HIGH SCHOOL LANGUAGE STUDENTS’ AND TEACHERS’ PERCEPTIONS OF EFFECTIVE TEACHING PRACTICES: A COLLECTIVE CASE STUDY

by

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Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment Of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Education

Liberty University

2019
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2019

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ABSTRACT

The influence of globalization on today’s society has propagated an increasing need for individuals who are able to communicate in languages other than English. However, while a large percentage of high school students recognize the importance of a second language (L2) for future jobs, only a very small percentage of students pursue advanced language study at universities, an aspect that may be due to disparate notions about effective foreign language teaching practices. The purpose of this collective instrumental case study was to understand the perceptions of effective language teaching practices for high school language students and teachers at two independent schools in South Carolina and one independent school in Florida. The theories guiding this study were Krashen’s input hypothesis (1982), VanPatten’s input hypothesis theory (2004), and Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory of learning (1987) as these are the three main second language acquisition theories that have guided current practices in second language learning pedagogy, and thus, agreement or disagreement with certain practices indicates support or rejection of guiding theories in second language learning. The central research question for this study was: How do high school world language teachers and high school world language students perceive effective language teaching practices? Data collection included classroom observations, teacher and student interviews, and documents related to the language program philosophy and practices. Data analysis included rich descriptions and direct interpretation and categorical aggregation through coding of classroom observations, interviews, and documents. The two major themes that emerged dealt with input and how input leads to better student output or language production.

Keywords: high school, student perceptions, teacher perceptions, effective language teaching practices, case study
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Dedication

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to the people who have pushed and encouraged me throughout this long and difficult journey. To my mom—thank you for encouraging me to start this journey and for telling me to keep going. To my sisters, Jennifer and Julie—thank you for your sanity and sometimes not so gentle prodding. To my dad in heaven—thank you for always believing in me. To Granny—thank you for your prayers and encouragement. And last, but certainly not least, to my husband, Etienne—thank you for allowing me to work in my “dungeon” for hours and hours, for encouraging me and listening to me vent my frustrations, and for all of the big and little things you have done through the years to help make this possible. I love you. I love and appreciate all of you so much.
Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge all of the support that Dr. Holman provided on this long, emotional journey. She was a constant source of encouragement and a true Godsend in guiding me from quantitative to qualitative research. Without her support, this would not have been possible.
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Alternate Reality Game (ARG)
Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)
Commercial Off the Shelf (COTS)
Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)
Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL)
Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC)
Digital Game-Based Language Learning (DGBLL)
English as a Second Language/Foreign Language (ESL/EFL)
First Language (L1)
Foreign Language Teaching Practice (FLTP)
Massively Multiplayer Online Games (MMOGs)
Massively Multiplayer Online Role-Playing Games (MMORPGs)
Mobile-assisted Language Learning (MALL)
Natural Language Processing (NLP)
Nongovernmental Organization (NGO)
Personal Digital Assistants (PDAs)
Second Language (L2)
Second Language Acquisition (SLA)
Second Language Learner (SLL)
Short Messaging System (SMS)
Sociocultural Theory (SCT)
Total Physical Response (TPR)
Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

In the 21st Century, being monolingual is not adequate, particularly in relation to the needs of businesses, international relations, cultural diplomacy and today’s society (American Academy of Arts & Sciences, 2017; McGinn, 2015). Truly, the “ability to understand other cultures, to build and maintain relationships depends on advanced language ability to provide authentic and deep access to knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors of peoples of other cultures” (Brecht, 2015, p. 21), a key skill that is lacking in present-day America. This deficiency of individuals with advanced language capacities, or of those who continue to study a second language (L2) to achieve advanced proficiency, may be linked to differences in perceptions of effective language teaching practices between language learners and language teachers. These differences in perceptions have been linked to lower student motivation for language learning (Alimorad & Tajgozari, 2016) and are critical to attaining successful language learner outcomes (Çelik, Arikan, & Caner, 2013).

Chapter One presents a background to the study, explaining why advanced language study is pertinent for today’s students in an ever-expanding global society and the possible connection to students’ and teachers’ perceptions of effective language teaching practices. Next, the situation to self is presented to show the researcher’s motivation for conducting the study, which is followed by the historical, social, and theoretical contexts that serve as the foundation for the current study. Then, the problem and purpose statements and the significance of the study to today’s society are presented. The chapter concludes with the introduction of the central research question and sub-questions, the definitions used throughout the study, and a summary of the chapter.
Background

Students today live in a rapidly growing global economy that requires individuals who are globally competent. Mansilla and Jackson (2011) defined global competence as “the capacity and disposition to understand and act on issues of global significance” (p. xii), and a key component of global competence is learning a second language (L2). In recent years, demand has been growing for individuals with strong language abilities in the sectors of industry, education, government, and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) (Brecht, 2015). Additionally, a report from New American Economy (2017) showed job advertisements requiring bilingual or strong L2 candidates increased from 239,267 in 2010 to 627,182 in 2015, with the job growth rate of bilingual positions being faster than job growth overall. However, despite the growing need for strong L2 candidates, only 11 states have a foreign language graduation requirement, and even the state with the highest high school language class enrollment is only 51.18% (American Councils for International Education, 2017).

According to the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (2012), 86% of high school students believe language skills are important to them for a future job. However, Furman, Goldberg, and Lusin (2010) found only 16.7% of students at two and four-year colleges pursue advanced language studies, and only about 7% of college students are enrolled in a language class at all (Friedman, 2015). Moreover, at the K-12 level, only a low percentage of schools offer Advanced Placement (AP) or International Baccalaureate (IB) coursework for students (American Councils for International Education, 2017). These percentages are problematic because advanced language skills are essential, and currently lacking, in foreign, diplomatic, and economic policy, as well as for promoting and developing military leadership (Brecht, 2015; U.S. Department of Education, 2010). Furthermore, for the United States (U.S.)
to cultivate individuals who qualify for jobs in these fields and who are competitive in the global economy, higher enrollment in “extended uninterrupted” language study is required (Jackson & Malone, 2009, p. 17), especially if the U.S. wants to have higher than one percent of adults who claim to speak an L2 very well (Lechtenberg, 2014).

Thus, while research has clearly established that advanced study and use of a foreign language will help students secure jobs, reasons remain unclear why more students do not actually take advanced language classes. One possible reason may be that students’ perceptions of effective language teaching practices do not align with their teachers’ perceptions of effective practices in the classroom. In a state-of-the-art article, Gabillon (2012) referenced a plethora of studies that found discrepancies between language students’ and teachers’ beliefs about language learning and the harmful effects of the discrepancies, including abandoning language learning. Additionally, Jean and Simard (2011) indicated if students did not perceive teachers’ instructional strategies to be effective, then clashes may occur and both parties may feel dissatisfied with the learning and teaching process, an aspect that was corroborated by Alimorad and Tajgozari (2016).

With the influence of globalization on the workforce and the economy (Kramsch, 2014) and with the necessity of language skills in political, social, and economic domains (American Academy of Arts & Sciences, 2017; Brecht, 2015; New American Economy, 2017; Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 2009; U.S. Department of Education, 2010), examining why more students are not becoming highly proficient in an L2 is important. As previously stated, this phenomenon could be related to a mismatch between students and teachers in perceptions of effective language teaching practices. Therefore, briefly examining the historical context of language teaching practices, societal influences on the changes in language education, and the theories that
have influenced, and at times, spearheaded them is important.

**Historical**

The history of foreign language education on a global scale can be traced to the fifth century, but this education focused on teaching Latin to an elite group of male students who were instructed by the church (Musumeci, 2009; Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 2009). From the fifth century through the 16th century, language education went back and forth between two main ideologies from Plato and Aristotle. Plato believed that language learning was innate, while Aristotle believed that language learning was best learned through repetition and frequency (Musumeci, 2009). A key component of language instruction until the 16th century was that it was conducted strictly via the language being learned, which meant that the native language had no part in L2 instruction. In the 17th century, language instruction expanded in conjunction with economic and political change based largely on the rise in international languages and national identities (Musumeci, 2009).

In the United States, language education began as early as 1694 with the first German school, followed very soon by various French, German, and Spanish schools, whose aim was to educate non-English speakers or students with limited English proficiency (LEP) (Freeman, 1998; Stern, 2009). This trend continued through much of the 1800s, a time when the U.S. exhibited a “high tolerance of linguistic and ethnic diversity” (Stern, 2009, p. 68). However, starting in 1879 with the Cherokee Indians, and continuing through the 1920s, the U.S. entered the “Restrictive Period” and implemented numerous laws and policies that only allowed English in educational settings (Freeman, 1998; Ovando, 2008). Additionally, a Supreme Court Ruling emerged from this era that changed the term ethnic language to foreign language, which signaled looking at non-English speakers “not as ethnolinguistic minorities, but instead as foreigners or
aliens” (Stern, 2009, p. 68). The issue of bilingual and foreign education received little attention from this point forward until World War II (WWII) when the U.S. began instructing military men to crack enemy codes (Rajagopalan, 2004). After WWII, language education was once again pushed to the side until the 1950s and 1960s with cases such as Brown vs. Board of Education, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1968 (Freeman, 1998; Garcia, Kleifgen, & Falchi, 2008). Thus, with language education once again in the spotlight, there was a renewed focus on the best methods for language education.

Much of the language methodology in the early 20th century comprised the translation method and the audio-lingual method (Rajagopalan, 2004, Rodgers, 2001). The translation method focused on learning an L2 through a comparison of the similarities and differences between the L2 and the learner’s first language (L1), whereas the audio-lingual method was based in behaviorist psychology and looking for patterns in sound and syntax (Rajagopalan, 2004). By the 1950s, language teaching was grounded in Chomsky’s generative or universal grammar, the idea that an individual does not learn a language but rather is innately attuned to a language. From the 1950s to the 1980s, a period known as “The Age of Methods,” foreign language education saw numerous shifts in practice: the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, the Communicative Approach, the Natural Approach, Cooperative Language Learning, and Content-based and Task-based learning (Rajagopalan, 2004; Rodgers, 2001).

Social

Just as WWII and the civil rights movement drew attention to language teaching and learning for specific societal needs and concerns (Freeman, 1998; Garcia, Kleifgen, & Falchi, 2008; Rajagopalan, 2004), language education since the 1980s has focused on the
communicative approach and teaching language through real-life tasks (Kramsch, 2014; Rajagopalan, 2004) to address America’s need for competent language learners in a global society. The greatest shift first occurred when the Standards for Foreign Language Learning with a focus on the five Cs—Communication, Connections, Comparisons, Cultures, and Communities—were developed to meet the demands of Goals 2000 from the Clinton administration and the America 2000 Initiative under President Bush (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1996; Kramsch, 2014; National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 2006).

The influence of globalization and the focus on global cultures through communication and shared values also spurred this initiative (Kramsch, 2014). Additionally, the language standards were recently updated and renamed “World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages” and incorporate Common Core State Standards, 21st Century Skills, and college and career readiness—crucial elements in preparing students to function in the global economy where bilingualism is becoming the norm (McKay & Rubdy, 2009; The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015). Furthermore, in March of 2017, various individuals from the education, business, and nonprofit sectors launched Lead with Languages, a “multi-year campaign aimed at revising the nation’s language skills gap and making language learning a national priority” to help a “new generation of Americans [become] competent in other languages and cultures and equipped to compete and succeed in a global economy” (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2017b, par 2). Campaign objectives also include increasing student enrollment in K-12 and postsecondary language programs and strengthening these programs with earlier exposure to language learning and clear cultural and language proficiency goals for all levels (Lead with Languages, 2018).
Theoretical

In addition to societal influences on language education, the changes have also been based largely on a few key theories: the input hypothesis, the sociocultural theory of learning, and the input processing theory. A key aspect of the theories is that each one emphasizes communication and meaning over a focus on grammatical structures. Krashen’s (1982) input hypothesis focuses on the process of language learning rather than the end product. According to Krashen, acquiring language, whether L1 or L2, only occurs when the learner understands messages and receives “comprehensible input in low anxiety situations” (p. 7). With Input Hypothesis, the language teacher moves the learners from what they know, $i$, to just beyond what they can do, $i + 1$, through various forms of comprehensible input rather than grammatical rules. Comprehensible input involves the use of pictures, gestures, slower speech, clearer articulation, shorter phrases, and using high-frequency vocabulary. Comprehensible input is also interesting and relevant to the learner—essential aspects that help lower the “filter” or students’ receptive or non-receptiveness to second language learning (SLL) (Krashen, 1982).

In addition to Krashen’s (1982) work, Vygotsky has also played a significant role in language theory and research. The sociocultural theory of learning looks at learning language in a meaningful context (Eun & Lim, 2009) and using language as a tool for communication (Everett, 2012). For Vygotsky (1987), language learning and the process of verbal thinking involved more than putting pieces together to form a whole concept. Instead, it also included being able to understand intonation and the social dynamics of a language encounter within various contexts (Miller, 2011b).

VanPatten’s input processing theory also places value on meaning. In input processing, L2 learners look for the message before focusing on grammatical structures (VanPatten, 2004).
In this model, VanPatten (2004) explained that processing occurs when connections are made between form and meaning in working memory. Much in line with the work of Krashen (1982), VanPatten stated that higher levels of comprehensible input equaled more room in working memory, which then, in turn, allowed L2 learners to begin paying attention to the grammatical structures of language.

**Situation to Self**

Even before becoming a high school French teacher, I noticed in my college classes that fewer and fewer people continued studying French beyond the required initial classes. When I became a high school French teacher, I saw again the decrease in class sizes from level one courses with anywhere from 25-36 students to the more advanced level 3, 4, and AP courses with an average of 10 students or less. Knowing the advantages of learning a foreign language and despite doing my best to share the benefits with my students throughout my 10 years of language teaching experience, I have yet to see the numbers in the advanced classes increase in my French classes or those of my Spanish colleagues. Once I began studying about the possibility of differences in perceptions of effective language teaching practices, and based on years of comments from my students questioning why I was teaching in a more communicative way instead of direct translation or with more of a focus on grammatical form, I realized this topic had great significance to me as a language educator with a great passion to see more students become highly proficient in a language other than English.

Despite the way that I currently teach, much in line with the theories of Krashen (1982), Vygotsky (Eun & Lim, 2009; Everett, 2012), and VanPatten (2004), much of my early language education was based on a grammatical and direct translation approach. I did not actually begin speaking and understanding oral language until my advanced courses in college, and truly not
until I was immersed in the French language and culture when I studied abroad for two semesters. Because of my personal experiences, I see the value in the way that I was taught, but I see an even greater value in the communicative approach. Using this approach, even my level one students can understand and communicate on a much higher level of proficiency than I was able to do at their age. However, I do question if what I perceive to be an effective approach to language learning is effective according to them.

Because I examined and reported on effective language teaching practices from the multiple views or perspectives of teachers and students, an ontological assumption was prevalent in this study (Creswell, 2013). Also, because of my personal bias and training for how language should be taught and learned, I brought my own reality to the study. However, I hope that I attempted to remain objective in data collection and analysis using rich description and triangulation, along with categorical and direct interpretation from the observations and interviews.

