfer, as well as connected and networked learning. For this reason, Spanish, particularly when used by multilingual speakers, is as much a gateway as it is a pivot, fostering a host of advantages to both learner and society alike. In this brief rejoinder, then, having consolidated the notion of pivot from a linguistic point of view (i.e., "a widely spoken second language leveraged through explicit instruction to facilitate the learning of a related third language" (Travers 2017: 279), I would like to propose a broader pedagogical reflection on Spanish and its multilingual speakers at this unique moment in the history of language competencies and language study in the United States. As multilingual Spanish speaking students populate classrooms, cityscapes and rural settings in increasing numbers throughout the United States, they are changing the perception and practice of language study today. A first and continuing wave of evolving innovative pedagogical practices can be found in Spanish for Heritage Speakers courses, where the goal to preserve, maintain and advance heritage language competencies constitutes a profound departure from the days in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries when the "immigrant" languages were a source of shame, to be buried and forgotten, in response to the one nation, one language mentality. Today, in a second and related wave to the first, Spanish functions as a gateway to the rapid acquisition of the cognate languages of French, Italian, and/or Portuguese (Carvalho and Child), utilizing interdisciplinary methods and theories that underscore multilingualism's potential to expand human experience. Thus cognitive, cultural, pedagogical, and linguistic advantages are procured as documented in any number of studies, a few of which are mentioned below.

As internet language learner "Benny the Irish Polyglot" has asserted in his popular blog, learning languages that belong to the same family shortens time to acquisition. Benny's goals are communicative, reflecting the desire among young people to "perform the global self" (Donato and Oliva 2016). Benny, himself, began with Spanish, the hardest, he said, because his first; from there, he claims, the rest of the Romance languages were easy. For Benny, as for the vast majority of our multilingual students, Spanish is the gateway language to the global self. We need to pay attention to Benny, whose pride in multilingualism is echoed among students who are using their Spanish as precisely that gateway tool to new forms of sociability and communication-forms
that no longer aim for a closed academic outcome, but rather social expansion and intercultural depth. Developmental researchers have also found facilitated levels of interpersonal understanding among multilingual children, even among those for whom multilingualism is passive and related primarily to comprehension (Kinzler 2016b). This research corroborates the importance of encouraging particular competencies (i.e., excelling in reading or oral comprehension at a greater rate than speaking or writing) as significant benchmarks in multilingualism, especially when viewed in a context of language fluidity. Indeed, the burgeoning research on "the multilingual turn" in language acquisition (see May 2014) highlights new acquisition strategies, with forms of language learning that encompass polyglot dialogue, intercomprehension, translanguaging, and translation, all of which engage multiple languages-L1, L2, L3, Ln-synchronically. Claire Kramsch (2009) has advocated for making sites of language learning multilingual so that they cohere more closely to the lived experience of hybrid identities, and cultural-linguistic practices where fluid forms of language exchange are the norm.

Benny's anecdotal musings about learning multiple languages and how he goes about it espouse a form of networked learning that puts large amounts of linguistic data (starting with Spanish and moving through the rest of the Romance languages) in communication with each other. These data are French, Italian, Portuguese, Romanian, or any other Romance language, socio-material assemblages of linguistic-cultural material that can be moved, mixed and mobilized in correspondences and linkages whose access or gateway is provided by Spanish. Such socio-cognitive linkages encourage an expanded vision of human experience, including the ability to consider and accept multiple perspectives (Kinzler 2016b). Another cognitive process that may be sparked when Spanish speakers learn cognate languages is reconsolidation, where "existing memories are recalled and modified with new knowledge" (Wymbs, Bastian, and Celnick 2016: 338). Reconsolidation may best explain the dual benefit experienced by Spanish speakers when they study a cognate language in classes using Spanish as a pivot language, thus acquiring new knowledge that simultaneously strengthens and expands their knowledge of Spanish (Donato and Pasquarelli-Gascon 2015). Finally, the sociolinguistics of multilingualism for Spanish speakers operating in spaces where cognate languages are spoken demonstrate that multilingual Spanish speakers experience multiple perceptions of a city's particular cultural and linguistic layers. They may see multiple Parises, Romes, Montreals or São Paulos experienced both through Spanish and the cognate language they are learning, whether it be French, Italian or Portuguese. As Sherry Simon (2012) has shown, multilinguals experience sites from multiple perspectives, possessing a rich, nuanced view that eschews the monolingual, monocultural experience. Spanish, as the most widely spoken minority language in the United States today, when pedagogically paired with other Romance languages through networked, comparative, and translational methods, has the potential to pave the way to access and advantage in an increasingly interconnected world.

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# Brazil's Rise and Portuguese as a Strategic Foreign Language: Preparing Tomorrow's Military Leaders 



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#### Abstract

Brazil's meteoric rise as Latin America's economic superpower has prompted the United States government to reassess its strategic vision of South America and its relationship with Brazil. The next generation of US economic, business, political, and military leaders will likely be faced with a South American landscape heavily dominated by Brazil. The US Department of Defense (DoD) in particular has recognized the strategic importance of Brazil and the critical need for Portuguese language and culture training for military leaders involved in DoD missions in South America. This paper describes the reasons for adding Portuguese as one of the Air Force Academy's eight strategic foreign languages and the future of Portuguese FL education for tomorrow's military leaders.


Keywords: Air Force Academy, Brazil/Brasil, foreign policy/política estrangeira, military/militares, Portuguese/português

Portuguese is the seventh most important foreign language (FL) for English-speakers to learn, this according to a recent report by the British Council on International Education and Cultural Opportunities (Tinsley 2013) which reached this conclusion after considering a number of economic, geopolitical, and cultural factors. Likewise, Forbes magazine in 2014 ranked Portuguese as the sixth most important language for the future of international business (Morrison 2014). Moreover, the National Security Education Program (2015), a federal initiative designed to build a broader and more qualified pool of US federal employees with foreign language and international skills, lists Portuguese as one of the languages critical to our national security.

The Department of Foreign Languages (DFF) at the United States Air Force Academy (USAFA) in Colorado Springs added Portuguese to its FL curricula in 2007 and the program has been growing steadily ever since. Since its inception, the Portuguese FL program at USAFA has provided language education and acculturation training to over 1,200 young Air Force officers-shaping military leaders with a more global perspective and an awareness of the increasing importance of Portuguese as a FL in the United States and in the DoD in particular.

So why Portuguese? Over the past 20 years, while the economies of most Latin American countries have been shrinking, and in some cases going into recession, Brazil's economy has tripled in size, earning Brazil the title of Latin America's economic superpower by many foreign policy experts and business leaders. With a 2016 gross domestic product of over $\$ 1.7$ trillion dollars, Brazil is currently the ninth largest economy in the world and is the United States' ninth largest trading partner (Gray 2017). Brazil also occupies the world's fifth largest landmass holding
twelve percent of the world's fresh water supply, and is home to the fifth largest population in the world.

Between 2000 and 2014, Brazil's conservative market-oriented macroeconomic policies helped grow its economy by 300 percent, from $\$ 657$ billion in 2000 to over $\$ 2$ trillion in 2014. Between 2014 and 2016, however, Brazil's hard monetary policies by Dilma Rousseff's administration caused the GDP to drop by $28 \%$ to $\$ 1.7$ trillion in 2016. Despite this three year economic recession, the latest economic figures show an economy that bottomed out by the third quarter of 2016 and is currently showing signs of a slow recovery (Nassif 2017). According to government officials, Brazil's economy grew by $1 \%$ in the first three months of 2017, putting an end to the country's longest recession in history. In addition, a 2017 report by PricewaterhouseCoopers projects that by 2030, Brazil will still have the eight largest economy in the world-just behind Germany and ahead of Mexico-with a $\$ 4.4$ trillion GDP.

From 2000 to 2015, Brazil's economy greatly benefited from trade agreements with China, Russia, India, its Latin American neighbors, and the African Union. Brazil's trade agreements with African nations in 2011, for example, were worth an estimated $\$ 20.6$ billion (Bodman and Wolfensohn 2011) second only to China. Furthermore, between 2000 and 2009, Brazilian trade with other Latin American partner nations grew by over 253 percent. To put it in perspective, investments made in Mexico, the Caribbean, Central, and South America by Brazil's National Development Bank (BNDES) in 2010 reached $\$ 100$ billion, exceeding investments made by both the Inter-American Development Bank and the World Bank combined (Bodman and Wolfensohn 2011).

Brazil's dramatic rise as a world economic power has earned them a seat among the G20, a forum with representatives from the world's top 20 economies. As a result, slowly but gradually, Brazil has been increasing its defense spending, a fact that has not gone unnoticed by the United States and other world powers. Although Brazil's defense spending has been historically low, perceived regional threats to its national security and natural resources in the Amazon, along with the responsibilities associated with hosting the 2014 World Cup and the 2016 Olympic Games, swayed former President Rousseff's administration to increase military spending in recent years. As of 2016, Brazil had the thirteenth highest rate of defense spending in the world in terms of dollars spent ( $\$ 23.7$ B), just behind Australia. In fact, Brazil's defense budget currently accounts for over half of Latin America's total defense expenditures (Trinkunas 2014). Brazil has been able to take advantage of this newfound economic and military clout to campaign for a permanent seat at the United Nations Security Council and has taken a greater role in United Nations peacekeeping military operations, in Haiti primarily, where Brazil has led peacekeeping operations since 2004 (Trinkunas 2014). Despite the fact that for decades Brazil has had a military presence in the Amazon, in recent years Brazil has increased its military operations and training in this region, and has been conducting jungle warfare and defense training operations to protect its most precious commodity-the Amazon's minerals and vast supplies of fresh water. Many regional experts believe that Brazil feels threatened by other nations in the region who want to gain access to these natural resources. Some Brazilian military strategists believe that the United States poses such a threat; US officials, however, deny such claims (Romero 2014). This issue underscores the need for better communication and closer ties between our two governments.