An epistemological assumption is present but not as central in this study, because though I conducted observations of participants, I was not trying to become an “insider” (Creswell, 2013). Nevertheless, I had a very vested interest in the cases that I examined, along with my own perspectives on effective language teaching practices based on years of experience, training, and research. Therefore, the axiological perspective was central to this study and was important in explaining the perceptions I brought to the study. Additionally, since the perspectives of the teachers and students were based on their experiences with language teaching and learning and were subjective in nature, social constructivism was used to guide the data gathering (Creswell, 2013). Social constructivism was also appropriate because “what is perceived as real is real in its consequences. . . [and constructivism involves the] multiple realities constructed by different
groups of people and the implications of those constructions for their lives and interactions with others” (Patton, 2015, p. 121).

**Problem Statement**

While numerous studies have been conducted at the university level to examine discrepancies in beliefs related to language learning (Alimorad & Tajgozari, 2016; Brown, 2009; Davis, 2003; de Graaf, Koopman, Anikina, & Westhoff, 2007; Felder & Henriques, 1995; Ganjabi, 2011; Wichadee & Orawiwatnakul, 2012; Yang & Kim, 2011), only a few studies have looked at high school students’ perceptions (Jean & Simard, 2011; Koç, 2013; Shishavan, 2010). Similarly, several studies have looked at students’ and teachers’ beliefs about specific aspects of language instruction in relation to grammar or error correction (Jean & Simard, 2011; Loewen et al., 2009; Tian & Macaro, 2012). However, despite the plethora of studies about language teaching and learning, the problem is that the United States still is not producing global citizens with high levels of competency in an L2. Furthermore, a gap exists in empirical research that examines high school language teachers’ and students’ perceptions of effective language teaching practices (Wesely, 2012) and few studies exist that compare student and teacher perceptions together (Alimorad & Tajgozari, 2016; Brown, 2009; Ganjabi, 2011; Richardson, 2011).

This study has attempted to fill this gap in the literature by examining the differences between high school students’ and teachers’ perceptions of effective language teaching practices. In a manner like Brown (2009), the term *belief* was used for the review of the literature, and *perception* was used to define student beliefs and their opinions of teaching practices. More specifically, perceptions were defined as “psychologically held understandings, premises or propositions about the world that are felt to be true” (Richardson, 1996, p. 103) and
“psychologically held, subjective beliefs on . . . which teaching practices . . . students and teachers generally believe to be effective in foreign language teaching” (Brown, 2009, p. 19).

**Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this collective instrumental case study was to understand the perceptions of effective L2 teaching practices for high school language students and teachers at two independent schools in South Carolina and one independent school in Florida. For this study, perceptions were defined as “psychologically held understandings, premises or propositions about the world that are felt to be true” (Richardson, 1996, p. 103) and “psychologically held, subjective beliefs on . . . which teaching practices . . . students and teachers generally believe to be effective in foreign language teaching” (Brown, 2009, p. 19). For this research, a case was defined as the effective teaching practices, and multiple teachers’ and students’ perceptions of the case were examined. The theories guiding this study were Krashen’s input hypothesis (1982), VanPatten’s input hypothesis theory (2004), and Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory of learning (1987) as these are the three primary second language acquisition theories that have guided current practices in second language learning pedagogy, and therefore, agreement or disagreement with certain teaching practices indicated support or rejection of guiding theories in L2 learning.

**Significance of the Study**

As previously indicated, a great need exists in today’s global workforce and society for individuals who can communicate in languages other than English (Kramsch, 2014; Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2011). Regarding global competence, which includes examining the world, the various perspectives of other peoples and with communicating with them, foreign language expertise is a must. According to Dr. Mbye Cham, the director of the Center for
African Studies at Howard University, advanced language skills allow individuals to navigate the world (U.S. Department of Education, 2017). Moreover, bilingualism is a necessary trait if students desire to “reap the social and economic benefits” that exist for bilinguals in today’s global culture (McKay & Rubdy, 2009, p. 23). This need for bilinguals is particularly true in relation to being economically competitive, developing cultural skills, and addressing global challenges in the fields of healthcare and natural disasters (U.S. Department of Education, 2012). Therefore, of utmost importance is researchers trying to understand why only a small percentage of American students are pursuing advanced study in a foreign language, a phenomenon possibly linked to disparate notions of effective language teaching practices.

Research in this area needs to go beyond the university setting (Brown, 2009; Davis, 2003; de Graaf et al., 2007; Felder & Henriques, 1995; Ganjabi, 2011; Wichadee & Orawiwatnakul, 2012; Yang & Kim, 2011), and the current study added to the existing body of knowledge on this topic by specifically looking at high school students’ perceptions (Alimorad & Tajgozari, 2016), and the study addressed the need to examine this research question from a qualitative perspective (Moradi & Sabeti, 2014; Ramazani, 2014). Furthermore, based on the theoretical framework of Krashen (1982), Vygotsky (1987), and VanPatten (2004), the study may provide insights into the acceptance or rejection of these theories as effective in language learning based on teacher actions and perceptions and students’ perceptions of certain practices as they relate to the theories.

The results of this study also may help language educators address certain misperceptions about effective language teaching practices early on in language study, thus positively influencing student longevity in language study and student impact in the global society. Furthermore, with extended language study, and thus higher language competency, the military
and other government agencies, along with businesses and nonprofit organizations will have access to a greater pool of candidates to meet their linguistic needs. This could prove particularly beneficial to the teachers and students in the current study because South Carolina is one of the top leaders in foreign investment with more than 1,200 international companies such as Michelin, BMW, Volvo, Continental Tire, and Schneider Electric employing close to 132,000 people (IBM, 2016; South Carolina Department of Commerce, 2013, 2015, 2018). In Florida, almost one million jobs are linked to global investment, including 30% in manufacturing (Enterprise Florida, 2019), and with the right language competencies, the students in South Carolina and Florida could become prospective employees one day.

**Research Questions**

A very small percentage of Americans are proficient in a language other than English, and perhaps poses a problem if students want to flourish in today’s society (American Academy of Arts & Sciences, 2017). With the potential for K-12 programs to turn out highly proficient L2 learners, and with the growing advantages and demand for bilingual individuals (Brecht, 2015), examining the potential disparity of perceptions of effective language teaching practices between high school language students and teachers is important.

**Central Research Question**

*How do high school world language teachers and high school world language students perceive effective L2 teaching practices?* The central research question is based on previous studies that have found differences in perceptions between students and teachers at the university level (Brown, 2009; Davis, 2003; de Graaf et al., 2007; Felder & Henriques, 1995; Ganjabi, 2011; Wichadee & Orawiwatnakul, 2012; Yang & Kim, 2011) and the high school level in Iran (Alimorad & Tajgozari, 2016). The potential differences in the two groups’ perceptions could
lead to learner dissatisfaction or negative results in language learning (Alimorad & Tajgozari, 2016; Horwitz, 1999; Riley, 2009). In relation to teaching, beliefs have a central role in the instructional decisions that teachers make (Ho-Yan, 2011 in Agudo, 2014). Therefore, the insights that both groups provide in relation to effective language teaching practices provide invaluable information to further research in this area and potentially provide a starting point for discussions between students and teachers about the methods and approaches to language learning based on current L2 acquisition theories (Ramazani, 2014).

**Sub-Question 1**

*How do high school world language teachers and students perceive L2 grammar teaching?* The role of grammar teaching is one of the most contested topics in language learning. It is defined as explicitly explaining and describing the grammar rules of a language with an emphasis on students producing correct structural forms in the language (Mojica-Díaz & Sánchez-López, 2010), and it is also called form-focused instruction (de Graaf et al., 2007). Though the current standards for language learning have mitigated the role of grammar instruction in favor of the communicative approach (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015), many studies have shown that teachers and students still place a high value on grammar instruction of language learning (Jean & Simard, 2011; VanPatten, 2004). Because of the previously noted importance of grammar, examining the current participants’ perceptions of grammar teaching, and if they align with or are contrary to current theory and practice, is important.

**Sub-Question 2**

*How do high school world language teachers and students perceive oral and written error correction in an L2?* Error correction is direct or indirect correction, in oral or written
forms, of student errors in language production (Brown, 2009; Loewen et al., 2009). When error correction is direct or explicit, the error is corrected and explained (Van Beuningen, 2010), but when the correction is implicit, the error is “recast” in the correct way (Adams, Nuevo, & Egi, 2011). The findings are mixed on the effectiveness of either form, but studies have shown that teachers and students have differing views about the role, importance, and necessary frequency of error correction (Adams, Nuevo, & Egi, 2011; Brown, 2009; Davis, 2003; Jean & Simard, 2011; Kissau, Algozzine, & Yon, 2013). The present study aimed to see if the findings from the literature hold true for the teachers and students in the four independent schools.

**Sub-question 3**

*How do high school world language teachers and students perceive communicative language teaching (CLT) and the role of target language (TL) use in an L2?* CLT focuses on meaning over form or the mastery of grammar in real-life contexts to develop communicative competence (Agbatogun, 2014; Chang, 2011; Ju, 2013; Kim, 2014; Littlewood, 2011; Yuan, 2011). A key element to CLT is TL use—comprehensible input in the language being studied (Krashen, 1982). Kim’s (2014) study showed that teachers are favorable to CLT because of the students engage with real-life materials that are interesting and relevant. Another study by Sung (2010) showed that students shared similar opinions. However, CLT’s effectiveness is embedded in a strong teaching context (Sung, 2010) and students’ perceptions toward it (Kavoshian, Medadian, & Lorzadeh, 2013). Furthermore, the context of CLT should take place at a level of 90% TL use (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2010, 2019b), but Brown (2009) found that teachers perceived a greater need for TL use than students, and Thompson’s study (2009) indicated advanced students and language teachers saw a greater need for TL use over lower level students. Based on the amount of TL use the teachers in the
present study used and their approach to language teaching, whether communicative or not, teachers and students may have had positive or negative feelings toward the use of CLT and the TL in class settings.

Sub-question 4

How do high school world language teachers and students perceive computer-based-technology in L2 learning? Computer-based technology is currently called computer-assisted language learning (CALL). By definition, CALL serves to assist language learning through “interactive video, learner-computer interactions, corrective feedback, tasks with linguistic support, and intercultural communication” (Grgurović, Chapelle, & Shelley, 2013, p. 166). CALL is divided into mobile learning, computer mediated communication (CMC), web-based learning, and digital-based gaming. Studies have shown students value MALL for the collaborative opportunities they encounter (Bahrani, 2011; Chen, 2013; Ducate & Lumicka, 2013), and the personal meaning they glean (Kim, Rueckert, Kim, & Seo, 2013). Additionally, game-based learning has been linked to improved language performance (Cornillie, Thorn, & Desmet, 2012; Lan, 2014). The current study seeks to see the perceptions students and teachers hold toward CALL to see if they corroborate or refute existing studies.

Definitions

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions were used:

1. Communicative language teaching – Also known as CLT, communicative language teaching serves as an “umbrella term” (Littlewood, 2011) for teaching techniques that focus on meaning over form (Agbatogun, 2014; Chang, 2011; Ju, 2013; Kim, 2014; Littlewood, 2011; Yuan, 2011), and includes such tasks a pair or group work; role plays; games; problem-solving or task-based learning; and Total Physical Response (TPR) or
using kinesthetic means by having students respond to commands (Agbatogun, 2014; Brown, 2009; Jabeen, 2014; Ju, 2013; Kirkpatrick & Ghaemi, 2011; Rajagopalan, 2004)

2. **Computer-based technology** – Presently called computer-assisted language learning (CALL), computer-based technology serves to assist language learning through “interactive video, learner-computer interactions, corrective feedback, tasks with linguistic support, and intercultural communication” (Grgurović et al., 2013, p. 166).

3. **Error Correction** – The direct or indirect correction, in oral or written forms, of student errors in language production (Brown, 2009, Loewen et al., 2009).

4. **Grammar Teaching** – The explicit explanation and description of the grammar rules of a language with an emphasis on students producing correct structural forms in the language (Mojica-Díaz & Sánchez-López, 2010); in certain studies, grammar teaching is also called form-focused instruction (de Graaf et al., 2007).


6. **Perceptions** – “Psychologically held understandings, premises or propositions about the world that are felt to be true” (Richardson, 1996, p. 103) and “psychologically held, subjective beliefs on... which teaching practices... students and teachers generally believe to be effective in foreign language teaching” (Brown, 2009 p. 19).

7. **Target language use** – Comprehensible input in the language being studied (Krashen, 1982).

8. **World Language** – “A world language is a form of communication, essential to the culture of a community, with a system of sounds, letters, symbols, and/or signs recognized and utilized by humans” characterized by interactions between people who
negotiate meaning to understand oral and written texts in culturally appropriate contexts,
and which provides individuals with the opportunity to “reflect on the relationship
between the products, practices, and perspectives of a particular culture,” the ability to
share stories, and the opportunity to “be immersed in a specific language community”
(American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2017a, para. 1, para. 3).

9. **World Language Teachers** – Adults who have met the requirements to teach a world
language (as defined above, to include French, Spanish, German, Chinese, etc. in this
study) in a South Carolina independent school as defined by that school (most require a
degree in the language taught or a native speaker) and who teach.

**Summary**

The United States has a distinct need for individuals who are capable of global interaction
and cultural competence (U.S. Department of Education, 2012). Rebecca Bellinger, the
managing director of the Center for International Business Education and Research at the
University of Maryland noted that 95% of the world’s consumers and 80% of the world’s
purchasers live outside of America (U.S. Department of Education, 2017). However, if students
do not develop advanced language skills, then the United States will find itself at a disadvantage
in global affairs (Brecht, 2015).

As previous studies have shown, discrepancies exist between teachers and students about
effective language teaching practices (Alimorad & Tajgozari, 2016; Brown, 2009; Davis, 2003;
de Graaf et al., 2007; Felder & Henriques, 1995; Ganjabi, 2011; Jean & Simard, 2011; Koç,
2013; Loewen et al., 2009; Shishavan, 2010; Tian & Macaro, 2012; Wichadee & Orawiwatnakul,
2012; Yang & Kim, 2011). This collective case study aimed to add to and expand on the current
body of research and its potential implications for the long-term global goals of the United
States. Chapter Two will present the theoretical framework for this study, and then will provide a review of the literature concerning language learning belief systems for teachers and students along with an examination of current language practices.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

The following review of the literature begins by presenting the theoretical framework in which the current study is embedded. Next, it examines the development of language learning beliefs and what may occur when teacher and student belief systems do not align. Additionally, language teaching practices, including a definition of effective practices, a brief history of practices, and the constructs that are examined in the sub-questions are expounded. Finally, related studies are described and gaps in the literature are presented.

Theoretical Framework

Though many theories of second language (L2) learning and acquisition exist, the current study has focused on three: Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory of learning, Krashen’s hypotheses of second language acquisition, and VanPatten’s input processing theory. The most prevalent teaching approach for L2 learning is the communicative approach with an emphasis on using 90% of the target language (TL) during instructional time (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2010, 2019b; Kissau, Algozzine, & Yon, 2013). Within this approach, the role of social context, comprehensible input, and a focus on meaning over form play key roles, and thus have guided much of recent pedagogy and provide a solid foundation for the present study.