The US federal government has taken notice of Brazil's current status as a major global broker. Former President Obama's administration acknowledged the need to renew bilateral relationships with Brazil. Thus, since 2012 the two nations have signed numerous agreements to work together on issues such as biofuels, defense, peacekeeping operations and nonproliferation, civil aviation and space, science and technology, educational exchanges, and food security (Bodman and Wolfensohn 2011). In 2012, President Obama and President Rousseff agreed to establish the US-Brazil Defense Cooperation Dialogue (DCD). According to the White House Office of the Press Secretary, "the DCD will facilitate strengthened cooperation between the US Department of Defense and Brazil's Ministry of Defense, and between our nations' militaries"
(White House 2012). The DCD has resulted in a number of agreements between the two nations, including the US-Brazil Defense Cooperation Agreement, the General Security of Military Information Agreement, military exercises and exchanges, cooperation in Haiti, and humanitarian and disaster response operations. During a 2012 visit to Brazil's Superior War College in Rio de Janeiro, then Secretary of Defense Leon Panetta called for closer military relations with Brazil and stated that "Our common interests are so great, and the possibilities that come from our cooperation are so tangible, that we must seize this opportunity to build a stronger defense partnership for the future" (2012). In 2015, former US Defense Secretary Ashton Carter and the Brazilian Defense Minister discussed the importance of expanding trade and defense technology cooperation and emphasized the opportunities for future joint development and production of defense technologies (DoD News 2015).

These new defense agreements and all future US-Brazil military cooperation, however, will require State Department and Defense Department officials, along with soldiers, sailors, airmen, and marines, to have a high level of Portuguese language proficiency and regional and cultural expertise. Historically, the DoD has focused its language and acculturation training mainly on geopolitically and militarily strategic languages such as Russian, Arabic, Chinese, and more recently, Pashto. Portuguese, however, has never been of strategic significance, until now. DoD leaders have recognized the strategic importance of Brazil and the critical need for Portuguese language training for military leaders involved in defense, security, and peacekeeping operations in Latin America. Since 2002, the US and Brazilian armed forces have conducted a wide range of joint military operations and exercises requiring defense officials and military personnel with language skills, cultural understanding, and regional expertise to succeed in these operations. The US Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) has been providing Portuguese language training to active duty and DoD civilian personnel from all branches of the US military for decades. It is apparent, however, that the demand for Portuguese speakers in the DoD will continue to outpace the supply. To address this growing need for military leaders with Portuguese language proficiency and culture awareness, in 2007 the US Air Force Academy added Portuguese to their FL curricula in order to train and educate our future military leaders in the language and culture of the second largest and fastest growing economy in the Western Hemisphere-Brazil. According to former US Secretary of Defense Leon Panetta,

> Language, regional, and cultural skills . . . are critical to mission readiness in today's dynamic global environment. Our forces must have the ability to effectively communicate with and understand the cultures of coalition forces, international partners, and local populations. (2011)

The mission of DFF at USAFA is to educate and train future Air Force leaders with these insights and skills needed to be effective military leaders in a global context. In 2007, USAFA added an eighth language-Portuguese-to its FL education curricula, and in 2015 the Academy welcomed its first exchange officer from the Brazilian Air Force as a Portuguese language and political science instructor. Currently, USAFA offers FL minors in eight languages: Spanish, French, German, Japanese, Russian, Arabic, Chinese, and of course, Portuguese. At its inception in 2007, the Portuguese program started with two Portuguese professors offering six sections of beginner level I Portuguese. Today, DFF's Portuguese division consists of six instructors and professors, including the Brazilian exchange officer, offering twelve Portuguese language courses, from beginner level I to advanced special projects in level IV.

One factor that has contributed to the growth in the number of students interested in Portuguese as a FL at USAFA is the number of Spanish heritage speakers enrolled at the Academy. Research shows that there is an increasing demand for Portuguese from Spanish speakers in the United States. According to a survey study conducted in 2010, Portuguese language faculties from across the United States estimate that forty-five percent of Portuguese FL students are

Spanish speakers, compared to sixteen percent English-only speakers and eighteen percent Portuguese heritage speakers (Milleret 2014). An estimated ten percent of the 4,000+ cadets at USAFA are of Hispanic or Latino background and more and more of them each year show interest in learning Portuguese. For this reason, in 2008 USAFA started a Portuguese for Spanish Speakers course at the intermediate level and the demand for this course has been high. Between 2008 and 2016, DFF had 2,780 enrollees in Portuguese courses, of which 173 were enrolled in Portuguese for Spanish Speakers. Between 2008 and 2012, DFF had a total of 47 enrollments in Portuguese for Spanish Speakers-one section per semester. In the 2015-16 academic year alone, DFF had 44 students enrolled in the same course, an almost 200 percent increase.

Students (also known as cadets at USAFA) have the option of majoring in Foreign Area Studies (FAS), focusing their studies in a specific region of the world and minoring in a FL. The FAS major at USAFA consists of an interdisciplinary exploration of one of six geo-cultural regions of interest to the DoD: Africa, Europe, the Middle East, Asia, Slavic countries and Latin America. Students majoring in FAS with a focus in Latin America have the option of minoring in either Spanish or Portuguese. In order to receive a Portuguese minor, students must take a minimum of five courses (fifteen credit hours) at the intermediate, 200-level or above. Moreover, students must take a number of interdisciplinary courses in history, political science, economics, military strategic studies, and geospatial science-all with a focus in Latin America. The overall goal of the Academy's FAS program is to produce well-rounded regional experts who understand the social, cultural, and geopolitical environment of each region within the larger global context in which these regions operate; these regional experts would have a moderate level of fluency in a specific FL and the cultural competency needed to be successful Air Force leaders in today's global environment.

In addition to the academic work in the classroom, DFF and the International Programs Office at USAFA offer FAS majors and language minors the opportunity to enhance their language skills, cultural knowledge, and experience by traveling abroad through a number of different programs offered by the Academy: summer language immersions, a semester abroad, a semester exchange (with another foreign military academy), foreign military academy visits, and short-term cultural immersions. In the fall of 2017, USAFA and the Brazilian Air Force Academy started an annual cadet exchange program as part of a newly signed cadet exchange agreement between the two air forces. Portuguese learners at USAFA also have the opportunity to compete and be selected to spend a semester at the Pontifícia Universidade Católica in either São Paulo or Rio de Janeiro, or at the University of Porto in Portugal, where they enroll in pre-approved academic courses in the target language that satisfy the students' academic major requirements at USAFA. Students also compete for one of the Academy's Cadet Summer Language Immersion Programs (CSLIP) in Brazil or Portugal. During the month-long CSLIP, USAFA students study language courses at an accredited university or language school in either Brazil or Portugal. Students generally spend half of each day in the classroom learning new foreign language skills; the rest of the day they spend immersed in the culture and practicing the language. Each student on CSLIP is placed with host families in the country, and at the request of USAFA, these are usually families that do not speak English. USAFA's short-term Cultural Immersion Program (CIP) is another opportunity for Portuguese students to spend time immersed in the language and culture of a Portuguese-speaking country. Through CIPs, Portuguese students and their faculty mentors work together to plan overseas travel from one to three weeks in duration. Students submit proposals that include a reading group or special topics course taught in the spring semester in which cadets study the culture or plan a project related to the country chosen for travel. This pre-travel preparation allows cadets to build on classroom knowledge during their time overseas. CIPs are generously supported by the George and Carol Olmsted Foundation, and more recently USAFA's Class of ' 81 Endowment (USAFA, 2015). Since 2007, the Academy has sent Portuguese language students on CSLIPs and CIPs to Brazilian cities such as Montes Claros (Minas Gerais), São Paulo (São Paulo), Recife (Pernambuco), Fernando de

Noronha (Pernambuco), Teresina (Piauí), and Rio de Janeiro (Rio de Janeiro), plus european cities such as Porto and Lisbon in Portugal. As far as Lusophone Africa, USAFA cadets have had the opportunity to travel to Mozambique, Cape Verde, São Tomé and Príncipe, and GuineaBissau. Additionally, during Spring Break, many USAFA Portuguese students are also given the opportunity to visit the Brazilian Air Force Academy in Pirassununga, São Paulo, the largest Air Force Academy in Latin America. These visits offer USAFA students the opportunity to build lasting relationships with their peers in the Brazilian Air Force—relationships that will help build stronger ties between our two militaries. The travel abroad opportunities offered by USAFA help future Air Force leaders gain a broader perspective of the world in which we operate, a perspective that greatly enhances students' academic and personal growth, as well as their linguistic and cultural proficiency.

Portuguese language students at USAFA also have the opportunity to conduct scholarly research as undergraduate students with their professors in areas such as Portuguese linguistics, literature, and language pedagogy. One recently published study carried out by a USAFA Portuguese professor and a student looked at the linguistic interference between Spanish and Portuguese (De Souza, Lystrup, and Scharff 2013).

At the end of the language program, students minoring in Portuguese have the opportunity to take the Portuguese Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT). DLPT scores help Air Force officers qualify for a number of DoD international programs while on active duty, including entry into the Air Force's Regional Affairs Strategist and Political-Military Affairs Strategist programs. DLPT scores are reported in terms of the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) scale. DLPT lower-range tests are intended to cover ILR levels 0+ (ACTFL Novice High) through 3 (ACTFL Superior). Upper-range tests are intended to cover ILR levels 3 through 4 (ACTFL Superior through Distinguished). Since the beginning of the Portuguese language program at USAFA, 100 percent of the students minoring in Portuguese have achieved a score between 2 and 3 in the DLPT, which is certainly a tremendous achievement considering the test's difficulty and the cadets' extremely demanding academic, military, and athletic schedule at USAFA. Upon graduation, young Air Force officers with FL proficiency qualify for the DoD's Foreign Language Proficiency Pay (FLPP). The FLPP offers entitlements of up to $\$ 500$ per month—depending on proficiency level-to those active duty members with a Portuguese language proficiency of at least 2/2/2 (IRL scale) in listening, reading, and speaking (Advanced in the ACTFL scale) as measured by the DLPT and Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI). Such monetary incentives underscore the importance the US Air Force and, in turn, the US government, places upon the development of language and cultural proficiency.

The Portuguese language and culture program at USAFA has been growing steadily over the past ten years, and its future continues to be bright. If recent trends continue, the economic, political, and military ties between the United States and Brazil will continue grow into the foreseeable future. As such, USAFA will continue to train and educate tomorrow's military leaders to become "ambassadors" with international foresight, FL proficiency, and cultural and regional competence. Former President Barrack Obama affirmed the importance of the Academy's language initiative "because in the 21st century, military strength will be measured not only by the weapons our troops carry, but by the languages they speak and the cultures they understand" (2009). There are many political and military leaders in the United States who truly understand the global challenges our nation faces and the critical need for government officials to include airmen, sailors, soldiers, and marines with the language, culture, and regional expertise needed to build stronger ties with our Latin American allies, including Brazil. DFF at USAFA will continue to educate and prepare future military leaders to successfully engage with our allies and to better understand our adversaries.