Vygotsky’s Sociocultural Theory of Learning

Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory (SCT) of learning involves an emphasis on deriving meaning and a focus on the process of learning over the output from learning (Yildirim, 2008). More specifically, SCT is the process of a novice becoming a competent or experienced individual within a group or community (Donato & MacCormick, 1994). Developed in reaction
to flaws that he saw in the existing psychology of his day that was focused on behaviorism and cognitive theory (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). Vygotsky, instead, emphasized the essential role of a social context for learning and development (Miller, 2011b). In this social context, learners are active participants in the learning process as they explore information through meaningful contexts (Stetsenko, 2010). Additionally, SCT is rooted in mediation and highly values the role of the zone of proximal development (ZPD).

**Mediation.** The key element at the core of SCT is mediation (van Compernolle & Williams, 2013), which includes the use of tools for problem solving or task completion (Fahim & Haghani, 2012). Additionally, mediation uses these tools in social activities to change the way one naturally thinks and behaves into a more sophisticated way of thinking (Eun & Lim, 2009). Furthermore, mediation is rooted in a context and is “the instrument of cognitive change” (Donato & MacCormick, 1994, p.456), with mediation guiding learners into higher order thinking like reasoning, memory, and metacognition for learners to develop (Kao, 2010; Kozulin, 2003; Lantolf & Thorne, 2007).

**The use of objects and symbols.** One way individuals mediate is through the use of objects and symbols or psychological tools. These items can be any type of text, graphic organizer, sign, etc. that helps lead individuals to higher thinking (Kozulin, 2003). Lantolf (1994) expressed that mediation by symbolic means undergirds human thinking, and Lantolf and Thorne (2007) indicated that symbolic artifacts provide a way for learners to plan and rationalize consciously before acting on a decision. An example of this that Lantolf and Thorne provided was the use of a blueprint to guide an architect in making a building or the use of tying knots to help with memory. Although there are a vast number of objects and symbols that vary in perceived importance, language is viewed as the most important to mediation (Fahim &
Haghani, 2012) because it is “the most pervasive and powerful cultural artifact that humans possess to mediate their connection to the world, to each other, and to themselves” (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007, p. 201). However, language and other symbolic tools are only relevant to the extent of emphasis which the cultural community within which they exist makes them, and they cannot be grasped by learners outside of a context and without the community (Kozulin, 2003). Hence, mediation through another person is also important.

The use of another person. Mediation through the use of another person is defined in social interaction (Kozulin, 2003). The more experienced or expert person serves as a guide for the novice learner (Kao, 2010) by providing encouragement and approval or through giving hints at solving a problem or completing a task (Kozulin, 2003). The use of another person is paramount to helping the novice make sense of symbols and objects, practically to the point that human and symbolic mediation function together to lead to learner development (Kozulin, 2003). This process of mediation takes place within the zone of proximal development.

The zone of proximal development (ZPD). As part of the idea that psychologists and educators should focus on the process of development instead of a child’s actual or established developmental level, Vygotsky (1997) developed the zone of proximal development (ZPD), the area between what one can do on his or her own versus what he or she can do with assistance. Simply stated, what a child or individual can do with help today may equal what he or she can do alone tomorrow (Chaiklin, 2003; Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). Kao (2010) also described the ZPD as the social context in which the learner interacts with others to navigate an area of individual weakness to arrive at an independent state.

The ZPD includes both an objective zone and a subjective zone. The objective zone encompasses the norms of a given level of development within a social context as defined in
psychology and child development theory, and the subjective zone is the extent to which an individual is meeting the norms of the next stage of development (Chaiklin, 2003). An important aspect of the ZPD is that it is not a static realm, but rather a domain that is constantly changing in relation to the learning and development of the individual (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007), two items upon which Vygotsky (1997) expounded in his discussion of the ZPD.

**Learning vs. development.** Vygotsky (1997) noted that learning and development are interconnected but they are not related in the way that people usually think. Often, people hold the belief that a certain degree of development must occur in order for learning to take place; however, Vygotsky believed that learning actually creates the ZPD, and in fact, learning precedes development (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). Learning, as an active process, is interwoven with mediation to provide the stimulus necessary to move from intermental thoughts that take place through collaboration to intramental thoughts or inner speech, also known as internalization, and the key to reaching what Vygotsky termed as development (Eun & Lim, 2009; Fahim & Haghani, 2012).

**Internalization.** The process of moving from intermental thought to intramental thought is internalization (Fahim & Haghani, 2012). As aforementioned, internalization helps transform learning into development (Kao, 2010). Also linked with inner or private speech, internalization is the process of transforming social communication within the contextualized ZPD and mediating it to an individual’s psychological activity (Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf & Thorne, 2007; Stetsenko, 2010), with part of the process residing in imitation.

**Imitation.** Contrary to popular definition, imitation is not merely mimicking what a more experienced person says or does (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). Instead, imitation is purposeful activity on the part of the learner to help internalize intermental or social thought. As Chaiklin
(2003) indicated, imitation is actually the reason why the subjective zone only exists in the ZPD when a certain degree of understanding is within the intellectual capacity of the individual. Furthermore, Chaiklin affirmed that imitation is elicited through collaboration and only occurs when the learner has enough mental capacity. With imitation, the learner moves more fully toward internalization and, ultimately, development.

Conclusion and implications. Vygotsky’s SCT emphasizes the use of mediation in order to move individuals through the ZPD to independent functioning. With L2 pedagogy embedded in SCT, the mindset exists that language teachers should help language learners to internalize the language being studied (van Compernolle & Williams, 2013). Additionally, with the ZPD being different for each learner, the learning outcomes will vary and L2 acquisition will differ based on the type of mediation learners will receive and the language goals they will have (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). Nevertheless, based on SCT, L2 learning is a product of social interactions in the target language, which is directly linked to the communicative approach to language learning, and language teachers must modify and adjust strategies in order to help language students internalize and use the language (Eun & Lim, 2009).

Krashen’s Hypotheses of Second Language Acquisition

According to Krashen (1982), a distinguished theorist and researcher of second language acquisition (SLA), acquiring language is not a product to be created, but rather a process. In addressing this process, he developed a theory of SLA that is rooted in five hypotheses (Krashen, 1982, 1985). These hypotheses are the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the input/comprehension hypothesis, and the affective filter hypothesis.

The acquisition-learning hypothesis. According to Krashen’s (1985) first hypothesis,
language ability is developed through two ways—acquisition and learning. The first way, acquisition, is done subconsciously (Krashen 1985, 2009; Latifi, Ketabi, & Mohammadi, 2013) with language ability stored in the brain subconsciously as well (Krashen, 2008). This subconscious act is similar to children learning their first language (L1) (Krashen, 1985). The act is also known as implicit learning, natural learning, or just “picking up” a language (Krashen, 1982). The second way, learning, is a conscious process to know about language through explicit teaching (Krashen, 1985; Latifi et al., 2013), which involves learning the grammatical rules and being able to talk about them in relation to the language (Krashen, 1982).

**The natural order hypothesis.** The second hypothesis is related to language research that has shown acquiring the grammatical structures of a language occurs in a predictable order or sequence (Krashen, 1982, 1985; Latifi et al., 2013). Certain structures, such as the progressive –*ing* in English (playing) and adding *s* to make an item plural, are consistently acquired early on, whereas others, such as possessives, develop later (Krashen, 1982). Often, the natural sequencing does not correlate with a classroom sequencing, which may cause problems for acquisition (Krashen, 1985).

**The monitor hypothesis.** While Krashen’s theory clearly emphasizes acquisition over learning, he also established one clear role for learning. For Krashen (1982), the sole purpose of learning is to serve as a monitor. Language production comes from the subconscious, but learning, or the conscious knowledge of the rules and what is correct, helps to monitor or edit language production for accuracy (Krashen, 1985). Monitoring can only take place with the proper amount of time, a focus on form, and if the language learner knows the rules; however, these factors may not be all that are needed (Latifi et al., 2013). Additionally, the type of monitoring that occurs may actually hinder language production. If learners overuse their
monitoring skills, then learners can impede communication, but if they underuse monitoring, then the learners may make a lot of errors that prevent the reception of messages by listeners. Instead, language learners should strive to be optimal monitors who edit their speech when they realize their errors without interrupting the flow of communication (Latifi et al., 2013).

**The input/comprehension hypothesis.** The input or comprehension hypothesis is the central item to Krashen’s theory (1985). This hypothesis “could be considered the most influential hypothesis in L2 acquisition, as it provides theoretical and practical foundations for the way L2 learners internalize . . . [their] knowledge” (Latifi et al., 2013, p. 223). Of all of the hypotheses, the Input Hypothesis focuses on answering the question of how one acquires language (Krashen, 1982). According to this hypothesis, a person acquires language through comprehensible input and understanding messages (Krashen, 1982, 1985), a concept that is more thoroughly explained in the concept of $i+1$.

**The role of $i+1$.** The main premise of the Input Hypothesis is moving language learners from $i$, what they already understand and can do, to $i+1$, the point just beyond $i$, or the next level (Krashen, 1982). For learners to grasp $i+1$, Krashen (1982, 1985) asserted they must use context clues, their knowledge of the world, and any other extra-linguistic information that may be available to them. Krashen (1982) cautioned that $i+1$ should not be taught directly because this approach is too narrow and assumes everyone is at the same $i+1$. Instead, when enough natural and “roughly tuned” optimal comprehensible input is made available to L2 learners, then $i+1$ will occur inevitably.

**Optimal input and the language classroom.** Rather than place an emphasis on grammar rules, an aspect of language learning that Krashen (1982) believed to cause anxiety and inhibit communication, Krashen encouraged teachers to use “optimal input” that would foster
acquisition. According to Krashen (1982, 1985), optimal input requires comprehensible input; content that is relevant/interesting; disregard for grammatical sequencing; a high quantity of input in the language; a low affective filter; and the tools for managing a conversation. To meet these criteria, Krashen advocated for the use of visuals, familiar conversational topics, slower teacher speech, high-frequency vocabulary, and Total Physical Response (TPR). Krashen (1982) also stressed that while formal instruction may be beneficial for beginners and even intermediate learners, the ultimate goal of the classroom should be to bring learners to the place where they can use their language knowledge in the “outside world” for SLA (p. 183). Furthermore, as learners progress and take on more input, language will emerge along with various facets of grammar.

The emergence of language production and grammatical structures. Contrary to popular theory, Krashen (1985) indicated that speech is the result of acquisition instead of a cause for it. In fact, when a person speaks in the L2, they are actually inviting more comprehensible input to aid in their acquisition rather than promoting acquisition through their speech (Krashen, 2008). Additionally, language production or speaking in a L2 cannot be taught or forced; instead it “emerges” over time as individuals are exposed to more comprehensible input and as they develop more language competency (Krashen, 1982, p. 22, 1985). From this, Krashen (1985) also established that the quantity and quality of the comprehensible input would lead to acquiring the necessary grammatical structures without directly teaching them.

The affective filter hypothesis. While L2 learners receiving comprehensible input is important, this is not enough for acquisition. Equally important is the learner/acquirer obtaining the input through a low affective or anxiety filter, one in which the learner has a more positive view of language learning and tasks in the classroom (Krashen, 1982). When the affective filter
is broken down into individual parts, three barriers to acquisition emerge: the L2 learner’s self-confidence, anxiety level, and motivation to learn (Latifi et al., 2013). Each of these must be addressed to create an affective filter that is conducive to acquisition. When the affective filter hypothesis is combined with the input hypothesis, it becomes evident that “people acquire second languages only if they obtain comprehensible input and if their affective filters are low enough to allow the input ‘in’” (Krashen, 1985, p. 4).

**Concluding remarks.** Though Krashen’s theory is based on five hypotheses, the overarching premise of his theory is the significance of comprehensible input. For Krashen, language is acquired only when individuals understand what they hear and read (Latifi et al., 2013). Furthermore, language acquisition is a subconscious event rather than the explicit teaching and conscious learning of a set of rules to be learned and applied (Krashen, 2008), an important theory that relates to the sub-question regarding the role of grammar instruction in language learning.

**VanPatten’s Input Processing Theory**

In a similar manner to Krashen’s (1982) work, the input processing theory focuses on input for acquisition. But in contrast to Krashen, the input processing theory accentuates studying language forms or structures—essentially how learners comprehend and acquire grammar (Sheen, 2007)—and the strategies that learners use to get meaning from input (Benati, 2013). According to VanPatten (2002), input is the essential and foundational element for language acquisition and involves “language that encodes meaning” (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993, p. 46).

Input processing is the “initial process by which learners connect grammatical forms with their meanings as well as how they interpret the roles of nouns in relation to verbs” (VanPatten,
This process involves connecting a form, an item or grammatical structure (Harrington, 2004), with its meaning; it should not be confused with noticing, which is just the recognition of a form without determining its meaning (VanPatten, 2004). Of note, input processing is not an all-inclusive theory for the development of a second language or its grammar, but rather its focus is on the initial stages of language development and comprehending the forms of words and their associated meanings (Harrington, 2004). Originally based on four principles, VanPatten (2004) revised his theory to include just two principles with several subprinciples that work together in the language acquisition process.

**Principle 1.** According to Principle 1, “The Primacy of Meaning Principle”, language learners process meaning from input before they process the form. A fundamental component to Principle 1 is its focus on meaning and not grammar (Benati, 2013). More specifically, language learners look for the message in key words and nouns to assist them with determining meaning (VanPatten, 2004). Included in this principle are five subprinciples that address learners’ habits of focusing on vocabulary, non-redundant structures, and meaningful forms over grammatical structures and non-meaningful forms.

**Principle 1a.** Also known as “The Primacy of Content Words Principle,” the first subprinciple indicates that learners will deal with content words before they focus on anything else from the input (VanPatten, 2004). Language learners will use clues from rhythmic cadences and a speaker’s word emphasis to help with the main idea. Although this strategy is seen as important, it can become problematic when redundancy is present.

**Principle 1b.** “The Lexical Preference Principle” states that language learners “tend to rely on lexical items as opposed to grammatical form to get meaning when both encode the same information” (VanPatten, 2004, p. 9). Although a learner may notice the grammatical form
along with the lexical item, it may not be given meaning, and thus not processed. However, if
the grammatical form does not provide the same information, then the learner is more likely to
process it, which is the premise for Principle 1c.

**Principle 1c.** “The Preference for Nonredundancy Principle” asserts that learners have a
greater tendency to process nonredundant meaningful grammatical forms before they process
meaningful forms that are redundant (VanPatten, 2004). An item’s meaningfulness, or
communicative value, is the extent to which it contributes to “the meaning of an utterance by a
linguistic form” (Benati, 2013, p. 99). According to Benati (2013), if an item has lower
communicative value, then it will only be processed if the other input is understandable.

**Principle 1d.** In connection with Principle 1c, “The Meaning-Before-Nonmeaning
Principle” says that a language learner is more apt to process meaningful grammatical forms
before processing those that are nonmeaningful regardless of the redundancy factor (VanPatten,
2004). From this principle, VanPatten (2004) questioned how learners determined which aspects
of a sentence were more important than others, particularly in regard to what they are able to
hold in working memory. Originally, he addressed this in Principle 2, but later determined it was
a new subprinciple of Principle 1.

**Principle 1e.** This fifth subprinciple addresses working memory and is known as “The
Availability of Resources Principle” (VanPatten, 2004). For learners to process redundant
meaningful grammatical forms or nonmeaningful forms, then processing the meaning of the
sentence has to be done without depleting the learners’ processing resources. Thus, intake and
working memory play a key role.