It will be interesting to see how the outcome of the current 2014-17 political and economic crisis will affect the growth of Brazil's economy and its military, and whether it will impact in any way the political and military relationships between Brazil and the United States. President

Michel Temer, current embattled president of Brazil, is promising to bring public spending under control and increase GDP. On August 2, 2017, legislators narrowly voted against referring President Temer's corruption case to Brazil's Supreme Court. Political experts in Brazil are now confident that Temer will be allowed to complete his term as president which they view as positive in light of his reform agenda (The Economist 2017).

Portuguese language and foreign area studies students at USAFA, and DoD regional experts in general, must remain informed about current events in the region if they are going to play a significant role in future US-Brazil military relationships.

## DISCLAIMER

The views expressed in this article are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the official policy or position of the United States Air Force Academy, the Air Force, the Department of Defense, or the US Government. The release number is USAFA-DF-PA-286.

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Response 1 to "Brazil's Rise and Portuguese as a Strategic Foreign Language: Preparing Tomorrow's Military Leaders"

# Portuguese as a World Language for Future Army Officers 



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Keywords: Army/exército, MLA, Portuguese/português, United States Military Academy, World War II/ Segunda Guerra Mundial

TThere is no denying that Brazil is still a major power player in Latin America and, in many ways, the world as well. However, Brazil's meteoric economic rise after emerging fairly unscathed from the economic crisis that hit the world in 2007-08 was followed by a no less meteoric fall leading up to the 2016 Olympic Games. More recently, popular unrest and strikes have occurred as a direct result to the current government's tightening of the federal budget; serious political scandals, to include the April 2016 impeachment of President Dilma Rousseff, continue to hamper the creation of an effective and stable government; and any hope for a quick resurgence in the economy is offset by occasional news reports of cities going bankrupt amid ongoing claims of government corruption. All of these events, while certainly not unique to Brazil, nonetheless present significant obstacles in Brazil returning in the near future to its most recent former economic glory. That said, like success, conflict can also be a driving force behind any increased interest in a country or culture and, therefore, the Portuguese language is just as strategic now as it ever has been, if not even more so.

At the United States Military Academy at West Point (Army), Portuguese has been considered an important language, if not technically labeled "strategic," since World War II. While initially funded in 1942, the program effectively began with the addition of the first Brazilian Exchange Officer, Capitão Jorge Augusto Vidal, to the foreign language faculty in 1946. This position was important for many reasons. First, it represented an acknowledgment between the US and Brazilian governments (Truman and Dutra) of a reciprocal desire for the further strengthening of political and military ties between the two countries. As an exchange position, this agreement requires that one US Army Officer be sent to Brazil to teach at their Escola Superior da Guerra in Rio de Janeiro. The creation of this position was also a direct result of Brazil sending its famed Brazilian Expeditionary Force (Força Expedicionária Brasileira [FEB]) to fight alongside US/Allied forces in Italy from 1944-45, with the officer exchange symbolically reinforcing the ties that were forged between to the two nations on the battle lines. To date, 34 continuous Brazilian officers, ranking from Captain through Colonel, have taught Portuguese language and content courses to Army cadets at West Point.

Interest in the Portuguese language among cadets, much like their civilian counterparts, has been consistently growing over the past decade or two, although we have seen a stabilization
in our enrollments (roughly 150-160 every year in our first-year sequence) in recent years. According to the MLA Language Enrollment Database (1958-2013), students taking Portuguese language courses at the university level have more than doubled since 1986, from 5,021 students in 1986 to 12,415 in 2013, the most recent year available from the survey. Our program at USMA also encourages the global aspect of Portuguese, as it is spoken as an official language in now nine countries on four different continents. Our cadets take advantage of semester abroad opportunities in Portugal and Brazil, as well as short-term immersion experiences in Portugal, Brazil, Lusophone Africa (Mozambique and Cabo Verde to date) and Macau. With the ever-changing world and the uncertainties that come with it, Portuguese will no doubt remain a significant and strategic language for many years to come. As long as we retain our relationships with Portuguese-speaking countries, either through exchanges or immersion programs that provide opportunities for student interactions, we are creating opportunities for success for our future military leaders who are facing such an unpredictable future. And, whether they are assigned to Lajes Air Force Base in the Azores, or complete the Jungle School (Selva) with the Brazilian Army in the Amazon, the most important thing is that our future military leaders should be able to adapt their language skills to any future situation.

In summary, other Portuguese-speaking countries, such as the Sub-Saharan African nations of Angola and Mozambique, are also growing in importance due to their economic and political potential. It is essential to maintain previously established relationships, such as those that we currently have with Portugal and Brazil, through periods of economic and cultural advances as well as in times of turmoil and economic uncertainty. Brazil, regardless of its political or economic situation, will always remain of utmost strategic importance for future officers.

## DISCLAIMER

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Response 2 to "Brazil's Rise and Portuguese as a Strategic Foreign Language: Preparing Tomorrow's Military Leaders"

## Student Motivation in Learning Portuguese



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Keywords: Brazil/Brasil, less-commonly taught languages/línguas menos comumente ensinadas, Portuguese/ português, student-centered learning/aprendizagem centrada no aluno

TThe Air Force Academy has decided to add Portuguese as one of its strategic foreign languages, this in part because of a number of pragmatic, political, economic and social reasons. (And this is despite the fact that Brazil is currently suffering through a serious economic recession, political corruption scandals and massive civil unrest.) For the rest of us, what is our motivation in building and sustaining programs in Portuguese?

Notice that even this question shows a bias on perspective. Often in academic settings the stimulus for program development is teacher-centered or institution-focused. Rarely are learner needs or society demands the catalyst for program change. This is a delicate balance, which is no way minimizes the importance of the teachers, researchers or institutions. In the case of the Portuguese language, however, personal motivations that are learner-centered surpass all other reasons for learning the language. Learners of Portuguese by and large are self-motivated learners. To be honest, almost all learners of Portuguese ignore the typical promotional reasons that are given for learning Portuguese (e.g., seventh most spoken language, over 200 million speakers, former Portuguese colonies, etc.). None of these reasons is personal, and in learning Portuguese everything is personal. The following statements, typical of the types of reasons all teachers of Portuguese hear from students, illustrate why students want to learn:

- I study botany and every summer I go to the Amazon to search for new species of plants.
- As a geologist I'm currently learning to cut semiprecious stones. I hope to learn Portuguese to be able to buy stones when I go to Minas Gerais.
- I play in a band and we've been learning forró. It's just awesome and it's given me the bug to learn Portuguese.
- My mom is from São Paulo and I've always wanted to be able to talk to my relatives in Brazil.
- My parents were missionaries in Brazil and I hope to return and do the same.
- I am interested in alternative energy sources and Brazil is way ahead in sugarcanebased renewable energy.
- How come Brazilian soccer stadiums are so run down? I want to go to Brazil to study the reasons.
- I lived on the Peruvian border with Brazil. I'm amazed at how locals cross borders to take advantage of programs from both governments.
- Brazilian jiu jitsu is unique among martial arts. I'm catching on, but I want to learn from personal trainers in Rio.

This list could go one with hundreds of additional entries.
If we believe in a student-center approach to education, Portuguese language offers a gigantic opportunity. Our challenge is that it is difficult to create a program that centers on student needs and at the same time meets the perceived logistic and programmatic requirements that academic structures impose. Our reality is that tuitions, prerequisites, majors, credit hours, class size, grading restrictions, and a host of other factors diminish our effectiveness in meeting the needs of students, who already have specific goals associated with their Portuguese language learning.

What does all this mean? It means that we need to personalize the teaching of Portuguese. Allow students from the very beginning to shape their language learning to fit their goals. It means that "language for specific purposes" applies to every learner. It means that traditional programs should give way to individualized objectives. Even without full restructuring, there are simple things that we can do to move from an institutional model of teaching Portuguese to a learner-centered approach. First, at every level and in every course, create a syllabus that has enough flexibility to include student-generated content. Authorize students to choose their own topics and readings, even their own vocabulary. Second, allow students to build this content on an individual basis. That is to say, accept that not everyone needs to read and study the exact same material. Third, recruit students with marketing that promotes this individualized emphasis. For example, apprise science, communication, business, and humanities students of their ability to customize their Portuguese learning.

Educators in Portuguese, we occupy a privileged position among our peers. In thinking of the vision for the future of language acquisition, we have an opportunity to lead the way in student-centered learning. Kudos to The Air Force Academy for moving in this direction, and may the rest of us do likewise.

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# ¿Españoles mundiales? En busca de un paradigma 



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#### Abstract

Resumen: Mientras el campo de World Englishes está bien desarrollado, el estudio del español está principalmente limitado a los estudios dialectales/sociolingüísticos sin investigar las consecuencias del español como lengua global. ${ }^{1}$ Por eso, el concepto de 'españoles mundiales' se basa en el paradigma de tres contextos de uso (interior, exterior y en expansión), que tienen poblaciones y usos de español distintos (Kachru 1985). Este ensayo pretende establecer el círculo exterior para el español, enfocándose en los factores sociolingüísticos de Guinea Ecuatorial y el Sahara Occidental para ayudar a legitimar las variedades al margen del mundo hispanófono (como las de África).

Palabras clave: dialectología/dialectology, españoles mundiales/World Spanishes, Guinea Ecuatorial/ Equatorial Guinea, ingleses mundiales/World Englishes, Sahara Occidental/Western Sahara, sociolingüística/sociolinguistics


## 1. La introducción

E1 concepto de World Englishes (ingleses mundiales) se basa en la idea de que el inglés como lengua global tiene muchas variedades distintas y válidas. Al contrario de como otros campos simplemente etiquetan a los hablantes como nativo versus no nativo, este campo utiliza un enfoque crítico (no solo descriptivo) para legitimar tanto las variedades de las sociedades poscoloniales (e.g., India), sino también las de países donde el estudio y el uso del inglés es importante y está en desarrollo (e.g., China) (Kachru, Kachru, y Nelson 2009). En este ensayo el término 'españoles mundiales' se refiere a esta misma idea de legitimar las variedades poco conocidas, pero del español, utilizando enfoques sociolingüísticos. También se examina el español de un contexto global y pluricéntrico (véase Bolton [2008]) más que ser un estudio de dialectología que identifica los rasgos de algunas variedades. La meta es ofrecer otro marco teórico para analizar las variedades de español que puede fortalecer su validez ante la tendencia de negar su variedad, lo cual pasa a muchos hablantes del "círculo exterior" (Kachru, 1985: 18).

Revolucionario para el campo, el paradigma de ingleses mundiales según Kachru (2006) consiste en tres círculos concéntricos (interior, exterior y en expansión) de las variedades de inglés y las divide según la extensión histórica, los patrones de adquisición, la penetración del idioma en los distintos niveles sociales y la función actual del inglés (e.g., si existe una variedad nativa) (196). El interior incluye los países tradicionalmente anglófonos como Inglaterra o Australia con el inglés como lengua oficial o por lo menos lengua principal. El exterior incluye los países y las sociedades con una historia de colonización y/o contacto por los países del primer círculo; por consiguiente hablan el inglés como lengua franca entre los habitantes aunque tienen otras lenguas maternas. El círculo en expansión incluye los países donde muchos aprenden el inglés y lo usan en ciertos sectores de la sociedad como la educación o los negocios, pero no lo hablan mucho en todos los sectores y niveles sociales.

La segunda sección del ensayo discutirá la difusión mundial del español. La tercera sección aplicará el paradigma de ingleses mundiales al paradigma de españoles mundiales (Kachru 1985, 2006). La cuarta sección y la quinta analizarán los contextos específicos de Guinea Ecuatorial y el Sahara Occidental para destacar dos variedades africanas, las cuales no se investigan tanto, aunque hay mucho que aprender con respecto al papel sociolingüístico del español en esas sociedades. Este ensayo concluye con las consecuencias positivas de adoptar el concepto de españoles mundiales para los países del círculo exterior.

## 2. La propagación del español y las influencias regularizadoras

Para organizar los países hispanohablantes en los círculos es necesario considerar el estado del español en los países hispanohablantes y en los que tienen muchos hispanohablantes. Según el CIA World Factbook (2014a), en Europa el español es la lengua oficial de España y también se habla extensamente en Andorra y Gibraltar. En las Américas el español es una lengua oficial de dieciocho países y es una lengua importante de los Estados Unidos y oficial en Puerto Rico. También hay muchos hispanohablantes en Belice.

En África el español es una lengua oficial de Guinea Ecuatorial y el Sahara Occidental; también tiene la presencia del español debido a su historia colonial. Marruecos todavía tiene vínculos españoles más que nada por los dos territorios de Ceuta y Melilla en su costa norteña (Resnick y Hammond 2011: 9-10). En Asia, solo las Filipinas exhiben una influencia española por la previa ocupación por España.

Más allá del hecho de que hay muchos países hispanohablantes, hay muchos dialectos entre los países y dentro de cada país. La Real Academia Española (RAE) cuyo lema es "Limpia, fija y da esplendor" parece, para unos, la autoridad suprema de lo que es oficialmente la lengua española. Junto con el hecho de que produce materiales didácticos para el español, se enfrenta potencialmente en un tipo de guerra cultural donde puede poner en tela de juicio algunos aspectos de ciertas variedades. Por ejemplo, la RAE, en su diccionario frecuentemente denomina ciertas entradas de países específicos como frases coloquiales, lo que sugiere (por lo menos en el pasado) la actitud de la RAE contra una falta de estandarización de la lengua. Es más, La Asociación de Academias de la Lengua Española (que incluye todos los países hispanohablantes de Latinoamérica, los Estados Unidos, y las Filipinas) intenta estandarizar la lengua contra la corriente del cambio lingüístico. Exactamente como Kachru (2008) afirma que el inglés quiere exportar su cultura anglófona junto con la lengua, tal vez las organizaciones que intentan estandarizar el idioma busquen asegurar no solo exportar la cultura hispanófona, sino específicamente su variedad estándar (el español peninsular en el caso de la RAE) y su entorno cultural relevante.

## 3. El paradigma de Kachru de ingleses mundiales y su aplicación a españoles mundiales

Como el modelo de $\operatorname{Kachru}(1985,2006)$ que está basado en las motivaciones históricas y el contacto lingüístico/cultural, el modelo para españoles mundiales también se basa en la fuerza del contacto hispanófono. Para construir el círculo interior del español utilizando su modelo, es necesario seguir su descripción original de los rasgos mencionados arriba que cada círculo demuestra. Para el círculo interior, España sería definitivamente el epicentro tradicional junto con las zonas anteriormente colonias en Latinoamérica. El español es la lengua principal de estos países y la lengua más hablada. Además estos países son exportadores de la cultura hispanófona. Identificar el círculo exterior no es tan fácil. Kachru (1985) explicó que en este círculo la lengua (en este caso español) solo es uno de los códigos lingüísticos que está disponible para la sociedad, y que esta misma lengua hace parte de la política lingüística (12). Teniendo esto en cuenta, el punto de partida para hacer una lista de candidatos posibles para el círculo exterior comienza con dos rasgos que son los más fáciles de identificar: "extended periods of colonization,
essentially by the users of the inner circle varieties" y "the linguistic and cultural effects of such colonization are now a part of their histories" (Kachru 1985: 12). Es más, cuando Kachru (1985) agrupó los países en el círculo exterior, incluyó los países donde el inglés es una lengua oficial, una lengua estatal, o una lengua principal en ciertos sectores, o como una lengua requerida para ciertos sectores (12-13). Él continuó enumerando los factores como hacer parte de un contexto cultural no inglés, existir en distintos dominios de la sociedad y a niveles diferentes, y empezar hacer parte de la tradición literaria debido a los escritores del círculo exterior. Por eso, en estas sociedades, el inglés tiene mucho alcance y profundidad. Entonces, el círculo exterior para el español debe tener poblaciones que tienen una historia colonial en la que los españoles no se instalaron y no se convirtieron en la población dominante. ${ }^{2}$ Se puede visualizar los círculos más abajo en el Gráfico 1.

Según estas combinaciones de criterios Guinea Ecuatorial y el Sahara Occidental son candidatos probables para el círculo exterior del español. Guinea Ecuatorial estaba bajo el dominio español durante casi dos siglos y el Sahara Occidental estaba bajo el control español durante casi un siglo (CIA 2014b, 2014c). Cuando se aplica el criterio de los estados lingüísticos y culturales, Guinea Ecuatorial otra vez se conforma a estos factores. A continuación verán más factores históricos y actuales que contribuyen a la clasificación de estos dos países como los del círculo exterior. ${ }^{3}$


Gráfico 1. Los tres círculos concéntricos de los españoles mundiales basado en el gráfico de Kachru (2006: 196)

## 4. La cuestión del español y la identidad en Guinea Ecuatorial

Según Lipski (2000) el español goza de un uso extenso en Guinea Ecuatorial debido a los esfuerzos exitosos del sistema educativo español, lo que también ha contribuido a que Guinea Ecuatorial tiene una de "las tasas más altas de la alfabetización de África" (71). Lipski (2000) menciona un par de otros factores que aumenta la presencia española: las misas presentadas en español y los funcionarios religiosos que proveen muchos recursos médicos a los pueblos más pequeños (11). Además, el gobierno español también ha mandado especialistas médicos a varios pueblos que fortalece una relación positiva entre ellos y los residentes.

Aunque el español se habla extensamente, hay algunos obstáculos que previenen que el español sea la única lengua principal hasta la geografía, puesto que la capital, Malabo, se encuentra en la isla Bioko, lejos del resto del país ubicado en el continente. Un obstáculo que Lipski (2000) anota es que el inglés pidgin se habla mucho en Guinea Ecuatorial, y se usa muchas veces como lengua franca, lo que restringe el uso del español a las situaciones bien oficiales (15-16). De manera similar cuando hay una lengua indígena en común, se habla ese idioma en vez del español o el inglés pidgin. Sin embargo, una observación importante es que los ecuatoguineanos hablan frecuentemente en español cuando están en el extranjero, supuestamente como un símbolo de identificación que los distingue de otros africanos que hablan francés o portugués (Lipski 2000: 13). Este uso del español como marca de identidad es necesario para la validación y evolución del español ecuatoguineano. Si la gente está orgullosa de su idioma y se identifica con ello, es más probable que adopte su propia variedad en vez de identificarse con la variedad peninsular. De hecho, hay aspectos fonéticos y sintácticos que distinguen el español guineano (Casado-Fresnillo 1995), aunque el desafío es ver estos aspectos no como interferencia lingüística sino reconocerlos como elementos de una variedad aparte.