*Intake and working memory.* VanPatten (2002) defined intake as the “linguistic data
actually processed from the input and held in working memory for further processing” (p. 757).
Put another way, intake is the input that has been assigned meaning and stored for potential learning (Harrington, 2004). The amount of intake is linked to the brain’s capacity with working memory (VanPatten, 2004) which has a restricted amount of space where information is held and used for acquisition and reasoning (Miller, 2011a). Therefore, these limits on processing mean that only a certain amount of input becomes intake (Benati, 2013) and is eventually adapted into the learners’ language system (VanPatten, 2004). However, VanPatten (2002) also determined that intake was also influenced by learners’ perceptions of the communicative value of the input, i.e., the more communicative value that a structure has, the more likely that a learner will take in the structure and be able to use it.

**Principle 1f.** Known as “The Sentence Location Principle”, Principle 1f is based on the premise that learners are more inclined to process items at the beginning of the sentence before items at the end of the sentence and items at the end before items somewhere in the middle (VanPatten, 2004). Concisely, what is at the beginning of the sentence gets more attention than the end and the middle (Benati, 2013). If the items at the beginning of the sentence take up too much working memory, then little may be left to process the rest of the sentence. However, if the beginning of the sentence has fewer new vocabulary items, then the end of the sentence will have more mental resources remaining (VanPatten, 2004).

**Principle 2.** According to the second principle, “The First Noun Principle”, word order is highly influential in roles that are assigned to words within a sentence (Benati, 2013), meaning that learners tend to process the first noun or pronoun in a sentence as the subject of the sentence (VanPatten, 2004). Within this principle, language learners tend to work on the premise that sentences follow the pattern of SVO—subject, verb, object—and thus focus on these perceived grammatical and semantic roles of nouns to ascertain meaning. Because of this way of decoding
the sentence, problems may arise with sentence meaning and learning a language’s pronoun system.

**Principle 2a.** “The Lexical Semantics Principle” states that, when possible, learners may depend on lexical semantics rather than the word order to understand sentences (VanPatten, 2004). Simply stated, learners may look at word meaning over position (Benati, 2013). An example of this is “The fence was kicked by the horse” (VanPatten, 2004, p. 16). Clearly it makes more sense for the horse to kick the fence than for the fence to kick the horse even though horse comes at the end of the sentence.

**Principle 2b.** This principle is “The Event Probabilities Principle” and contends that learners may use the probability of an event occurring over word order to determine sentence meaning (VanPatten, 2004). According to Benati (2013), the use of probable real-life scenarios can supersede The First Noun Principle. VanPatten (2004) found that sentences with these “constraining contexts” enabled learners to rely less on The First Noun Principle, which prompted him to create Principle 2c (p.17).

**Principle 2c.** The final subprinciple, “The Contextual Constraint Principle,” indicates that The First Noun Principle may be used less by learners if certain preceding contextual constraints are available for understanding a clause or a sentence (VanPatten, 2004). This principle was substantiated from a study by VanPatten and Houston (as cited in Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012) who gave learners two sets of sentences, one of which had contextual information. From their study, VanPatten and Houston found that the contextual information allowed the learners to bypass the First Noun Principle. However, VanPatten (2004) noted that evidence was not available to determine if learners could use this principle to backtrack in a sentence and determine meaning.
Concluding remarks. While two principles exist with numerous subprinciples for input processing, VanPatten (2004) stressed that all the principles work together. Rather than looking at just one item, VanPatten believed in the importance of looking at several components for processing. As a theory for second language acquisition, VanPatten’s input processing theory is important based on its manner of examining what second language learners “do with input, what they process, what they do not process, and why” (Benati, 2013, p. 108). These are key aspects that relate to the central research question and the sub-questions because students and teachers may find certain methods more effective based on the extent to which language is processed from input, and the perceptions of participants toward certain strategies may further propagate the success of these theories and their role in teaching methods, or they may bring into question their perceived effectiveness.

Related Literature

The focus of the study in this paper was a comparison of perceptions, the notions and ideas that an individual deems true (Richardson, 1996) and in relation to the personal, deep-rooted opinions that teachers and students hold concerning effective L2 teaching practices (Brown, 2009). However, this term is often used synonymously with beliefs, an area of language study that has received much attention (Alsamaani, 2014; Agudo, 2014; Aragão, 2011; Benson & Lor, 1999; Bernat & Govzdenko, 2005; Borg, 2011; Chang & Shen, 2010; Harati, 2011; Horwitz, 1985, 1987, 1988, 1999; Ritzau, 2013; Saeb & Zamani, 2013). As explained in the introduction, the term belief was used for the review of the literature, consistent with Brown (2009). Because beliefs are so closely interrelated with teaching and learning practices, it is essential to examine the various definitions of beliefs; the knowledge that has been gleaned from studies; the way belief systems are formed and possibly transformed; and the impact of beliefs
on teaching and learning. Furthermore, the related literature section will also examine language teaching practices and define “effective” via the literature. This will include a brief look at how practices and methodology have changed through the years and the current methods that are being used in language classrooms as they relate to the present study.

**Defining Beliefs**

In their simplest forms, beliefs are learners’ preconceived notions or what they think (Horwitz, 1988; Wenden, 1987). However, beliefs and attitudes are very complex entities often linked or defined in theoretical perspectives (Bernat & Govzdenko, 2005), and as such, it is not surprising that numerous and varied definitions exist (Alsamaani, 2014) or that beliefs may lean more toward myths than actual truth (Horwitz, 1987). While beliefs may be used interchangeably with the terms perceptions, attitudes, values, judgments, dispositions, and perspectives (Başaran & Cabaroğlu, 2014; Stergiopoulou, 2012), other researchers such as Richardson (1996) and Worth (2008) have linked beliefs to psychological traits of learners. Beliefs have also been described as what learners think to be true about conceptions, the objects or processes, of learning (Benson & Lor, 1999) and as the “propositions individuals consider to be true and... [which] provide a basis for action” (Borg, 2011, pp. 370-371). Nevertheless, and despite the diverse definitions that exist, this study focuses on beliefs and perceptions based on the definitions of Richardson and Brown (2009) as previously indicated.

**Belief Studies**

Numerous studies have been conducted in the domain of language learner beliefs, with almost all of them occurring in a university setting (Alsamaani, 2014; Agudo, 2014; Aragão, 2011; Başaran & Cabaroğlu, 2014; Bernat & Loyd, 2007; Diab, 2006; Fernández, 2008; Harati, 2011; Horwitz, 1985, 1987, 1988, 1999; Riley, 2009; Ritzau, 2013; Saeb & Zamani, 2013;
Simon & Taverniers, 2011; Stergiopoulou, 2012). Among these studies, several have looked at student language learning beliefs in general (Alsamaani, 2014; Diab, 2006; Horwitz, 1988; Mohebi & Khodadady, 2011), whereas others have focused on specific factors that may influence beliefs such as gender and special coursework (Aragão, 2011; Bernat & Lloyd, 2007; Borg, 2011; Busch, 2010; Horwitz, 1985). Additionally, researchers have also focused on comparing beliefs between teachers and students (Harati, 2011; Toghraee & Shahrokhi, 2014) and how belief systems may change or shift due to certain tools, strategies, or the passing of time (Başaran & Cabaroğlu, 2014; Riley, 2009; Ritzau, 2013; Worth, 2008). Despite the various aspects that each study examined, the use of the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) was common to all of them.

**BALLI.** The Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) was developed by Horwitz (1981) as a tool to assist in research and training in the fields of language teaching and language learning, and it is the instrument that is used most often in beliefs studies. After several trials and stages of development, four overarching themes emerged: the difficulty of language learning, the nature of language learning, foreign language aptitude, and appropriate language strategies. Later, the fifth domain of motivation and expectations was also included (Horwitz, 1988). The BALLI includes 34 Likert-scale items with responses ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Additionally, different versions of the BALLI exist to address different populations within studies, including a teacher version with only 27 items (Harati, 2011), an English as a Second Language or Foreign Language (ESL/EFL) version, and translated versions for different language populations (Azar & Saeidi, 2013; Fernández, 2008; Mohebi & Khodadady, 2011; Saeb & Zamani, 2013).

**Teachers versus students.** Several studies used BALLI to compare language students’
and teachers’ beliefs. Toghraee and Shahrokhi (2014) found while the teacher and student participants of their study had some similar beliefs, many of the beliefs were quite different; however, the researchers did not specify which areas showed disparate opinions. Harati (2011) conducted a similar study to examine teachers’ and students’ beliefs, and he found that the groups have differing beliefs concerning the amount of time that it takes to learn a language. Student participants in Harati’s study were also more concerned with grammar, vocabulary, and translating from their native tongue than were the teacher participants. Sadeghi and Abdi (2015) also studied teachers and students’ beliefs in an EFL context in Iran. From their study, they found a sharp contrast between teachers and students regarding the importance of grammar instruction, with 60% of students agreeing or strongly agreeing that grammar instruction is the most important element in language learning and only 2.5% of teachers holding such beliefs.

**Forming Belief Systems**

A key element to the study of beliefs is the way in which belief systems are formed. According to Bernat and Gvozdenko (2005) and Horwitz (1988), language learners come to language learning with beliefs about their ability to learn the language; the difficulty of language learning; the processes needed for learning; which strategies are effective; and the teaching methods that are effective for learning. Additionally, early life experiences as a language learner, experiences at the university level, and the contexts in which teaching and learning occur also influence the development of belief systems (Stergiopoulou, 2012; Zhong, 2015). With this in mind, it is important to examine the potential dynamism of belief systems, along with their stability and ability to change.

**Dynamic, changing, static and stable.** Just as there are many definitions of the term belief, there are also various perspectives on the nature of beliefs, specifically whether beliefs
change or remain the same. In most studies on beliefs, some sort of questionnaire is used, but when a questionnaire is used, the researcher only gets a glimpse of a particular moment instead of the way that beliefs work or how they could possibly change (Benson & Lor, 1999; Zhong, 2015). To an extent, the use of a questionnaire also indicates that beliefs are static (Worth, 2008). Kern (1995) noted that the beliefs learners have about language learning “may be quite well entrenched” and not so easily changed (p. 76). However, beliefs about language learning are cultural (Horwitz, 1988; Zhong, 2015) and socially constructed. Because of these attributes, they are also viewed as dynamic in nature (Alsamaani, 2014). Moreover, studies by Agudo (2014) and Stergiopoulou (2012) showed that while beliefs may be stable overall and resistant to change, they can and do change, particularly if learners are presented with new contexts and learning experiences (Zhong, 2015).

**Teachers’ beliefs.** In relation to teaching, Ho-Yan (as cited in Agudo, 2014) found beliefs play an integral role in the instructional decisions that teachers make. Additionally, teaching practices are often influenced by the teachers’ personal learning experiences (Agudo, 2014; Busch, 2010). Because of this, teacher beliefs tend to be resistant to change, but their beliefs may evolve through participating in practicums or coursework. This change was seen in a study by Busch (2010) of pre-service teachers in a SLA course with a practicum tutoring ESL students. The pre-service teachers’ beliefs changed concerning the length of time needed to learn a language, the importance and necessity of culture in language learning, and the extent and frequency of error correction. While Stergiopoulou (2012) also found that belief systems are stable, she indicated that they can change with the help of training courses if the courses are effective, practical, build on existing beliefs, and promote reflection, much like the study by Kolano and King (2015) that found that coursework, particularly watching documentaries and
reflecting on their experiences throughout the course, helped change preservice teachers’ beliefs toward ELLs.

**Students’ beliefs.** Just as teachers’ beliefs may change, students’ beliefs can change as well. In a study using language learning podcasts, Başaran and Cabaroğlu (2014) had results contrary to mainstream ideology that beliefs tend not to change with their study participants showing significant positive changes concerning language difficulty and learning, strategies for communication, motivation, and learning expectations. Horwitz (1987) also recognized student beliefs can change. With teacher intervention, Horwitz indicated the impressionable belief systems of students with limited knowledge and experience can be challenged, broadened, and even changed with new information. This change in beliefs was also seen in a study by Riley (2009) who found student beliefs changed over a 9-month period with several of the changes moving in the direction of their teachers’ beliefs. Ritzau (2013) further affirmed the dynamic nature of student beliefs as the participants’ beliefs in her study changed over a year and a half. Nevertheless, though acknowledging the the ability of students’ beliefs to change is important, exploring how students’ beliefs impact their use of learning strategies is also important, along with their self-efficacy and persistence in language learning.

**Impact on student strategy use.** According to Horwitz (1987), beliefs affect how students try to learn a language. For Bernat and Lloyd (2007), successful language students possess “insightful beliefs about language learning processes, their own abilities, and the use of effective learning strategies” (p. 79). Azar and Saeidi’s (2013) study found a significant positive relationship between learner beliefs and language learning strategy use—specifically that learners who had stronger positive beliefs used strategies more frequently. Stronger beliefs and a greater use of varied strategies are also seen in individuals who have been studying a language
for a longer period of time (Chang & Shen, 2010).

**Impact on self-efficacy and persistence.** In addition to affecting strategy use, beliefs have a direct impact on how learners view tasks and the behaviors that they exhibit in relation to the tasks (Mohebi & Khodadady, 2011). These beliefs may also influence the experiences of language learners (Horwitz, 1999). When the beliefs align with accepted pedagogical practices, then the students usually have positive results; likewise, when the beliefs do not align, then there is the possibility of negative results in regard to language learning and beliefs about language learning (Riley, 2009). For example, if students believe that language learning is mainly about learning vocabulary and grammar rules and that proficiency is attainable in two years, then they will most likely have negative results in the course based on the realities that they will encounter (Horwitz, 1988). Additionally, if the language is perceived as too easy or too difficult, then students may not persist in their language learning (Horwitz, 1987). From this, language teachers need to be aware of students’ beliefs to determine if the beliefs help or hinder language learning (Benson & Lor, 1999). However, even if students have misconceptions about language learning, teachers should strive to promulgate apposite beliefs like determination and never giving up for better language learning longevity (Fernández, 2008).

**Defining Effective Language Teaching Practices**

Just as it was important to define and examine the various facets involved in beliefs systems, it is equally important to define effective language teaching practices before moving into the history of language education and methods and the current trends and constructs that are involved in the present study. When language researchers and educators have a greater understanding of the effects or changes in learner outcome and of language instruction on learning, they are able to determine more effective forms of instruction, with effectiveness being
defined in terms of how much the intended outcome matches the actual outcome (de Graaf & Housen, 2009). Because of the various theories that underpin SLA, numerous definitions of effective practices can be found. However, for the purposes of this study, attention has been given to the practices that align with the theoretical framework that has been established.

De Graaf, Koopman, Anikina, and Westhoff (2007) asserted that effective language teaching balances form-focused and meaning-focused instruction. Form-focused instruction is about grammar and syntax, while meaning-focused is more concerned with messages. For de Graaf et al., effective language teaching aligned with Westhoff’s (2004) Second Language Acquisition penta-pie as seen in Figure 1. According to the penta-pie, an effective language teacher exposes learners to the target language at a level that is not too difficult (de Graff et al., 2007) or as Krashen (1982) asserted, good and effective teachers make language understandable. For de Graaf et al, this is accomplished through the previewing and adaptation of texts and teacher speech according to students’ proficiency levels. Additionally, opportunities are provided for meaning-focused processing via certain instructional activities such as graphic organizers, matching exercises, and information gap tasks. These activities allow teachers to give feedback to students and check for comprehension of forms and meaning.

Effective language teachers also provide students with opportunities for “output production.” For Aski (2009), in alignment with the input processing theory (VanPatten, 2004), output or language production is greater when learners have the time to think about forms before having to produce them. Furthermore, the greater output and the production of forms are the result of high levels of interaction and input. Because of this strong relationship, instructors should conscientiously seek input and output methods and activities that will encourage students in developing their understanding and creation of language (Aski, 2009).
In addition to input, however, although researchers have identified certain elements that distinguish effective practices, once again focusing attention on the role of language learners and their beliefs is necessary. When learners do not believe that the instructional methods cater to their learning style or do not perceive the methods to be effective, then the instructional method tends to be less effective (de Graaf & Housen, 2009). Oxford (2001) also affirmed this phenomenon by stating that learning styles or strategies have the potential to work with or against a teaching style or strategy, and when the two clash, negative effects, ranging from poor performance to rejection of the subject, can occur.

**Current Trends in Teaching**

As shown in the historical overview of Chapter One, language teaching has seen many changes over the years with differing opinions for the most effective ways or methods to foster SLA. For the purpose of this literature review and study, the only the major items that are addressed in the central research question and sub-questions are described and explored. The items include grammar, error correction, the communicative language teaching approach with
target language use, and technology.

**Grammar teaching.** Larsen-Freeman (2009) defined grammar as an arrangement of relevant forms that follow practical rules. While the current standards for language learning have emphasized moving away from grammar instruction (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 2006), many researchers, educators, and students still believe in the relevance of grammar instruction (Jean & Simard, 2011; VanPatten, 2004). However, the question of how to focus on grammar—explicitly/deductively or implicitly/inductively—is also widely debated (Jean & Simard, 2011).

Grammar teaching, particularly the use of implicit or explicit methods, is embedded in conflicting elements of Krashen’s (1982) Input Hypothesis and VanPatten’s (2004) input processing theory. According to Krashen, acquisition of grammatical structures is implicit and occurs naturally through meaning-focused instruction (Loewen et al., 2009). Contrarily, as Vogel, Herron, Cole, and York (2011) indicated, alignment with VanPatten’s (2004) model specifically draws attention to forms through a communicative context.

Several recent studies specifically looked at student and teacher beliefs about grammar instruction through explicit and implicit methods in the second language classroom. For many learners, grammar is seen as a necessary, useful, or beneficial element of language instruction (Jean & Simard, 2011, 2013; Loewen et al., 2009; Scheffler & Cinciała, 2011; Vogel et al., 2011). However, while learners and teachers found grammar beneficial, they were not very fond of grammar instruction or found it boring (Jean & Simard, 2011; Loewen et al., 2009). In studies that specifically examined the effectiveness of explicit and implicit methods, researchers found that students were much more attitudinally receptive to the explicit or deductive method despite the fact they showed positive learning results from both methods (Jean & Simard, 2013;
Scheffler & Cinciala, 2011; Vogel et al., 2011). According to Jean and Simard (2013) and Vogel et al. (2011), students felt more secure in their grammar learning using the explicit method, and the students perceived a greater chance for making errors using the implicit method.

**Error correction.** Closely related to the domain of grammar teaching is the area of error correction or corrective feedback when students make errors in speech or writing. Just as beliefs about grammar teaching are varied, so too, is the role and use of error correction. Furthermore, as with grammar teaching, corrective feedback can be provided implicitly or explicitly, in a focused or unfocused manner, and thus sparks much debate over which is preferable.

**Explicit and implicit correction.** Explicit error correction involves directly pointing out errors in speech or writing, correcting the error, and often explaining why the error is incorrect (Van Beuningen, 2010). Conversely, implicit error correction usually involves “recasting” a learner’s response in the correct manner or asking for clarification in a correct manner (Adams et al., 2011). Both forms have been examined on numerous occasions in the literature not only in relation to their effects on student learning but also in regard to student preference for one method over the other.

**Evidence from studies.** While de Graaf et al. (2007) perceived explicit correction and explanation of learners’ errors as essential for language learning to occur, recent research has failed to uphold this claim over the long term. Adams et al. (2011) found that explicit correction of adult ESL learners resulted in a higher rate of modified or corrected output in learners’ writing versus the use of implicit correction in the short-term. Conversely, implicit correction through recasts showed a positive long-term effect on oral production, but there was no distinguishable difference among the methods in the long-term in relation to writing. Truscott and Hsu (2008) also noted that explicit correction through underlining written errors helped learners in the
immediate future, but the effects did not guarantee better performance on a later post-test, and therefore the results could not indicate learning had occurred. However, the results of the studies partially support Tsiplakides and Keramida’s (2010) views of error correction as an instrument to promote better student performance. Of further note is that although language learners tend to make adjustments to errors in the short-term, even advanced language learners may have a hard time noticing explicit or implicit error correction moves, particularly in regard to pronunciation and certain pragmatic aspects of language learning (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005). Therefore, the true effectiveness and usefulness of error correction in developing oral and written language skills is still somewhat controversial.

**Teachers’ and students’ beliefs.** In addition to the mixed results of what the research has shown about the effects of the two forms of error correction, students’ and teachers’ beliefs regarding the topic are also varied. In studies by Brown (2009) and Davis (2003), students reported favorable dispositions toward frequent error correction, while the teachers in these studies were less supportive of error correction. Jean and Simard (2011) also noted students want error correction in writing all the time and for speaking when inaccuracy in speech impedes meaning; however, the language teachers felt that only errors that impeded meaning should be addressed in oral production, and only well-known grammar errors should be corrected in writing. Teachers in Kissau et al.’s (2013) study also believed spending too much time on error correction was unnecessary because they wanted to lower student anxiety, a similar warning Van Beuningen (2010) presented concerning error correction. In relation to students’ preferences concerning implicit or explicit correction, learners in the study by Adams et al. (2011) perceived explicit error correction as more effective than implicit correction, but they viewed implicit correction as a more positive tool for language learning.
**Target language use.** Another controversial topic in SLA research, and an important aspect of the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach, is the role of the learner’s first language (L1) in the second language (L2) classroom (Littlewood & Yu, 2011). In line with Krashen (1982) and VanPatten (2004), learners need a sufficient quantity of comprehensible input in the target language (TL) in order to actually acquire language and its structures. Nevertheless, despite the fact most teachers and students agree with this concept, discrepancies still exist concerning the quantity of the TL to be used and in what circumstances it should be used. However, as Littlewood and Yu (2011) explained, the classroom is often the main exposure that students have to the TL, thus highlighting the importance of maximizing its use.

For ACTFL (2010), 90% of classroom instructional time in the TL is the goal for maximizing TL use, but once again, teachers and students have shown disagreements on what making the most of the TL in the classroom.

**Ninety percent.** According to ACTFL (2010, 2019b), language teachers at all levels of instruction should be aiming for 90% use of the TL, a premise with which most teachers agree (Kissau et al., 2013). To achieve this level, teachers are encouraged to focus on large amounts of comprehensible input; the use of body language, gestures, and visuals; and the use of feedback for learners. Additionally, language teachers should consciously plan for TL instruction and how they will present material to achieve the 90% or more TL use in the classroom (Grouse, 2012). Moreover, Grouse (2012) asserted that teachers need to explain the importance of TL use in the classroom if they want their students to “buy in” to the dominant use of the TL in instruction. However, as Thompson and Harrison (2014) found, 90% TL use by teachers does not guarantee more TL use by students.

**Teachers’ and students’ beliefs.** Just as learners and teachers have certain beliefs related
to grammar teaching and error correction, they also have beliefs about the role of the TL and when it should be used. Thompson (2009) found language instructors and students of more advanced classes perceived higher quantities of TL use as necessary to promote language learning while students and teachers in lower level courses saw a greater need for English to facilitate instruction. Thompson also corroborated Brown’s (2009) study by showing that teachers agreed more than students that the TL should be used early, frequently, and in student-student and student-teacher interactions. Students in Rolin-Iantzi and Varshney’s (2008) study valued the use of the L1, particularly for vocabulary and classroom instructions. However, their participants also noted that too much emphasis on the L1 drew focus away from TL input, findings that were also similar to those of Littlewood and Yu (2011).

Overall, learners and teachers have expressed an understanding of the value of greater quantities of TL use. Additionally, with the use of more effective communication strategies and TL exposure, learners may see less need for the L1 in the L2 classroom (Littlewood & Yu, 2011). Nevertheless, learners have still expressed a desire for L1 input, particularly for lowering frustration, confusion, and anxiety in the classroom (Rolin-Ianzti & Varshney, 2008).

**Communicative language teaching.** Communicative language teaching (CLT) emerged out of Europe and Great Britain in the 1960s and 1970s when language learning became more available to the masses, and it marked a transition from a focus on the Grammar-Translation method that had catered to the highly educated who were concerned with language competence (Chang, 2011). Moreover, CLT was a reaction to the changing language needs of adults versus younger students (Ju, 2013). Unlike other methods for language instruction, CLT, as it exists today, is complicated to define because it is more of an “umbrella term” (Littlewood, 2011). Rather than one method or technique, Littlewood (2011) stated that CLT is multifaceted and has
been interpreted in numerous ways by language educators, researchers, and theorists over time. However, despite its various interpretations, certain characteristics help to distinguish CLT from other methods in its aim to develop learners’ communicative competence (Chang, 2011).

**Characteristics.** Perhaps the most prevalent characteristic of CLT is its focus on meaning over form or the mastery of grammar (Agbatogun, 2014; Chang, 2011; Ju, 2013; Kim, 2014; Littlewood, 2011; Yuan, 2011). For Wong (2012), language learning and meaning occur through interaction instead of memorizing grammar rules. This focus on meaning is evidenced in the types of learning tasks that are often used with CLT such as pair or group work, role plays, games, dialogs, and problem-solving tasks (Agbatogun, 2014; Jabeen, 2014; Ju, 2013; Kirkpatrick & Ghaemi, 2011). Additionally, these tasks should occur in contexts that are meaningful and connect to the real world (Islam, 2012; Kim, 2014; Kirkpatrick & Ghaemi, 2011). For Pan (2013) real-world connections distinguish CLT from other approaches because CLT “emphasizes the learning of language through its use in a variety of situations, rather than acquisition of the language itself divorced from its application in real-life situations” (p. 44). As a part of meaningful context and real life, CLT advocates for learners to be presented with authentic reading and listening target language materials (Ju, 2013; Kim, 2014). When the goal is focusing on meaning over form through interactive tasks that take place in real-world, meaningful contexts, then communicative competence is often the result.

**Communicative competence.** According to Yuan (2011), communicative competence is about being able to use the target language in oral or written form, along with body language, to be able to accomplish a communicative goal. For Li (2014), communicative competence entails using language correctly and effectually. In order to communicate effectively and in the proper way, language learners must meet four areas of competence: grammatical/linguistic, discourse,
sociolinguistic, and strategic (Sung, 2010).

While the focus of CLT is not to learn grammar rules for a test, grammar is seen as the facilitator for making language more comprehensible and acceptable (Pan, 2013). When language is comprehensible, discourse competence is developed as learners begin to combine sentences into a “meaningful whole” (Pan, 2013, p. 40). Along with both of these discourses, learners must put into practice social rules or sociolinguistic competence to communicate appropriately (Sung, 2010). Then, as language production and interaction continue, language learners invoke and develop their strategic competence of maintaining language when communication breaks down through the use of verbal and nonverbal methods such as gestures, paraphrasing, or circumlocution (Batang, 2014; Pan, 2013). Because these competencies are important, language teachers often have a considerable role in developing them in language learners.

*Role of the teacher.* Unlike certain methods of language teaching that exist, such as the Grammar-translation method in which the teacher is the central figure (Chang, 2011), CLT places students at the center of learning tasks (Ju, 2013; Yuan, 2011). In CLT, teachers organize and plan the tasks (Ju, 2013), often becoming listeners and monitors of student interaction (Banciu & Jireghi, 2012). If implemented correctly, teachers serve as facilitators, participants, or coaches for learners because of the emphasis that CLT places on interaction for learning (Wong, 2012). Ultimately, teachers must help “generate communication”, the initial step to developing communicative competence (Banciu & Jireghi, 2012, p. 95). However, due to the complex nature of CLT and communicative competence, certain misconceptions and challenges may impede its effective implementation.

*Misconceptions.* Two of the most common and strongest misconceptions about CLT are
that it is only concerned with speaking (Pan, 2013; Sung, 2010; Wong, 2012) and that it completely disregards grammar (Islam, 2012). As previously stated, CLT recognizes the facilitative role of grammar for communication in written and spoken form without putting it as the central focus of language learning (Pan, 2013). Additionally, because of the emphasis that CLT places on using authentic materials for listening and reading, communicative speaking and writing are the outcomes (Islam, 2012), thus showing that it incorporates the four skills of language learning (Sung, 2010). Another misconception is that CLT does not condone corrective feedback. Islam (2012) refuted this by explaining that CLT focuses on implicit correction, often in the form of corrective recasts, so as not to interrupt communication. Beyond these notions, many believe that CLT advocates for totally abandoning or avoiding the L1. While students need ample exposure to the target language (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2010; Kissau et al., 2013; Littlewood & Yu, 2011), on occasion, CLT also recognizes that the L1 can help in L2 development; however, language teachers must find a balance between the two (Islam, 2012).

**Challenges.** Even if teachers are clear on the expectations and various dimensions of CLT, there are still challenges that arise in the language classroom. One challenge may actually be the teacher. As Jabeen (2014) indicated, teachers may not want to use CLT because they do not feel they have the necessary language proficiency. Batang’s (2014) study of prospective English teachers found overall that the participants were not communicatively competent, thus supporting Jabeen. Beyond communicative incompetence, even language teachers who are proponents of CLT often struggle with finding appropriate materials that permit effective implementation (Kim, 2014; Wong, 2012). Furthermore, insufficient class time, large class sizes, lack of student motivation, and discrepancies between course objectives and assignments
also prove problematic for the successful integration of CLT in the language curriculum (Jabeen, 2014; Ju, 2013; Kim, 2014). Conversely, despite its perceived challenges, CLT still offers various benefits to learners.

**Benefit to learners.** In addition to maximizing time spent in the TL to better contribute to communicative competence (Kirkpatrick & Ghaemi, 2011), CLT, with its focus on the learner, appeals to different learning styles and has been shown to have a positive impact on communicative competence (Agbatogun, 2014). Moreover, college students in Mondal’s (2012) study exhibited a favorable attitude toward CLT, and in a study by Kavoshian, Medadian, and Lorzadeh (2013), participants preferred a communicative approach to learning over a form or grammar-focused approach, with males indicating a higher preference than females. Furthermore, teachers also recognize the benefits for students (Wong, 2012). In Kim’s (2014) study, teachers found CLT beneficial because of the interesting, relevant, and real-life materials and situations that students encountered. Students in Sung’s (2010) study corroborated this finding by stating that CLT activities proved fun, interesting, and creative. Nevertheless, the potential benefits and effectiveness of CLT are only as great as the teaching context in which CLT occurs (Sung, 2010) and in relation to students’ perceptions toward it (Kavoshian et al., 2013).