Otro aspecto notable del español en Guinea Ecuatorial es que la literatura en español ha crecido. Aunque crear una literatura nacional es una indicación de que una variedad se fortalece, Lipski (2000) nota que todos los autores se educaron en España y hablan y escriben en un registro de español muy culto (28). Su literatura no demuestra ningún rasgo específico del español guineano más allá de ciertos vocablos locales. Se debe al estigma que asocian con el habla general de la población; unos piensan que no es culto y otros que es un español no completamente adquirido. Dado que algunos ecuatoguineanos carecen de la educación formal de español, muchos se expresan con su variedad de español. Si pueden desarrollar su variedad y crear recursos que describen las normas, entonces pueden fortalecer su enlace a la comunidad hispanófona. ${ }^{4}$

## 5. El conflicto en el Sahara Occidental

El Sahara Occidental estaba ocupado por España por varias décadas (Munene 2010). Elena Fiddian-Qasmiyeh (2011) dice que la época colonial española dio lugar a un momento de educación extensa para los saharauis cuando el sistema de escuelas primarias y secundarias expandió mucho (435). La mayoría de estas escuelas atendió a la clase alta urbana y no acomodaba el estilo de vida nómada de muchos de los saharauis puesto que los españoles consideraban a los ciudadanos como de segunda clase (Munene 2010: 97-99). Por eso, a pesar de los esfuerzos educativos, la tasa de alfabetización se queda baja y muchos todavía consideran que el sistema colonial español es represivo y restrictivo (Fiddian-Qasmiyeh 2011: 435). Una vez que España renunció control, el Sahara Occidental no se volvió una nación soberana sino un territorio en litigio con Marruecos y Mauritania, los cuales lo reclamaban. De hecho, desde 1963 el estado político del país está en litigio según la ONU. Esta disputa causó un éxodo masivo a Argelia donde los saharauis existen como una nación en exilio con su administración, el Polisario, el cual gobierna los campos de refugiados (CIA 2014c). Así que cuando hablamos del Sahara Occidental, hablamos principalmente de los campos de refugiados

Muchos saharauis hablan español porque es una de las lenguas oficiales y los conecta al mundo hispanohablante aunque la lengua principal es el hasanía (un dialecto de árabe) (Tarkki 1995: 85). También John Lipski (2005) afirma que el español se habla mucho en los campos como marca de identidad como en Guinea Ecuatorial (33). Junto con el hecho de que los niños empiezan a aprender el español en la primaria, existe una idea muy fuerte que el español les da oportunidades (Tarkki 1995: 83). De hecho, hay dos programas recientes que han ayudado a mantener los enlaces con la comunidad hispanohablante en la población refugiada. Un programa con España llamado Vacaciones en Paz requiere que las familias españolas hospeden a los niños jóvenes durante un verano o más, lo que mejora el español de los niños. A menudo sus hermanos son hospedados por las mismas familias (San Martín 2010: 161). Muchas familias mantienen contacto con los niños después de que vuelven a los campos, y visitan a sus 'niños' saharauis, especialmente durante días feriados programados por el Polisario, lo cual mantiene una presencia fuerte de la lengua, la gente, y la cultura española entre los saharauis.

El segundo programa les ofrece a los jóvenes adultos saharauis una educación en Cuba y hay tantos participantes que llaman a ellos cubarauis. Este fenómeno se llama "migración educativa" (Fiddian-Qasmiyeh 2011: 434). Muchos saharauis que estudian la medicina vuelven a los campos de refugiados para ayudar a la gente y frecuentemente trabajan en los puestos altos en los campos de refugiados. Cuando Fiddian-Qasmiyeh (2011) entrevistó a los niños, uno dijo, "You have to study first in Cuba, and then become a doctor, because the doctors have to speak Spanish" (439). Así que hay una conexión fuerte en la mente de muchos saharauis jóvenes entre educarse y la necesidad de español. Sin embargo, algunos cubarauis se han aprovechado de su alto nivel de español para inmigrar a España, lo que puede generar rencor por parte de los saharauis en los campos de refugiados. Aún más, por este efecto dañino social, Fiddian-Qasmiyeh (2011) informa que el programa terminará (442). Sin embargo, los cubarauis son los enlaces entre el Polisario y miles de visitantes hispanohablantes que siguen visitando los campos. Y sin los cubarauis los médicos españoles viajan a los campos. Por eso, las necesidades médicas de los saharauis garantizan el contacto consistente con el español por ahora.

Un factor positivo del intercambio educacional cubano es que el Polisario hizo "un papel clave en desarrollar el currículo y elegir la lengua, el contenido, y las maneras de enseñanza" para los programas de Cuba (Fiddian-Qasmiyeh 2011: 443). Así el Polisario puede aprovechar de incluir cualquier aspecto de su variedad en la enseñanza. Esta cuestión de modelo de enseñanza es de suma importancia y hay que tener en cuenta las necesidades de la población local de aprendices (los saharauis) que aprende una lengua (Berns 2008); esto sería muy importante para el futuro de la enseñanza y el desarrollo del español saharaui.

## 6. La conclusión

A medida que el español se fortalece como lengua global, el concepto de "españoles mundiales" será más relevante. Este ensayo ha explorado una idea preliminar de un paradigma posible y dos variedades que pueden caber en el círculo exterior. Los dos contextos específicos presentados en las secciones 4 y 5 muestran como la historia compleja de un país o un pueblo figura en su uso del español. Para desarrollar la información en este campo, los investigadores necesitarán crear más perfiles sociolingüísticos para otros candidatos del círculo exterior y el círculo en expansión. Junto con esto hay que estudiar las características de las variedades para establecerlas y validarlas porque puede tener otras consecuencias positivas como herramientas pedagógicas eficaces para enseñar las variedades locales en vez de imponer normas estándares que los hablantes no siguen. Además, si españoles mundiales deviene un campo en sí mismo, tal vez las variedades del círculo exterior pueden desarrollarse y compartir su cultura a través de su variedad con el resto del mundo hispano.

## NOTAS

${ }^{1}$ Sin embargo, hay excepciones. Véase por ejemplo Mar-Molinero and Paffey (2011) y Mar-Molinero (2004).
${ }^{2}$ El analizar cada país donde una gran porción de la población habla español requeriría más análisis, así que este ensayo no incluirá un análisis profundo de los países que formarían el círculo en expansión.
${ }^{3}$ Otros candidatos pueden ser las Filipinas por su historia, y también Andorra, Belice y Gibraltar por su proximidad y la prominencia de español en estos lugares, pero no son los enfoques de este trabajo. Del mismo modo, las variedades de las comunidades de habla de otra lengua dentro de países hispanohablantes que son bilingües y tienen una afinidad a una cultura no hispanófona (e.g., el vasco, el catalán, y gallego, o incluso las lenguas indígenas [como el quechua y el náhuatl]) pueden formar comunidades del círculo exterior.
${ }^{4}$ De hecho, Guinea Ecuatorial acaba de solicitar oficialmente el ingreso a la Asociación de Academias de la Lengua Española (Agencia Efe 2015).

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Respuesta 1 a " "Españoles mundiales? En busca de un paradigma"

# ¿Español en el mundo chino? ¿Ficción o realidad? 

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#### Abstract

Palabras clave: China/China, Chinese speaker/sinohablante, Hong Kong/Hong-Kong, SFL in China/ ELE en China, Sinophone/sinófono, Spanish in China/español en China, Spanish speaker/hispanófono, Taiwan/Taiwán


En el artículo de Boris Yelin (2017) se señala la necesidad de crear un marco para hablar del español en el mundo y de sus variantes. Si tomamos el marco teórico para el "inglés en el mundo" (World English) desarrollado por Yamuna Kachru y Larry E. Smith (2009), es relativamente sencillo distinguir la posición del español en los círculos interior y exterior, a los que pertenecerían países con el español históricamente como lengua oficial (España) y aquéllos con una historia de colonización (países hispanoamericanos y africanos), respectivamente. Por otra parte, el círculo en expansión englobaría, en el contexto asiático, y más específicamente, en el ámbito sinófono, a China, Taiwán y Hong-Kong. Siguiendo a Kachru y Smith, el círculo en expansión para el español incluiría a aquellos países en los que se aprende esta lengua y se emplea en determinados contextos, como el educativo o el comercial. En el mundo sinófono se estudia el español desde mediados del siglo XIX y hoy es una de las lenguas europeas más estudiadas. Pero, ¿cuál es el futuro y el potencial del español en este contexto? ¿Está su futuro desarrollo limitado al nivel de interacción comercial entre las sociedades sinófonas y sus homólogas hispanófonas?

Desde que en el siglo XIX desembarcaran en China las primeras misiones diplomáticas extranjeras, la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras en este país ha pasado por un proceso inicial de desconfianza, una aceptación posterior a finales del periodo dinástico y una apertura progresiva a partir del siglo XX. A mediados del XIX comenzó la creación de centros de idiomas para modernizar la situación de la enseñanza de lenguas en China (Tai 2007: 784) y en 1952 se funda el primer departamento de español en el Instituto de Lenguas Extranjeras de Beijing, la actual Universidad de Estudios Extranjeros de Beijing (Fisac 2000). Más tardío es el caso de Hong-Kong, donde se impartió el primer curso oficial de español a lo largo del curso académico 1993-1994 en la Universidad de Hong-Kong (Santos Rovira 2011: 34). En Taiwán a partir de la década de los 1950 comienzan las clases de español en un contexto oficial, en la Universidad Nacional de Taiwán.

Hoy por hoy, es notable el creciente interés del estudiante chino por la lengua y cultura españolas en contextos sinófonos. El futuro de la enseñanza en China, Taiwán y Hong-Kong se enfrenta a un alumnado más exigente, con acceso a traducciones simultáneas y métodos de enseñanza por internet que pueden entrar en conflicto con la enseñanza oficial. Se busca la utilidad de lo aprendido a toda costa y la motivación a través de las salidas profesionales que pueda tener el español (Cortés 2013). Sin duda, la enseñanza tradicional centrada en la gramática y la memorización de vocabulario está cambiando con los nuevos materiales didácticos y la adaptación del marco europeo a los centros de estudio (Sánchez Griñán et al. 2011: 49-50). Aún así,
nos encontramos todavía con un alumnado tremendamente exigente a nivel de materiales para la adquisición de la gramática y el vocabulario, con un énfasis en el aprendizaje tradicional y una necesidad de memorizar, en detrimento del entendimiento y la comprensión en profundidad de la lengua. Con todo, el método tradicional y la enseñanza centrada en la comunicación conviven en este contexto sin mayor disputa entre alumnos, cuyo objetivo principal es el aprendizaje por necesidad laboral, o por interés sin más.

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Respuesta 2 a " ${ }_{i} E s p a n ̃ o l e s ~ m u n d i a l e s ? ~$ En busca de un paradigma"

## Hacia un multicentrismo



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Palabras clave: multicentrism/multicentrismo, Spanglish/espanglish, varieties of Spanish/variedades del español, World Englishes/ingleses mundiales, World Spanishes/españoles mundiales

Es bienvenida la invitación de ir más allá de una aproximación meramente dialectal y sociolingüística en los estudios del español en el mundo, que nos ha mantenido en cadenas por mucho tiempo. La disciplina debe enfocarse en la diversidad del español actual, entendiendo nuestro idioma como una entidad trasnacional sin un centro único y con variedades igualmente legítimas en las sociedades poscoloniales.