**Computer-based technology.** With the ever-increasing push for learners in today’s society to have a wide range of information, media, and technology literacy skills (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2011), discussing the role of computer-based technology in language classrooms, or computer-assisted language learning (CALL) is important. While CALL is often referenced as digital literacy in the K-12 setting (Ware & Hellmich, 2014), the term CALL will be used for this paper. According to Grgurović, Chapelle, and Shelley (2013), the purpose of
CALL is to develop the best language learning environment using strategies that center on interaction in videos and via computer, along with opportunities for corrective feedback and language development support. Within CALL, the domains of language pedagogy, theory, and technology are interlinked to the extent that as one aspect changes, the others change too (Garrett, 2009). Because of this, CALL researchers and developers are very cognizant of the need to link SLA research and foreign language teaching practice (FLTP) when they develop new programs for CALL (Amaral & Meurers, 2011).

Within the topic of CALL, there are several sub-topics. These include, but are not limited to, mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) computer-mediated communication (CMC), web-based learning, and digital language gaming. After discussing each of these items, certain concerns regarding CALL will be addressed.

**Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL).** In connection with CALL, mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) is coming to the forefront of language learning discussions. MALL incorporates CALL and mobile learning (learning outside of the classroom) but distinguishes itself from CALL through the use of a “personal portable device” (Ducate & Lomicka, 2013, p. 445) such as phones, iPods, iPads, and personal digital assistants (PDAs) (Viberg & Grönlund, 2013). In several studies, language learners found such mobile devices to be beneficial to learning and promoting collaboration (Bahrani, 2011; Chen, 2013; Ducate & Lumicka, 2013; Miangah & Nezarat, 2012; Viberg & Grönlund, 2013), and these mobile devices have the potential to produce language learning opportunities that have meaning for the individual (Kim, Rueckert, Kim, & Seo, 2013).

Alemi, Sarab, and Lari (2012) found that the use of SMS (short messaging system) had a significant effect on the retention of vocabulary in comparison to using a dictionary. These
results were similar to Motallebzadeh’s (2011) who examined vocabulary retention and reading comprehension among adult female language learners. Hayati, Jalilifar, and Mashhadi (2013) also found SMS to be more effective than contextual learning and self-study when learning English idioms. However, despite some benefits, the small screen, amount of data storage, and particular multimedia limitations can limit the content to be used with the devices and inhibit learners’ willingness and ability to complete tasks (Miangah & Nezarat, 2012).

**Computer-mediated communication.** Beyond mobile devices, computer-mediated communication (CMC) has often been researched under the domain of CALL to determine its influence on different aspects of language learning. Baralt and Gurzynski-Weiss (2011) defined CMC as “real-time, synchronous conversation that takes place over the computer via the Internet” (p. 206). This synchronous communication can take place in the form of writing through various instant messaging applications or in the form of speaking through video or audio messaging such as Skype (Yanguas, 2010). CMC has benefited language learners through lowering their affective filter, increasing levels of interaction, and helping them to feel more relaxed while communicating (Baralt & Gurzynski-Weiss, 2011; Khamis, 2010). CMC is also a positive method for providing a more student-centered focus of learning (Yanguas, 2010). Furthermore, Baralt and Gurzynski-Weiss (2011) indicated that CMC may allow learners a greater amount of time for processing input and planning for output that would make interactions less awkward than if the same amount of time were used in face-to-face interactions.

**Web-based learning.** In addition to CMC, a strong emphasis has been on web-based learning or using the Internet to assist in learning. Web-based learning provides a plethora of resources that promote collaboration, community, increased interaction and language output, interest, and motivation (Wang & Vásquez, 2012; Zhang, 2013). Additionally, the Internet
provides access to various cultures and a way for contextualizing language learning while putting students at the center of learning (Koua, 2013). However, despite these positive aspects, certain items must be considered for web-based learning to be effective.

One of the biggest concerns for web-based learning is the factor of cognitive load, or the “working memory load that is placed on the learner when processing instructional information or problem solving” (Ayres & Paas, 2012, p. 827). According to cognitive load theory, when the cognitive load is too great because of the instructional strategies used or because of the difficulty of the material, then learning cannot occur because the learner does not have the necessary amount of resources in working memory to learn (Ayres & Paas, 2012). In the context of language learning, the learner can become overpowered by the quantity or difficulty of information that must be processed before learning takes place (Zhang, 2013). If learners have too many irrelevant stimuli, they may become distracted and have lower performance, so Zhang (2013) advocated for learning guides and computer-mediated aids such as dictionaries or encyclopedias. Genç and Aydin (2011) also indicated that teachers need to think through the needs of their students; the objectives for and content of the language course; and the overall usefulness of the Internet resources before integrating them into the class.

**Digital language gaming.** A final area of discussion in CALL is digital language gaming. Digital game-based language learning (DGBLL), as its name indicates, is the use of digital games for language learning (Cornillie, Thorne, & Desmet, 2012). In the domain of DGBLL, the two major types of games that exist are synthetic immersive environments, games designed specifically for L2 learning, and commercial off-the-shelf (COTS) games that have no intended educational purpose (Cornillie et al., 2012; Godwin-Jones, 2014). Instead of synthetic immersive environments, Godwin-Jones (2014) used the more general term of serious games to
refer to games intended for educational purposes. From using DGBLL, researchers have found that it has a positive influence on promoting language learner interaction in the target language; increasing motivation and decreasing anxiety; and improving language performance.

**Language learning interaction.** As stated, DGBLL presents a great opportunity for language learning interaction and peer engagement (Connolly, Stansfield, & Hainey, 2011). This is particularly true when games lend themselves to more collaboration, as is often the case in massively multiplayer online role-playing games (MMORPGs) or massively multiplayer online games (MMOGs) versus single-player games (Sabatino, 2014). Peterson (2011) indicated that MMORPGs, due to their interactive social nature, promote “cognitive restructuring” when gamers co-construct meaning together, a finding in alignment with Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory (p. 58). Reinders and Wattana (2011) also believed that games should promote interaction and found that the use of an MMORPG in their study of ELLs correlated in a statistically significant increase in the quantity and quality of textual and oral interaction among participants and in their willingness to communicate. Similarly, in a study by Lan (2014) using an immersive environment role-playing game, participants interacted more with each other. Taken as a whole, digital games that are “linguistically rich and cognitively challenging” are able to provide opportunities to “stimulate scaffolded interaction between players” (Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012, p. 303).

**Motivation and anxiety.** An additional positive aspect of digital gaming is its ability to increase learner motivation, an element that has been linked to language acquisition and learning (Anyaeagbu, Ting, & Li, 2012; Escudeiro & de Carvalho, 2013). Sadeghi and Dousti (2014) observed higher motivation in Irani EFL learners when they used digital vocabulary games. Likewise, increased motivation and engagement were noted when Hitosugi, Schmidt, and
Hayashi (2014) used the United Nations game *Food Force* with American learners of Japanese. Moreover, students and teachers in Connolly et al.’s (2011) study reported that the use of an alternate reality game (ARG) was motivational for language learning. Godwin-Jones (2014) also acknowledged the positive role of digital games in motivation as well as learner autonomy, an element which Hitosugi et al. believed promoted learners’ motivation to complete tasks in the game.

In addition to increasing motivation, DGBLL is also beneficial for decreasing learner anxiety. One of the greatest features of the digital learning environment is that it provides a safe place for learners to make mistakes (Escudeiro & de Carvalho, 2013; Hitosugi et al., 2014). In several studies, participants indicated that the gaming setting caused less anxiety and embarrassment when communicating in the target language than the formal language classroom (Escudeiro & de Carvalho, 2013; Peterson, 2011; Reinders & Wattana, 2011, 2014). Participants in Anyaegbu et al. (2012) and Reinders and Wattana’s (2014) studies even went as far as to say that communicating in the digital gaming realm was relaxing.

*Improved language performance.* Despite certain researchers indicating a lack of empirical study concerning the effects of digital gaming on L2 performance, there is some evidence to show that DGBLL improves language performance (Cornillie, Thorne, & Desmet, 2012). In Lan’s (2014) study, participants showed significant oral improvement from incorporating a socially interactive game into class activities. Another study by Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012) examined L2 proficiency, specifically in the domains of vocabulary and comprehension, and time spent gaming along with gender differences relating to L2 proficiency and time spent gaming. The researchers found that the individuals who spent more time gaming had higher mean proficiency scores in vocabulary and comprehension, with the boys
outperforming the girls overall. Similarly, Hitsugi et al. (2014) and Sadeghi and Doosti (2014) examined the effect of DGBLL on vocabulary scores, specifically vocabulary recall, and observed better vocabulary retention with digital gaming than typical classroom tasks.

**Concerns.** Even as many positive features have been noted in relation to the use of CALL in the L2 classroom, certain concerns and limitations also exist. While CALL has been shown on average to have a more positive effect on language learning (Grgurović et al., 2013), particularly in its benefits for syntax and form, i.e. grammatical aspects and working at one’s own pace (Genç & Aydin, 2011), educators do not believe that CALL is able to replace or fulfill the role of language interactions and negotiation of meaning (Amaral & Meurers, 2011; Garrett, 2009). CALL tutorials also currently lack elements to help with reading and listening to authentic passages (Garrett, 2009).

Another concern for CALL is the type of feedback that learners receive. CALL programs are very complex in nature and few exist that use Natural Language Processing (NLP), an area that combines computer science and linguistics to incorporate human or natural language into computer systems (Preeti & Sidhu, 2013). Because of this missing component, providing highly precise feedback is very difficult (Amaral & Meurers, 2011).

Outside of the actual CALL programs, a final concern relates to the educators who use the programs. Godwin-Jones (2014) averred that worthwhile and successful L2 opportunities can occur only to the extent that the appropriate learning context and training are provided. Presently, a lack of professional development exists for the use of such technologies and the various instructional and assessment tasks that can be incorporated (Ware & Hellmich, 2014). A lack of training may lead to instructors who are not competent in using available technologies. Because of this, they may be unable to assist their students in using the programs for greater
language proficiency, an aspect that Garrett (2009) deemed important if language educators want to push learners toward lifelong language learning.

**Summary**

Despite the need for highly proficient individuals ((Jackson & Malone, 2009) who can compete in the global market politically, economically, and socially (Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 2009), few of today’s students pursue advanced language study (Furman, Goldberg, & Lusin, 2010). According to the research, this may be attributed to differences between students’ and teachers’ perceptions related to various aspects of language teaching practices, including grammar teaching, error correction, the CLT approach and TL use, and computer-based technology (Adams et al., 2011; Brown, 2009; Jabeen, 2014; Jean & Simard, 2011, 2013; Kim, 2014; Kissau et al., 2013; Lan, 2014; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Scheffler & Cinciala, 2011; Vogel et al., 2011). Although numerous studies examined this subject at the university level (Brown, 2009; Davis, 2003; de Graaf et al., 2007; Felder & Henriques, 1995; Ganjabi 2011; Wichadee & Orawiwatnakul, 2012; Yang & Kim, 2011), a dearth in the literature exists concerning the same topic among high school students. Since students often begin language study in high school, and because they have certain engrained beliefs upon entering language classes, studying this group is important to see if they have beliefs that are contrary to their teachers’ beliefs. More importantly, and especially in light of today’s global society, it is imperative to determine if these beliefs could possibly hinder the extended language study that is needed to cultivate globally competent individuals. Next, in Chapter Three, the research design for the study will be presented, followed by a reiteration of the research questions and a description of the study setting and participants. It will also include a description of the procedures and data collection and analysis methods used.
CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

The United States currently faces a shortage of individuals with the necessary linguistic and cultural competencies across political, social, and business sectors who can function in today’s global economy (Kramsch, 2014; Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 2009; U.S. Department of Education, 2010). Because advanced language skills are needed to successfully navigate the global economy (U.S. Department of Education, 2017), it is important to try to understand why more students do not pursue advanced language study to be able to fulfil this need. The current study may help provide an understanding of this phenomenon through an examination of language teachers’ and students’ perceptions of effective language teaching practices.

The current chapter presents the qualitative collective instrumental case study research design that was used in the study. After describing the design, the research questions will be reiterated followed by a description of the setting and participants in the study. Then the procedures that were used to conduct the study, along with my role in the study are presented. Finally, a rich description of the data collection and analysis methods along with considerations for trustworthiness, credibility, dependability and confirmability, transferability, and ethical considerations for the study are provided.

Design

Qualitative research, which is personal in nature, is useful when the researcher wants to “understand people’s perspectives and experiences” (Patton, 2015, p. 12) and a “complex, detailed understanding of the issue” is needed, often to better understand quantitative data (Creswell, 2013, p. 48). In qualitative research, case study research is ideal when the researcher
desires to take a detailed look and gain a deep understanding of a phenomenon (Harrison, Birks, Franklin, & Mills, 2017), and a good case study exemplifies these qualities (Creswell, 2013). For my study, I wanted to have a more thorough understanding of language teachers’ and students’ perceptions of effective language teaching practices beyond what can be learned on a questionnaire and beyond what many quantitative studies have already determined (Brown, 2009; Davis, 2003; de Graaf et al., 2007; Felder & Henriques, 1995; Ganjabi, 2011; Jean & Simard, 2011; Wichadee & Orawiwatnakul, 2012; Yang & Kim, 2011), and my study added to what is presently known about this topic by focusing on high school students’ perceptions (Alimorad & Tajgozari, 2016), and examining this research question from a qualitative perspective (Moradi & Sabeti, 2014; Ramazani, 2014).

Though I initially began to take interest in this study for personal reasons, a characteristic of intrinsic case studies, the study became more instrumental because this study may have bigger implications beyond the cases and research questions in the study, and my focus was more on the issues instead of any single case (Creswell, 2013; Stake, 1995). Moreover, instrumental case studies are appropriate if the researcher is driven by a research question or looking to understand a specific problem (Creswell, 2013; Stake, 1995). Specifically, the current study was a collective instrumental case study design, distinguished by the use of multiple cases to provide the various perspectives on the issue (Creswell, 2013). Stake (1995) defined case study as the process of understanding the distinctiveness and intricate nature of an individual case in certain conditions or environments. Stake later characterized the case as “a special something to be studied. . . an entity. . . [that] has a unique life. . . something that we do not sufficiently understand and want to” (p. 133). Thus, at the heart of case study research is the attempt of the researcher to gain a better, thorough understanding of a phenomenon and understand its complexities using a case
In my profession, I have noticed that many students do not pursue advanced levels of language study, despite the benefits that a second language can bring (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2012). From this issue, I completed some initial research that indicated this lack of students in advanced language study may be linked to disparate notions of effective language teaching practices (Alimorad & Tajgozari, 2016; Gabillon, 2012; Jean & Simard, 2011). Therefore, because I was trying to better understand this issue and how teachers and students perceive effective language teaching practices, an instrumental case study was an appropriate design for my study, and because I looked at several teachers and their students, it was a collective case study (Stake, 1995). Furthermore, multiple cases allowed for various perspectives on this issue and provided several cases to represent the issue (Creswell, 2013).

**Research Questions**

The ensuing central research question and sub-questions were used to direct the study.

**Central Research Question**

How do high school world language teachers and high school world language students perceive effective L2 teaching practices?

**Sub-Question 1**

How do high school world language teachers and students perceive L2 grammar teaching?

**Sub-Question 2**

How do high school world language teachers and students perceive oral and written error correction in an L2?
Sub-Question 3

How do high school world language teachers and students perceive communicative language teaching (CLT) and the role of target language (TL) use in an L2?

Sub-Question 4

How do high school world language teachers and students perceive computer-based-technology in L2 learning?

Setting

For this study, two independent schools connected to the South Carolina Independent School Association (SCISA) in central South Carolina were selected, along with one independent school in southwest Florida. The number of schools was selected to achieve the minimum number of teacher participants for a qualitative study. Moreover, I selected the two schools in South Carolina for their convenience in location to me as the researcher to facilitate conducting interviews and observations. The third school was added after two previous schools dropped out of the study, and because of connections I had with the school. Additionally, I selected the schools because they have comparative tuition and fees, serve a similar socioeconomic demographic of students, and all three are 1:1 schools for technology.

School A

School A is a Pre-K-12 independent college-preparatory school with a total student enrollment of about 943 students, 289 of whom are in the upper school. In the upper school are 29 faculty members across the various disciplines, 4 of whom are world language teachers. The teacher to student ratio is 8:1 in the upper school. For the whole school, 51.7% of students are female and 48.3% are male. Additionally, 84% of the entire student body is white, 8.5% is black, 1.1% is Asian, and 1% is Hispanic. School A also has a 100% acceptance rate to colleges
and universities.

The school is divided into three divisions—lower, middle, and upper—and each division has an administrative head or principal who oversees the division and reports to the head of school. The middle school and upper school also share an academic dean who oversees discipline concerns. In relation to global learning and language education, the school offers Spanish as early as Pre-K, and class trips and a yearly country of study program are key aspects of the school culture. Furthermore, international students from around the world are able to attend the school as early as ninth grade. The school is host to 63 faculty members.

School B

School B is a religious affiliated Pre-K-12 independent school that also offers boarding for students in grades 6-12. There are 738 total students, and 343 are in the upper school in grades 9-12. The entire student body is about 47% female and 53% male. The school’s ethnic breakdown is 75% white, 8.8% black, 4.7% Hispanic, 12% Asian, and 0.9% reporting two or more ethnic groups. School B has 63 faculty members, including five world language teachers in the subjects of Spanish, French, and Mandarin.

School B is divided into a lower and upper division, with the upper division including grades 6-12. Each division has an administrator, as well as an academic dean for each content area in the upper school. The school also prides itself on being a global community, and its student body is comprised of 11 nationalities. Additionally, the school offers a comprehensive English as a Second Language (ESL) program, and offers students the opportunity to take dual enrollment classes with a nearby university.

School C

School C is an independent college preparatory school for grades 6-12. The school has
about 700 total students, with 209 in the middle school and 480 in the upper school. The entire student body is about 51% female and 49% male. The school’s ethnic breakdown is not available to the public. School C has 60 faculty members, including 10 world and classical language teachers in the subjects of Spanish, French, and Latin.

School C is divided into a middle and upper division, with the middle school serving students in grades 6-8 and the upper school serving students in grades 9-12. The middle and upper divisions have administrative heads or principals, and the school also has a dean of faculty and a dean of students. The school emphasizes innovative and active learning while promoting the arts, service to the community, and athletics. Additionally, School C offers concentrations in the arts, global studies, humanities, and S.T.E.M (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics). Furthermore, the school provides numerous local and international travel opportunities for each grade level and through the global studies concentration.

**Participants**

This collective instrumental case study used purposeful sampling, “strategically selecting information-rich cases to study, cases that by their nature and substance will illuminate the inquiry question being investigated” (Patton, 2015, p. 265). Stake (1995) corroborated this definition by stating that case study researchers need to select cases that will “maximize what [they] can learn” while carefully considering cases that are conveniently located and have individuals who are willing to participate (p. 4). Furthermore, multiple sites provided multiple perspectives from teachers and students, an element that Creswell (2013) presented. So, I selected the three schools based on their location, the number of willing language teachers, and the similar and yet different emphases within their school curricula in regard to language learning and global education.
Language Teachers

All world language teachers who teach upper school students at each site, apart from classical languages due to the pedagogical and language task differences, were invited to participate in the study. Race, gender, age, and years of experience bore no effect on the selection of participants; however, gender, age, and years of experience were potential factors to consider in data analysis due to their connection with perceptions based on previous studies (Basturkmen, 2012; Byrd, Hlas, Watzke, & Valencia, 2011; Kang & Cheng, 2014; Kim, 2014; Kissau, Algozzine, & Yon, 2013; Moradi & Sabeti, 2014; Shishavan, 2010; Yildirim, 2015). In this study five teachers were male and five were female, of which one taught French, one taught Mandarin, and eight taught Spanish. Six participants were Hispanic, three were White, and one was Asian.

Students

The student participants were chosen based on their willingness and availability to participate and whose parents provide them permission to participate. The ages of participants varied from 14-18 years of age, which is consistent with grades 9-12. Three to five students from each teacher’s classes were selected across class levels from level 1 to AP based on the teacher’s current teaching load. Thirty-one students were interviewed, of which 15 were female and 16 were male, with 77% being white, 9% black, 6% Hispanic, and 6% Other. Twenty-four students studied Spanish, three studied French, and three studied Mandarin. At the time of the study, three were in level 1, sixteen in level 2, nine in level 3, and three in level 4, and none were in AP. Gender and language level experience are important to note due to previous studies that have mentioned their influence on perceptions of language teaching and learning (Alimorad

**Procedures**

I first contacted language teachers within the schools to gauge their willingness to participate in the studies. Because I switched from an approved quantitative study to a qualitative study, many of the participants had previously agreed along with their heads of school. I then proceeded to obtain approval from IRB to use human participants for the study (see Appendix A).

In the second semester of the 2018-2019 school year, teacher participants were contacted to set up times for observations and interviews. I also asked the teachers to help promote and recruit willing student participants from the classes. Once students were selected, contacted, and all documentation collected, I set up times to interview each teacher’s students individually as their schedules allowed. This occurred within 1-2 weeks of the teacher interviews and observations. I also set up time to examine documentation relating to each school’s language program philosophy.

According to Harrison et al. (2017) and Stake (1995), interviews and observations provide the most valuable evidence in case study research. Observation is the method via which the researcher will be able to provide the reader with a strong context and sense of experience, while interviews give the researcher access to the different realities of the phenomenon being studied and help him to understand it (Stake, 1995). However, examining documents and audiovisual materials are also valuable sources of information (Creswell, 2013; Harrison et al., 2017). Throughout the process of data collection, I needed to organize the data and keep
accurate records via logs, journals, or otherwise (Harrison et al., 2017; Stake, 1995). During and after each observation and interview, I checked with the participants to ensure that I accurately conveyed their responses and perceptions.

The Researcher's Role

As an experienced world language teacher of over 10 years, I brought much bias to the study based on my experiences as a teacher and a language learner. While much of my early language learning experiences centered on a grammatical and vocabulary-based approach to language learning, my college years, study abroad experiences, and professional development since entering the teaching profession have swayed my teaching to a more communicative, high target language, and selective error correction approach, especially in oral communication. Also, because I am very familiar with current trends and the national and state world language standards and the goal for 90% TL use (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2010, 2019b), I expected to see these practices in the classrooms that I visited. However, when I observed, I was a non-participant observer, and I attempted to use the observational skills that are recommended in Stake (1995) and rich description of the instances observed and those instances that clearly relate to the elements in the study to try to reduce the role of bias.

Because I worked in one of the schools, I have a close relationship with the teachers, I am familiar with many of the students even if I do not teach them, and I am very familiar with the language program philosophy. I also have or have had students who have come to my class having had teachers in the other school, so I am aware of some of their emphasis in instructional practice. With the school in Florida, I also have a collegial relationship with some of the teachers, and thus have a general idea of their approach to language teaching.
Data Collection

The process of data collection began in the Spring of 2019 after receiving IRB approval and establishing a timeline for data collection with each of the schools and the participants. To keep the data collection process as simple and organized as possible, I attempted to carry out data collection from start to finish at each site before moving to the next site, but due to fluctuating schedules and response rates of students, this was not completely possible. At each school, I began by examining the language program’s articulated philosophy or guiding principles through course catalogs, website information, and departmental resources, including meeting agendas and lesson plans if available. I believed that it was important to start with this information because I hoped that it would give me a glimpse of the purported emphasis of each school’s language program to prepare me for what I might observe in the classrooms. Next, I observed one class for each teacher, and this was an appropriate next step because observations often help to shape interview questions to gather better information in the interviews (Patton, 2015). There were two teachers for whom I conducted interviews before the observation because of scheduling conflicts, and I followed up after the observations to finish questions that related to the observation. For the other teachers I conducted interviews with the teacher and then his/her students to inquire about things that I observed and to gather their perceptions about effective language teaching practices in general. Each of these data collection methods served to validate and check the findings while strengthening the overall findings of the study (Patton, 2015). Furthermore, this process of data source triangulation allowed me to see if what was observed and reported aligned (Stake, 1995).

Document Analysis

As previously indicated, I felt that the best place to give me initial insight into the values
and practices of the language program were the documents that describe said program. Therefore, I began the data collection by examining the following documents if they were available: (a) written language program philosophy/guiding principles/mission statement, (b) course descriptions in the course catalog, (c) language department meeting agendas/minutes, (d) teacher lesson plans. These documents provided a starting point that gave an overview for the emphasis of the language program and the potential language teaching practices that I would observe or not observe.

Program philosophy/principles/mission statement. According to Miñana (2017), it is important for a language program to “articulate and locate [its] intellectual mission”, particularly in relation to shifting from just a focus on language to a broader focus on global citizenship (p. 415). Thus, a school’s philosophy/guiding principles/mission statement indicates their focus and objectives for all classes. Furthermore, examining this document allowed me to see if the school promoted practices and goals aligned with ACTFL’s World Readiness Standards (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015). For some schools this was found on the school website.

Course descriptions. While simplistic in nature, course catalog descriptions also provide an overview of the depth and breadth of a course and the linguistic and cultural focuses. From studying these documents, I hoped to glean insight into the scope and sequence of each of the French, Spanish, and Mandarin programs at the schools. Course descriptions also provided a general background for the classes that I would observe.

Department meeting agendas/minutes. This type of data allowed me to see what topics were of priority for the department. An emphasis on topics such as certain instructional practices or activities also provided a more holistic view of the department in relation to the mission statement. Moreover, the absence of certain topics could also be important (Patton, 2015).
Lesson plans. Lesson plans, when thorough, offer a look at lesson objectives, resources, and strategies to be used. However, none of the teachers actually had printed lesson plans. More had a general idea of where they were going or wanted to do, but they had no plans for me to actually see. I hoped that being able to examine lesson plans before conducting observations would allow me to gain initial insight into a teacher’s practices and the areas of language learning that he/she emphasized, but this was not the case.

Observations

As the next step in the data collection process, I observed teachers as an external, non-participant observer during one class, depending on their schedules and willingness to be observed more than once. I believe that conducting the observations first provided an easy starting point for the interviews. Additionally, I was able to determine the accuracy of any interpretations that I made from the observations with the participant.

For the observations, I used a composition notebook to record descriptive and reflective notes, and then transferred these notes to an observational protocol based on a sample from Creswell (2013) to include descriptive and reflective notes for each class observation as seen in Appendix B. Within the observation, Stake’s (1995) recommendation to provide a thorough description of the physical space was included, as well as Patton’s (2015) recommendation to include quotes and my own feelings and reactions to what I was observing. Furthermore, I focused on the items that most directly related to my research questions to “maximize [my] fieldwork time and resources to get the most relevant data to [my] inquiry” while remaining open to other instances that might open new paths of inquiry (Patton, 2015, p. 368).
Interviews

Stake (1995) identified interviews as the data form in case studies that serves as the “main roads to multiple realities” (p. 64), and good planning for interviews should include questions that lead back to the issue or, in many cases, the research questions (Creswell, 2013). Likewise, questions should be open-ended, clear, focused, and understandable to the person being interviewed (Creswell, 2013; Patton, 2015). For this study, certain questions and approaches to questions were adapted from Junqueira and Kim (2013). While Stake did not advocate for word-for-word replication of interviews, instead preferring the interviewer to listen and ask for clarification, Patton (2015) advocated for keeping as accurate and fair a record as possible via audio recording, an element that he felt allowed the interviewer to be more attentive to the interviewee. Furthermore, for Patton, the entire interview was worth very little should the researcher “fail to capture the actual words of the person being interviewed” (p. 471). Taking both of these opinions into consideration, particularly as a novice researcher, I recorded the interviews and transcribed them or had them transcribed with a professional service.

For this study, teachers and students had similar questions relating to the research questions, but teachers were also asked questions specific to their lesson plans and observations. This was done to gain insight into teachers’ perceptions of the effectiveness of specific strategies and accompanying activities that were observed during the lesson. As needed, follow-up questions were asked to probe more deeply into responses, particularly the ones related to the study (Patton, 2015; Stake, 1995). Additionally, student questions focused on their experience as learners, whereas teachers’ questions examined their perspectives as learners and teachers.

Standardized Open-Ended Interview Questions for Teachers

1. Please introduce yourself to me.
2. Please tell me some about your language background as a language learner and as a language educator.

3. When did you start learning the language that you teach?

4. How did you decide to become a language teacher?

5. How many years of teaching experience do you have?

6. Describe your lesson planning process.

7. Describe for me the lesson(s) that I observed.

8. Tell me your opinions about this particular lesson.
   a. What did you find effective?
   b. What did you find ineffective?

9. What does effective language teaching look like?

10. What is the role of grammar in effective language teaching?

11. What emphasis should be placed on error correction?
   a. What types of error corrections do you make?
   b. At what point do you correct students when they make a mistake?
   c. How often do you correct students?

12. Today’s World Readiness Standards for Language Learning place teachers in a facilitator role and emphasize developing language proficiency by communicating meaning within real-life contexts with authentic materials through the 5 Cs (Communications, Cultures, Comparisons, Connections, and Communities). This is also called communicative language teaching.
   a. Based on your experience, what are the benefits of this approach to teaching?
   b. What are the weaknesses of this approach?
13. ACTFL and the standards also say that the target language should be used in the classroom 90% of the instructional time. So, if a class is 50 minutes, then 45 minutes should be in the target language. What is your reaction to this standard/objective for target language use in the language classroom?

14. We live in an age where almost everyone has some sort of electronic device, a phone, tablet, etc., and often, schools are looking for more ways to integrate various technologies into instructional practices. What is your opinion of the use of computer-based technology as an effective language teaching practice?

15. We are almost done, and we discussed many aspects during our conversation. I would like to ask you one final question. . . Outside of the areas on which we have focused, what else is important to note about effective language teaching practices?

Questions 1 and 2 are questions that help to build rapport and are fairly straightforward, thus hopefully putting the interviewee at ease (Patton, 2015). Question 1 is a standard background question for providing demographic information without asking multiple questions to gather this information. The broad scope of the question also allows people to describe themselves as they see fit (Patton, 2015). Question 2 is also a background question that specifically relates to the study to provide context to the individual’s perspectives. Studies and the literature have shown that language teaching and learning experiences, including how many years, can impact perceptions toward certain practices (Agudo, 2014; Alimorad & Tajgozari, 2016; Busch, 2010; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kolano & King, 2015; Ramazani, 2014; Richardson, 2009; Riley, 2009; Sadeghi & Abdi, 2015; Shah, Malik, Shakir, & Mahmood, 2014; Shishavan, 2012; Wesely, 2012; Yildirim, 2015).