El autor propone mirar al español a partir del modelo de World Englishes propuesto por Braj B. Kachru. Aunque admirable, esta propuesta corre el riesgo de importar coordenadas foráneas, de otra lengua, para entender la nuestra. Aún así, la idea es sugerente. Si bien no se dice directamente, el modelo geométrico estaría conformado por tres círculos concéntricos: en el primer círculo, llamado círculo interior, estaría España como el país "tradicionalmente" hispanófono, el decir, el lugar donde se gestó y sigue utilizándose la lengua; el segundo círculo, o círculo exterior, lo conformarías las que fueron colonias españolas, de México a Cuba, y, de acuerdo al autor, asimismo Guinea Ecuatorial y el Sahara Occidental; y el tercer círculo, que es el círculo en expansión, incluye países donde se aprende el español para la educación y los negocios.

El desafío con esta aproximación expansiva surge no de la geografía sino de la cultura. A diferencia del inglés, las instituciones dedicadas a salvaguardar el español en el mundoprincipalmente la RAE a la Asociación de Academias de la Lengua Española—reproducen una visión monocéntrica de dependencia. Esta actitud sugiere que España, con menos de 45 millones de habitantes, retiene una posición superior a la de sus poscolonias, conformadas por una población de unas 450 millones de personas. Esto implica que mientras que el mundo anglófono es auténticamente pluricéntrico (el inglés de Canadá, digamos, no asume una actitud de dependencia ante el inglés de Inglaterra), en su contraparte hispanófila la estructura, por razones económicas, políticas y psicológicas, sigue siendo jerárquica, con España como centralizadora de la autoridad.

Por ejemplo, dice el autor que el diccionario de la RAE sigue denominando falsamente ciertas entradas de países poscoloniales como frases coloquiales. Para lograr un cambio, es necesaria una reconsideración cabal de este paternalismo. Eso quiere decir que es difícil identificar el círculo exterior del español en el modelo de Kachru porque, a diferencia del inglés, fuera del ámbito hispánico nuestro idioma es usado rara vez para asuntos comerciales, diplomáticos y educativos. Para efectos de comunicación mundial, el inglés cumple esa tarea, seguido de chino. El globalismo hispanófono es pues limitado.

Además, el argumento del autor se desmorona en zonas donde el español existe como lengua en contacto. ¿Cómo catalogar regiones en Mesoamérica donde esta lengua coexiste con
lenguas indígenas en un intercambio casi simétrico? Esta realidad está particularmente presente en los Estados Unidos, donde el contacto entre el inglés y el español es enorme. El argumento propuesto por el autor insertaría esta realidad en el círculo exterior (hay regiones en California, Florida, Texas y Nuevo México donde el español está presente desde la época colonial, aunque se han llevado a cabo cambios enormes a raíz de la inmigración). O se incluiría este fenómeno lingüístico en el tercer círculo, puesto que el español en áreas anglófonas es aprendido para la educación y los negocios.

El espanglish, que la RAE define como "modalidad del habla de algunos grupos hispanos de los Estados Unidos en la que se mezclan elementos léxicos y gramaticales del español y del inglés", no es, desde esta perspectiva, integral al español sino que es un habla intermedia, mestiza. ¿Debe pues vérsele como parte del círculo en expansión hispanófono o de su igual anglófono? En realidad, ni uno ni otro. Las lenguas en contacto acaso merecen un cuarto círculo, donde el concepto de "españoles mundiales" perdería sus contornos.

En su conclusión, el autor asegura que este concepto es un paradigma prometedor para futuros investigadores "a medida que el español se fortalece como lengua mundial". Pero vale preguntar de qué forma se llevará a cabo este fortalecimiento. Si se hace perpetuando la jerarquía lingǘstica y la ecuación centro/periferia, los efectos serán limitados. Mi impresión es que si bien las guerras de independencia en América Latina del siglo XIX cortaron el cordón umbilical a nivel político, ese cordón no únicamente sigue vigente a nivel lingüístico en la órbita hispanófila sino que impide su buena salud.

La opción es el multicentrismo: un modelo en el cual todas las variantes tienen igual valor.

## OBRA CITADA

Yelin, Boris. (2017). "Españoles mundiales? En busca de un paradigma". Hispania 100.5: 299-304. Impreso.

# Retos y transformaciones del saber chicano en la nueva era global 



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#### Abstract

Resumen: Este ensayo analiza el conjunto de conocimientos o saber chicano en el contexto de la era global. Parte desde los procesos históricos que moldearon y llevaron a la institucionalización de este conocimiento, partiendo del movimiento chicano, particularmente el estudiantil, hasta los retos y las transformaciones de las subsecuentes décadas. En base a la trayectoria histórica del saber chicano, hago un pronóstico de su futuro y los retos que enfrentará, así como algunas estrategias que pudieran ser desarrolladas para adaptarse al nuevo orden global.


Palabras clave: community/comunidad, chicano studies/estudios chicanos, chicano wisdom/saber chicano, globalization/globalización, literature/literatura, Mexican American/mexicoamericano

Foucault define los saberes sometidos bajo dos categorías: primero como "los contenidos históricos que fueron sepultados, enmascarados en coherencias funcionales o sistematizaciones formales [o bien] toda una serie de saberes que estaban descalificados como saberes no conceptuales, como saberes insuficientemente elaborados" (21). El someter ciertos saberes al olvido es dirigir su represión y desvalorización directamente al grupo social o étnico que representan. El control de los saberes es en sí el control de la población, de su identidad, y por lo tanto, de su crecimiento y mejoramiento. Evitar la autodeterminación, deja en manos del poder la manipulación de las identidades, le permite al Estado crear una población que cumpla propósitos específicos a su engranaje económico, político y social.

El saber chicano ha sido desde sus inicios un saber sometido debido a la situación de colonización interna de la comunidad chicana/mexicoamericana. Ha existido el ánimo persistente de desvalorarlo y sepultarlo bajo el saber hegemónico de la cultura dominante. Pero pese a los múltiples obstáculos y oposiciones que el saber chicano ha enfrentado, este conocimiento ha encontrado permanencia en la memoria y en el discurso popular de su gente. Sin embargo, lograr el reconocimiento de saber "mayor", científico, racional, de valor a la humanidad y a sí mismo, no ha sido tarea fácil. En primer lugar, porque para que se pudiera instituir un centro o departamento de estudios del saber chicano debía contarse con documentos escritos de la experiencia, vivencias, cultura e historia de los chicanos y mexicoamericanos. En segundo lugar, estas historias y vivencias debían ser contadas y escritas desde la perspectiva de los chicanos/ mexicoamericanos. No obstante, la experiencia chicana en general fue por muchos años no solo ignorada por la historia hegemónica de los Estados Unidos, sino suprimida, de la misma manera que lo fue la comunidad.

Según Luis Leal, los chicanos y los mexicoamericanos habían escrito sus historias y dejado huella de ello en diferentes formas orales y escritas como canciones, corridos, diarios, cartas, memorias, autobiografías, ensayos, poemas, novelas, etc., desde lo popular hasta lo erudito, pero estos documentos permanecieron en el olvido por mucho tiempo debido a que a estos autores se les había negado el acceso a la publicación (22). De acuerdo a Leal, "The discovery
of that inheritance had to wait until the Chicano movement produced a new type of scholar who, like an anthropologist reconstructing the early history of mankind, uncovered the buried documents and demostrated that the cultural history of his people is not of recent origin, that their steps had not been lost, but only covered with the dust of neglect" (24). Fue a partir de los sesenta que el escenario político y social fue dando lugar al nacimiento de diversos frentes de resistencia radicales como The Farm Workers Rights Movement liderado por César Chávez y Dolores Huerta en California, el movimiento Alianza en Nuevo Mexico con Reies López Tijerina y The Crusade for Justice de Rodolfo "Corky" Gonzalez en Denver, que empezaban a mostrar señas de movimiento como tal, pero fue el amplio Chicano/Latino Student Movement en variadas universidades a través del país, especialmente en California, que dio cohesión al movimiento chicano y fortaleció la conciencia del chicanismo (Rosales 175). Sin embargo, la lucha por la igualdad de términos y garantías como ciudadanos de los Estados Unidos había comenzado varias décadas atrás, desde 1846-48, cuando la geografía resultado de la ocupación angloamericana en territorio mexicano, dejó a esta nueva población en categoría de ciudadanos de segunda. La historia, como es costumbre, fue escrita por el vencedor, quien se encargó de crear mitos y leyendas sobre la supuesta inferioridad y carácter deficiente del recién pueblo dominado, a la vez que legitimaba sus actos y supuestos derechos a gobernar sobre el nuevo territorio y los no tan nuevos habitantes (Acuña 11). La revisión de la historia, entonces, era esencial para iniciar la reivindicación de un pueblo visto como enemigo, desvirtuado y oprimido. Es por esto que el saber chicano se fue conformando con un carácter diverso y multidisciplinario. Había que recontar la historia desde la perspectiva del perdedor, contar las historias de la cotidianidad chicana/mexicoamericana, revalidando la cultura y el folklor, después escribirlas y sacarlas a la luz.

El establecimiento de los estudios chicanos/mexicoamericanos surgió como consecuencia del contexto de desigualdad política y social en que se había encontrado la población chicana durante más de un siglo después de la ocupación territorial. La década de los sesenta, según Rodolfo Acuña, representó una década de desilusión y toma de conciencia para los chicanos, porque aunque siempre había existido resistencia a la opresión, para esta década, el $85 \%$ de la población chicana ya había nacido en Estados Unidos y eran ciudadanos norteamericanos dispuestos a luchar por la igualdad de derechos (275). Las condiciones de pobreza, racismo, explotación laboral, escasa representación política y mínimas oportunidades de acceso a la educación superior, generaron una movilización estudiantil que apoyada por la comunidad en general, dio pie a manifestaciones, protestas y finalmente propuestas para mejorar la situación de la población chicana/mexicoamericana. Tanto jóvenes universitarios como miembros de la comunidad en general empezaron a cuestionar el pasado y la historia, a intentar llenar los vacíos y las ausencias de la experiencia chicana en los campos de la historia y de la educación. Las nuevas generaciones de mexicoamericanos, se enfocaron en un nacionalismo cultural que definiera su identidad (Rosales 195). Tomar conciencia sobre su pasado y su herencia significó la participación activa en organizaciones, en movilizaciones y en protestas. El resultado fue un auge en la producción literaria, artística y filosófica. De acuerdo a Nicolás Kanellos:

> Para la literatura chicana, la década de 1960 fue un momento de cuestionamiento de todas las verdades comúnmente aceptadas en la sociedad, pero principalmente la cuestión de la igualdad. Los primeros escritores de literatura "chicana" comprometieron sus voces literarias al desarrollo político, económico y educativo de sus comunidades. Sus obras inspiraban al oyente o al lector a tomar acción social y política. (xviii)

En 1969 con la publicación del Plan de Santa Barbara, elaborado por activistas universitarios e intelectuales chicanos, se propuso el establecimiento de los centros de estudios chicanos tanto dentro de las universidades, como en la comunidad, así como el desarrollo de un programa de estudios enfocado en el mejoramiento de la educación superior para los chicanos (Flores 207). De los más grandes retos que enfrentaría entonces el saber chicano (aparte del económico, que
le permitiera el espacio físico y los recursos para institucionalizarse), sería el reconocimiento del saber chicano como tal, para ser digno de análisis y de estudio en instituciones de educación superior, no solo con la inclusión ocasional de alguna materia relacionada con la historia o la literatura de los chicanos/mexicoamericanos en otro programa o departamento, sino la creación de un programa o departamento especializado en estudios chicanos/mexicoamericanos. Según Mary Romero, el establecimiento de la National Association for Chicano Studies (NACS) (ahora llamada National Association for Chicana and Chicano Studies [NAACS]) en 1972, representó, "A major turning point in scholarship on the Chicano community. For the first time Chicano scholars were conducting research on the Chicano community which previously had been monopolized by Anglo-Americans" (7). Para Romero, la creación de una organización profesional como NACS les daría una presencia política en la academia (7). Era necesario, entonces, contar con estructuras, instituciones y espacios donde los mismos chicanos pudieran estudiar su historia, cultura y legado literario, hacer sus propias investigaciones y trazar sus propias conclusiones, a la vez que confrontar el discurso hegemónico de "la verdad". Ese discurso que de acuerdo a Foucault surge desde la relación entre poder y derecho:

> El poder nos obliga a producir la verdad, dado que la exige y la necesita para funcionar; ... Y por otro lado, estamos igualmente sometidos a la verdad, en el sentido de que ésta es ley; el que decide, al menos en parte, es el discurso verdadero; él mismo vehiculiza, propulsa efectos de poder. Después de todo, somos juzgados, condenados, clasificados, obligados a cumplir tareas, destinados a cierta manera de vivir, o cierta manera de morir, en función de discursos verdaderos que llevan consigo efectos específicos del poder. (34)

Mantener al margen del discurso verdadero el saber chicano o su definición e interpretación a manos de miembros fuera del grupo étnico, había sido entonces la estrategia del poder del Estado diseminado en sus diferentes instituciones, para negarle validez y la entrada al debate nacional de los discursos considerados como verdaderos, y de la misma manera seguir obstaculizando la llegada de su población a espacios de influencia y poder. A partir de los setenta, el contexto generalizado de exigencias de reformas que garantizaran la igualdad de los derechos civiles y humanos a otros grupos étnicos en el país (como los asiáticos o afroamericanos), y la necesidad del Estado de mostrarse como una sociedad democrática y progresista, se vio obligada a hacer ciertas concesiones a los diversos movimientos sociales. Una vez formados los primeros programas de estudios chicanos/mexicoamericanos, surgieron retos internos para llegar a un acuerdo sobre los principales objetivos y metas que estos debían cumplir. De acuerdo a Lauro H. Flores, "However diverse the various positions, most scholars agree that at its inception Chicano/a Studies was conceived as an oppositional and contesting undertaking intended to challenge the status quo of traditional academic structures as well as the generally disparaging and openly derogatory views of Mexican Americans that prevailed in this country at this time" (208). En la década de los 80 , sin embargo, los académicos chicanos notaron una diferencia generacional entre los chicanos de las décadas de los sesenta y setenta con la nueva generación de mexicoamericanos. Según Flores, para algunos académicos, muchos programas de estudios chicanos se distanciaron del activismo y la militancia que inicialmente los originaron. Según estos académicos, tales como Guadalupe San Miguel, la militancia y el radicalismo que caracterizó el Movimiento fueron sustituidos por una posición de acomodamiento que ignoraba el espíritu del chicanismo y lo reemplazaba por el hispanismo (212). Pero de acuerdo a Flores, estos cambios fueron más bien el reflejo del ajuste a los nuevos tiempos y a las nuevas realidades para enfrentar los retos del momento, pues a pesar de los nuevos desafíos, los estudios chicanos prosperaron como campo de estudio durante esta década (215). Tanto la década de los ochenta como la de los noventa, los estudios chicanos se enfrentaron con políticas externas anti-inmigrantes, antibilingüismo y anti-acción afirmativa, pero también a transformaciones internas necesarias respecto al género, ya que indudablemente, el movimiento chicano se había conformado como
un movimiento ideológico masculino. Aunque desde los inicios del movimiento chicano las activistas y académicas chicanas retaron la visión excluyente de la ideología de la causa respecto al género, fue durante la década de los ochenta que, de acuerdo a Lilian Castillo-Speed, "The literature since 1980 also documents a significant shift in perspective with the emergence of Chicana scholars in all disciplines of Chicano Studies. La Chicana is no longer merely the object of study: she is also the critical observer and researcher" (66). La transformación del saber chicano en un saber más completo con las grandes aportaciones del conocimiento de las chicanas expandió aún más el campo de estudios del saber chicano hacia los estudios de género, culturales y sociales.

En el área ideológica interna, durante la década de los noventa, el saber chicano enfrentó otro de los retos que aún persiste (en menor escala) en nuestros días. De acuerdo a Arnoldo Carlos Vento, "A new ideological conflict surfaced between Chicano academicians. One early conflict was between those that adhered to an autochthonous philosophy versus those with a Marxist socialist philosophy. The result was character assassination in addition to a denial of employment and publication opportunities for those that were incompatible to the corresponding ideology of Chicano heads or publishers" (5). Vento sugiere que este problema ideológico dentro del pensamiento chicano debe ser analizado también dentro de los estudios chicanos, ya que estas actitudes de poder no reflejan los ideales de carnalismo y comunidad que inició el Movimiento (5).

Por otra parte, José Aranda propone un cambio en el lenguaje, uno más acorde a nuestros tiempos, más incluyente, que refleje mejor la multiplicidad cultural e ideológica de la identidad colectiva chicana/mexicoamericana, "It is also a call for a new lexicon better equipped to deal with a postmodern Mexican American culture" (129). Aranda considera, por ejemplo, que el concepto de Aztlán, el cual sirvió por mucho tiempo como unificador de la comunidad chicana para dar sentido de pertenencia y de nacionalismo cultural, ha cumplido bien su objetivo, sin embargo, conceptos más recientes como el de borderlands de Gloria Anzaldúa, sintetiza mejor las realidades de diversidad y experiencias transnacionales del nuevo milenio, "This symbolic realm is thus at once a field of knowledge, experience, peoples, histories, conflicts, futures, as well as a conduit for ideas, discourses, images, economies, languages, immigrants. It is also a place of negotiations between nations, commerce, narratives, families, and individuals" (149). Para Aranda el concepto de borderlands le ha dado a los estudios chicanos una nueva autoridad como campo interdisciplinario, resolidificando su misión institucional (149).

El saber chicano/mexicoamericano ha ido transformándose, entonces, en sus aproximaciones de estudio, su composición, complementación, ha ido nutriéndose de nuevos conceptos e ideas, abriéndose a nuevas posibilidades de interpretación que expliquen mejor los conceptos cambiantes de identidad, tanto individual como colectiva. Ha ido también venciendo retos externos, oposiciones ideológicas, estructuras de poder que limitan su diseminación y crecimiento.

La era posmoderna, por un lado, ha beneficiado el saber chicano/mexicoamericano principalmente por su rasgo de desaparición de algunos limites entre la "alta" cultura y la cultura popular, así como el desvanecimiento de las categorías de género y de discurso (Jameson 16). Estas características del posmodernismo van a permitirle al saber chicano participar en diferentes áreas de conocimiento y dialogar con ellas. La naturaleza multidisciplinaria de los estudios chicanos, por ejemplo, le permitirá entrar en los diferentes campos de estudio que lo conforman. La producción literaria chicana que en muchos casos era considerada como inclasificable, encontrará mayor aceptación como género híbrido, porque las categorías han perdido gran importancia. Lo fragmentado es favorecido frente a la totalidad, la polifonía de voces, identidades $y$, en general, la composición heterogénea de identidades de la población chicana/mexicoamericana serán tomadas con más familiaridad. Por otro lado, el acortamiento de distancias que la tecnología y el transporte de ideas en la nueva era global provee a las distintas comunidades puede ser de mucho beneficio para el saber chicano, así como para su comunidad. Si anteriormente para validar el conocimiento de un grupo étnico y traspasar fronteras territoriales, lingüísticas, culturales,
etc. tenía que ser este valorado primero, luego entonces su saber podría ser considerado como valioso o de utilidad a la humanidad, con la libertad de movimiento de la ideas, los saberes que alguna vez fueron ocultados o enmascarados por el saber hegemónico, atraviesan fronteras tanto territoriales como simbólicas, el ciberespacio es territorio común para la humanidad, donde el lenguaje global predominante sigue siendo el inglés y las historias locales conviven con las globales. Con todo, esta liberación relativa del tiempo y del espacio, puede tener tanto efectos positivos como negativos para el saber chicano. Según Zygmunt Bauman, "Rather than homogenizing the human condition, the technological annulment of temporal/spatial distance tends to polarize it. . . . For some people it augurs an unprecedented freedom from physical obstacles and unheard of ability to move and act from a distance. For others, it portends the impossibility of appropiating and domesticating the locality from which they have little chance of cutting themselves free in order to move elsewhere" (18). En el caso particular del saber chicano, la movilidad que el ciberespacio le concede para sobrepasar las estructuras del poder e instituciones sociales y económicas que le permitan mostrarse, terminar con el sometimiento y darse a conocer, lo separa de uno de sus propósitos más importantes que es el apego a la tierra, el sentido de pertenencia a un lugar determinado, los Estados Unidos, y la producción de un conocimiento determinado por el espacio.

Otra de las características más sobresalientes de la nueva era global es su capacidad de uniformidad y de despersonalización. De acuerdo Michael Hardt y Antonio Negri, el concepto de imperio ha sufrido grandes transformaciones. El nuevo imperio para Hardt y para Negri es un nuevo orden global y una nueva estructura de dominio, una nueva forma global de soberanía compuesta no solo por organismos nacionales, sino también supranacionales, unidos por una misma lógica de dominio (Hardt y Negri 14). Esta novedosa conformación global promueve la decadencia de la soberanía de los Estados-nación y su capacidad para imponer autoridad, facilitando el intercambio y el flujo de tecnologías, personas y bienes de un lugar a otro cruzando las borrosas fronteras nacionales (13). De esta manera, afirman Hardt y Negri, "Al dejar de lado o suprimir las fronteras y las diferencias, el imperio se convierte en una especie de espacio uniforme, a través del cual las subjetividades se deslizan sin oponer resistencia ni presentar conflictos sustanciales" (220). Aunque el saber chicano/mexicoamericano ha luchado por mantenerse diferenciado, precisamente porque es a partir de estas diferencias que los procesos de subjetivación se desarrollan en su comunidad, la posibilidad de que las nuevas generaciones de mexicoamericanos permanezcan aislados a los efectos de la globalización es casi nulo. Además, el saber chicano inevitablemente irá transformándose y amoldándose a las nuevas exigencias del orden global si es que quiere asegurar un espacio en esta comunidad mundial aunque esto signifique pérdidas. Pues formar parte de una comunidad implica perder subjetividad por el bien común. De acuerdo a Roberto Esposito, el lado oscuro de la definición de comunidad es la deuda, "Por lo tanto, communitas es el conjunto de personas a las que une, no una propiedad, sino justamente un deber o una deuda" (29). El saber chicano/mexicoamericano deberá entonces tratar de integrarse a la comunidad global en continua lucha por no perderse en el intento, tendrá que aceptar la asimilación en ciertos aspectos, pero tratando siempre de incorporar su riqueza y variedad en el saber global hasta que logre ocupar el lugar de saber mayor y como consecuencia se reconozca y respete la identidad chicana/mexicoamericana. De acuerdo a Hardt y a Negri, "El triple imperativo del imperio es incorporar, diferenciar y administrar" (222). Así pues, la nueva era global le da la bienvenida al saber chicano como a cualquier otro saber de minorías, pero en su segunda y tercera etapa de control imperial afirmará las diferencias aceptadas a sus propósitos e intentará desechar las conflictivas que como tales no hallan lugar en la comunidad global. Entre las diferencias aceptadas están las linguísticas, las culturales y las étnicas ya que cada una de estas diferencias son utilizadas por el poder imperial para promover la división y combatir la organización, después insiste en ordenarlas y en administrarlas dentro de su aparato efectivo de dominio (Hardt y Negri 222). El saber chicano, debe, pues, estar consciente y alerta de las nuevas formas de control y manipulación del nuevo orden global para poder a su vez negociar
la "deuda" que hay que pagar para formar parte de esta comunidad, evitando en lo posible la intervención en la producción de la subjetividad chicana/mexicoamericana y conservando en todo momento la autodeterminación.

## OBRAS CITADAS

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# Respuesta a "Retos y transformaciones del saber chicano en la nueva era global" 

# Aliados y ejemplos para los estudios chicanos en la nueva era global 



Anne Fountain<br>San José State University

Palabras clave: chicano literature/literatura chicana, chicano studies/estudios chicanos, Francisco Jiménez, Luis Valdez, United States/Estados Unidos

Cuando se piensa en el perfil de los estudios mexicanoamericanos en los Estados Unidos, su marco histórico y las etapas que el movimiento chicano vivió en el camino hacia la valorización de sus conocimientos, vale anotar que hay otros campos de estudios que tienen trayectorias semejantes. El movimiento que fomentó el campo de estudios afroamericanos, por ejemplo, igual que la lucha que experimentó el movimiento chicano, fue parte de una campaña por los derechos civiles, y el campo de African American Studies ofrece experiencias universitarias paralelas a las de los estudios chicanos. También me parece lógico investigar el rol de los aliados académicos potenciales en las universidades estadounidenses. Los estudios de los "primeros pueblos", es decir Native American Studies, y los estudios de la mujer, Women's Studies, comparten muchos de los retos que han confrontado al saber chicano.

Pero quizás el enfoque más prometedor para el saber chicano sería buscar estrategias o ejemplos en la cultura chicana que apuntan hacia un futuro provechoso. ¿Quiénes han podido superar las barreras y confrontar los desafíos? ¿Qué ejemplos hay de campeones en la literatura/ cultura chicana cuyos logros brindan una perspectiva valiosa al tema? Los ejemplos que ofrezco aquí, aunque por supuesto se podrían destacar muchos más, son Luis Valdez y Francisco Jiménez, ambos triunfadores en todo sentido de la palabra, y ambos autores mexicanoamericanos cuyas obras han llegado mucho más allá de su órbita norteamericana sin desprenderse de sus raíces geográficas. Los dos han logrado universalizar sus testimonios, estimular el interés de un público más allá de la comunidad chicana, y hacer florecer sus obras en la nueva era global.

Luis Valdez, el padre del teatro chicano, tiene una pasmosa lista de galardones. Fue el primero en imaginar actos teatrales para apoyar la huelga de los obreros en los sesenta en California, lo que dio origen al Teatro Campesino; el primero en crear una pieza teatral de tema chicano, Zoot Suit, que llegó a Broadway; el primero en dirigir una película chicana, La Bamba, que alcanzó gran éxito en Hollywood; el primer chicano en ser premiado con "The Presidential Medal of the Arts" en los Estados Unidos y también recibir el premio Águila Azteca en México; y el primero en ser reconocido en Cuba con el premio teatral de Gallo de la Habana (2010). Es el primero en convalidar en una pieza teatral popular, Valley of the Heart, los abusos sufridos por los mexicanoamericanos y los japoneses en el periodo de la Segunda Guerra Mundial, y este drama de 2014 cabe netamente en la esfera del saber chicano en la nueva era global. La obra presenta dentro de un marco comprensivo las experiencias de los japoneses encarcelados y de los obreros de origen mexicano explotados. En 2015 El Teatro Campesino forjado por Luis Valdez celebró cincuenta años de vida y éxito.

Francisco Jiménez, es un cuentista cuyas narraciones basadas en su vida como inmigrante indocumentado exponen lo que es experimentar la pobreza, el hambre, el desprecio inmerecido, el desplazamiento y la deportación, y por último el éxito. Jiménez acaba de jubilarse de la Universidad de Santa Clara, donde ha desempeñado una carrera brillante. Es autor y editor de numerosos libros sobre la literatura mexicana y la literatura mexicanoamericana, y sus obras se encuentran en más de cien libros de textos y antologías literarias. La colección de cuentos The Circuit (Cajas de Cartón en español) ha sido publicado en chino, japonés, coreano e italiano llevando así la experiencia mexicanoamericana a una fama internacional a través de la traducción. Hay escenas de Cajas de Cartón que han viajado como obra teatral de un acto a varios lugares de California y hasta Escocia, y Breaking Through (Senderos fronterizos en español) salió en japonés en 2005. Jiménez es autor y creador de mucho más de lo que se permite mencionar aquí, pero con solo llegar a su sitio web uno se dará cuenta de cuán extensa ha sido su difusión de la vida mexicanoamericana a un contexto mundial.

Si bien el saber chicano experimentó momentos difíciles y fue sepultado y suprimido, también tiene momentos de triunfo y ejemplos exitosos a seguir. Luis Valdez y Francisco Jiménez representan lo que puede ser un futuro real, auténtico y global para los estudios chicanos en el siglo veinte y uno. Los dos han sabido llevar la experiencia chicana a un público amplio y cruzar fronteras de lengua y etnicidad sin caer nunca en el olvido de las barreras que enfrentó el saber mexicanoamericano en su vida estadounidense.

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Vila-Belda, Reyes: Gloria Fuertes: poesía contra el silencio. Literatura, censura y mercado editorial (1954-1962). 2017, 305 p. (La Casa de la Riqueza. Estudios de la Cultura de España, 40) 21,00 USD ISBN 9788484899938

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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ This essay uses "Spanish department" to refer to any program or department that offers Spanish courses, regardless of the organizing unit's title (e.g., Department of Modern Languages, etc.).
    ${ }^{2}$ Despite the variety in off-tenure-track positions, the terms contingent, adjunct, and non-tenure-track faculty will be used interchangeably throughout these pages.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ See US Department of State definition of "full professional proficiency" (US Department of State 2013). Admittance to the Spanish for the Professions, MS requires a minimum American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) oral proficiency rating of Advanced Low (Swender, Conrad, and Vicars 2012). There are no minimum proficiency requirements for reading, writing, or listening.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ Beaudrie, Ducar, and Potowski (2014) adopt Valdés's (2000) definition of a heritage learner as an individual who "is raised in a home where a non-English language is spoken. The student may speak or merely understand the heritage language and be, to some degree, bilingual in English and the heritage language" (1), which they propose to be an appropriate definition of HLs for research in educational contexts.
    ${ }^{2} \mathrm{PhDs}$.org, is a well-respected source of information on current graduate programs that compiles data from the National Research Council, Survey of Earned Doctorates, and the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System to create its rankings.
    ${ }^{3}$ As not all respondents answered each question in the survey, the number of respondents to given questions will be provided throughout the data discussion.
    ${ }^{4}$ Räisänan and Fortanet-Gómez (2008) offer the following definition: "ESP [LSP] teaching uses the methodologies and activities of the various disciplines it is designed to serve, and it focuses on the language, lexis, grammar, discourses, and genres of those disciplines rather than using the general grammar, learners' dictionaries and general public genres and discourses" (12).

[^4]:    these practices are the college experiences that highly correlate to the most powerful learning outcomes. Students' participation in one or more of these practices had the greatest impact on success, on retention, on graduation, on transfer, and on other measures of learning.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ A number of scholars in second language acquisition and language learning have traced the development of trends in language instruction. Colina (2002, 2003), Cook (2010), Carreres (2014), and Laviosa (2014) provide insight into translation in language education, particularly in the United States and European contexts.

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ Normal schools were created to train high school graduates to be teachers and to establish teaching standards or "norms."

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ Herein, the terms Hispanic and Latino are used interchangeably and with no difference in meaning. Their use refers to people whose country of origin or ancestry makes up the Spanish-speaking countries of North, Central, and South America.