Questions 3 through 5 allow the interviewees to provide descriptions and perspectives on
the lesson plans and the class(es) observed. Because what I observed may be different from what the teacher observed and experienced, it is important to ask these questions (Stake, 1995). Additionally, sometimes what teachers claim to believe as effective or important in language teaching do not always show up in or align with their teaching practices (Baker, 2014; Dilāns, 2016).

Question 6, while broad in scope, addresses the central research question of the study. Case study research is characterized by trying to make sense of a topic in general and with its specifics (Stake, 1995), so this is a good question to lead to the following questions that probe for specific areas that are in the sub-questions. Moreover, this is the type of question that may yield responses outside of the focus of the study that could provide areas for future research.

Question 7 specifically highlights an often controversial element of language teaching—the role of grammar—and is related to sub-question 1. While the current emphasis in language teaching has moved away from grammar as the central focus, there are still a lot of language teachers who believe that it plays a significant role in language learning (Jean & Simard, 2011; VanPatten, 2004). Furthermore, studies have yielded mixed results about students’ and teachers’ perceptions of how grammar should be taught and its overall effectiveness (Jean & Simard, 2011, 2013; Loewen et al., 2009; Scheffler & Cinciała, 2011; Vogel et al., 2011).

Question 8 asks teachers to determine the amount of emphasis that should be placed on error correction. Possible probing questions are listed to elicit more information (Patton, 2015). These questions address the areas of error correction that previous studies have found differing perceptions between fellow teachers, fellow students, and teachers and students (Adams, Nuevo, & Egi, 2011; Brown, 2009; Davis, 2003; de Graaf et al., 2007; Kissau et al., 2013; Trustcott & Hsu, 2008; Van Beuning, 2010).
The ninth and 10th questions include an element called a preparatory preface in order to provide context for the question and to guide the interviewee toward the question to come. This is also helpful for participants who may not be as familiar with these concepts to better understand the questions and to maintain rapport between the researcher and the participants (Patton, 2015). Both questions also relate to the sub-question about communicative language teaching and target language use. Because Patton (2015) recommended asking singular and clear questions, question nine has two distinct parts to help the participants. Once again, both CLT and TL use have produced mixed perceptions about their strengths and weaknesses, so guiding the interview to these topics is important in this study (Agbatogun, 2014; Brown, 2009; Jabeen, 2014; Kavoshian et al., 2013; Kim, 2014; Kissau et al., 2013; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Mondal, 2012; Rolin-Iantzi & Varshney, 2008; Sung, 2010; Thompson, 2009; Thompson & Harrison, 2014; Wong, 2012).

The 11th question also has a preparatory preface to transition to the topic of the final sub-question. While this question is somewhat of a presupposition question in presuming that computer-based technology is effective at all, it also has the potential to provide enhanced descriptions (Patton, 2015). Furthermore, this question focuses on the final sub-question for the study and a significant element in current language teaching practices (Amaral & Meurers, 2011; Bahrani, 2011; Baralt & Gurzynski-Weiss, 2011; Chen, 2013; Ducate & Lumicka, 2013; Khamis, 2010; Kim, Rueckert, Kim, & Seo, 2013; Miangah & Nezarat, 2012; Reinders & Wattana, 2011; Viberg & Grönlund, 2013; Zhang, 2013).

The final question or closing question serves to allow the participants to “have the final say” (Patton, 2015, p. 470). Patton (2015) found that the final question often provided some of his best data, taking him in directions he had not foreseen. This question may provide new
insight into effective language teaching that was not addressed anywhere else in the interview or possibly in the study at all.

Standardized Open-Ended Interview Questions for Students

1. Please introduce yourself to me.

2. Please tell me some about your language background as a language learner
   a. What languages have you studied?
   b. When did you start studying a second language?
   c. What types of language experiences do you have outside of the U.S.?

3. What do you consider to be effective language teaching practices that best help you to learn the language you are studying?

4. What is the role of grammar in effective language teaching?

5. What is the role of error correction in effective language teaching?
   a. How should your teacher correct you when you make mistakes?
   b. What types of mistakes should be corrected?
   c. When should mistakes be corrected?
   d. How often should mistakes be corrected?

6. Language teaching practices in the U.S. are guided by what is called World Readiness Standards for Language Learning. Based on these standards, teachers are supposed to be more of a helper or facilitator instead of directly teaching everything. Also, they place an emphasis on developing language proficiency by communicating meaning within real-life contexts with authentic materials through the 5 Cs (Communications, Cultures, Comparisons, Connections, and Communities).
   a. Based on your experience, what are the benefits of this approach to teaching?
b. What are the weaknesses of this approach?

7. ACTFL, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, the same group who helped make the World Readiness Standards, say that the target language (French, Spanish, Chinese) should be used in the classroom 90% of the instructional time. So, if a class is 50 minutes, then 45 minutes should be in the target language. What is your reaction to this standard/objective for target language use in the language classroom?

8. We live in an age where almost everyone has some sort of electronic device, a phone, tablet, etc., and often, schools are looking for more ways to integrate various technologies into instructional practices. What is your opinion of the use of computer-based technology as an effective language teaching practice?

9. Based on your language learning experiences thus far, where do you see yourself in five or ten years as a language learner/language speaker/language user?

10. We are almost done, and we discussed many aspects during our conversation. I would like to ask you one final question. . . Outside of the areas on which we have focused, what else is important to say about effective language teaching practices?

Questions 1 through 3 of the student questions correspond to the rationale behind questions 1, 2, and 6 of the teacher interview questions. The first two questions are designed to build rapport and provide demographic information (Patton, 2015) while addressing that past studies and research have found links between language learning experiences and perceptions (Alimorad & Tajgozari, 2016; Azar & Saeidi, 2013; Chang & Shen, 2010; Horwitz, 1987, 1988, 1999; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Mohebi & Khodadady, 2011; Riley, 2009). Question 3 is similar to question 6 of the teacher questions but modified to fit the perspective of students and draw their attention to effective teaching in relation to learning. The third question also correlates with
the central research question.

The fourth question is exactly like teacher question seven and based in the same rationale. Student question 5 is like teacher question eight, but it has been changed to the perspective of students. The student question is also more clearly spelled out in further detail-oriented questions because students may not be as aware of certain error correction practices without this probing (Patton, 2015). Student questions 6 through 8 and question 10 are the equivalent of teacher questions 9 through 12 with very small changes in wording to ensure that the students understand the contexts of the questions. Nevertheless, the rationale behind these questions is the same as for the teachers and described above. However, question 9 has been added to see if students’ current experiences may already be influencing their future decisions for prolonged language study and use (Benson & Lor, 1999; Chang & Shen, 2010; Fernández, 2008; Horwitz, 1999; Riley, 2009; Ritzau, 2013), an important issue for the overall context of this study.

**Data Analysis**

After the period of data collection, and often while it is still occurring, the researcher must interpret and analyze the data, and in fact, much of case study research is interpretive (Duff, 2014). How the data are interpreted depend much on the role that the researcher takes in the study, whether as a teacher, advocate, evaluator, biographer, or interpreter, because each of these roles shapes the meaning of the case and the issue that the researcher finds (Stake, 1995). Harrison et al. (2017) identified Stake’s (1995) approach to case study research via a relativist/constructionist/interpretivist orientation, and as such, Stake believed the researcher has an integral interpretive role in examining the data based on finding the meaning and comprehension embedded in contextualized experiences. The time, place, and position of the
researcher are of great importance as the researcher either directly or categorically organizes and analyzes the data. “The qualitative researcher concentrates on the instance, trying to pull it apart and put it back together again more meaningfully—analysis and synthesis in direct interpretation” (Stake, 1995, p. 75). Categorical aggregation of data may occur along the way and is usually of greater focus in instrumental case study, particularly as the researcher looks for correspondence or patterns in the data as they relate to the research questions.

**Documents**

For the analysis of the program philosophy/mission statement, course descriptions, department agendas, and lesson plans, the research questions and literature served to guide and identify themes and practices related to aspects of teaching practices. As part of this process, I used the research questions to create the coding categories of effective teaching practices, grammar teaching, error correction, TL use, CLT, and computer-based technology. As I examined each site’s documents, I looked for words and phrases that related to these categories, with the possibility of creating more subcategories (Creswell, 2013). Once all the documents were examined and coded, I pulled apart the individual instances for each case and created a holistic picture (Patton, 2015; Stake, 1995). The patterns were kept in a log.

**Observations**

For teacher observations, I took very descriptive notes during the observed classes, paying particular attention to the research questions so as not to get overwhelmed by the amount of data (Patton, 2015). In re-examining my field notes, I again looked at individual instances for each case and then practices that occurred across cases (Stake, 1995). Creswell (2013) referenced Yin’s (2009) cross-case synthesis to create a word table to display data in a framework that facilitates finding similarities and differences in data. Observations were also
compared with the interviews to see if the teachers’ responses align with what was observed and their perceptions of what was observed. This added another dimension of description to the observations as seen by the participants, and it added a level of cross-checking for the data (Patton, 2015).

**Interviews**

All interviews were transcribed in line with Patton (2015) over Stake (1995), in order to have as accurate a record of the account as possible. Transcriptions were then examined to look for patterns and themes. In a manner similar to the document analysis, I started with the coding categories based around the research question topics of effective teaching practices, grammar teaching, error correction, TL use, CLT, and computer-based technology to begin examining the transcripts and my notes. Creswell (2013) stated that the initial codes could expand to 25-30 codes, but they should not exceed this number. Additionally, while I examined and noted the codes to see participants’ attention or interest to certain categories, I have not actually reported the number of times certain phrases were used, as this is a quality of quantitative research (Creswell, 2013). As Patton advised, I went back and forth between the data and the classifications to verify that the data were organized appropriately. Then, I took all the codes and reworked them into five to six themes that emerged in order to write the case. In this process, I was also looking for areas of convergence and divergence, including surprising and interesting information, until saturation was reached (Creswell, 2013; Patton, 2015).

**Triangulation**

Any conclusions or assertions at which I arrived were not for the sake of generalizing. While certain naturalistic generalizations and comparisons may occur, the assertions were always linked back to the case (Stake, 1995). Moreover, the assertions were validated through the
process of triangulation, the protocols for accuracy and interpretation, and through rich
descriptions (Creswell, 2013; Duff, 2014; Stake, 1995). Duff (2014) stated that “[t]riangulation
is generally felt to enhance a qualitative case study when it is conducted and reported well and
when the relationship between data and interpretations is made clear and is well warranted” (p.
241). For this study, I used *data source triangulation* to see if the case remained stable in altered
circumstances, *investigator triangulation* by having other researchers examine the data, and
*methodological triangulation* with different data collection methods (Stake, 1995). The process
of triangulation, and even finding instances in the case or other cases that are contradictory, serve
to show the complex, multifaceted nature of the phenomenon being studied and how
interpretations vary (Duff, 2014; Stake, 1995).

**Trustworthiness**

Trustworthiness involves credibility, dependability, transferability, and confirmability.
Each aspect is important to address within a qualitative study. For Stake (1995), these protocols
are expected and are a deliberate effort on the part of the researcher to validate the data.
Addressed in the data analysis section, triangulation is also a key component to establish these
aspects in a qualitative study (Creswell, 2013).

**Credibility**

The most important aspect to establishing credibility is rich, thick description (Creswell,
2013). “What people actually say and the descriptions of events observed remain the essence of
qualitative inquiry,” so as a researcher, I needed to “let the data tell their story” (Patton, 2015, p.
545). I really attempted to do this by going through the transcriptions repeatedly to ensure that I
captured the heart of the participants’ perceptions. I also made sure to go back and look at what
they said in context so as not to distort their words for the purpose of supporting another idea or
thought or to make their words “fit” nicely into a theme. Furthermore, by presenting my biases and background upfront in the study, and by addressing my thought processes and any other factors that may influence data collection, analysis, and interpretation, then I increased the credibility of my study (Patton, 2015.)

**Dependability and Confirmability**

Again, rich descriptions were used in the various forms of data collection. Furthermore, the various forms of triangulation that were previously described added to the dependability and confirmability of a study (Stake, 1995). Thus, using several forms of triangulation and having participants verify my interpretations through member checking, my study was dependable and confirmable (Stake, 1995).

**Transferability**

As aforementioned, the objective of case study research is not to generalize or transfer what is found in one case to another (Stake, 1995). However, by providing rich, detailed experiences to better understand this phenomenon, “to see what others have not yet seen. . . to engage the best of [my] interpretive powers,” then I increased the likelihood of naturalistic generalizations (Stake, 1995, p. 136). Additionally, keeping the study firmly grounded in the research, along with explicit indications for how the study was conducted, add to its transferability.

**Ethical Considerations**

Creswell (2013) indicated that ethical issues may arise during various parts of a qualitative study. For this study, potential concerns could have arisen over teachers expressing views contrary to school philosophies and students expressing negative opinions about their teacher’s strategies. At the onset of the study, I assured participants that responses would be kept
confidential and that pseudonyms would be used to ensure their confidentiality in the study. Similar steps were taken to assure the anonymity of participating schools as well. All transcriptions were typed and stored on a password-secured storage space, and all physical notes, logs, observation notes, and other data were kept confidential in a secure location. All audio and video files will be destroyed after three years.

**Summary**

In qualitative research, description comes before interpretation because “descriptions form the bedrock of all qualitative reporting” (Patton, 2015, p. 534). The multiple case study as described in this chapter via the research questions identified three forms of data collection that were used to elicit such descriptions—document analysis, observations, and teacher and student interviews. Additionally, the data were analyzed and interpreted using triangulation to try to understand the “complex interrelationships” for the cases (Stake, 1995, p. 37). Then, issues of trustworthiness were addressed, and ethical considerations were presented. Next, Chapter Four will present the results of the study.
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

This chapter presents the results from the data analysis of this case study. The purpose of this case study was to understand the perceptions of effective L2 teaching practices for high school language students and teachers at two independent schools in South Carolina and one independent school in Florida. As part of the analysis, the chapter includes descriptions of each of the 10 teacher participants and 31 student participants to present a wholistic view of the data. For this study, numerous forms of data were collected, analyzed, and coded. In order, these data sources include documents, teacher observations, and teacher and student interviews. For each data form, the themes that emerged will be presented, and attention will be given to the interviews, which answered the central research question and sub-questions. Themes that emerged in relation to the central research question include content relevance, student engagement, and language input and output. For the sub-questions, some themes that emerged relate to the role or importance of grammar instruction, error correction, benefits and weaknesses of communicative language teaching (CLT), target language (TL) use, and technology.

Participants

Before presenting the results, I will provide important descriptions of the teacher and student participants. Because the purpose of the study is to understand their perceptions of effective L2 practices, particular descriptive attention has been given to factors such as language background and education, which have been found to influence perceptions (Agudo, 2014; Alimorad & Tajgozari, 2016; Azar & Saeidi, 2013; Busch, 2010; Chang & Shen, 2010; Horwitz, 1987, 1988, 1999; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kolano & King, 2015; Mohebi & Khodadady, 2011; Ramazani, 2014; Richardson, 2009; Riley, 2009; Sadeghi & Abdi, 2015; Shah, Malik, Shakir, &
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Mahmood, 2014; Shishavan, 2012; Wesely, 2012; Yildirim, 2015). Pseudonyms have been given to participants to protect their anonymity.

**Teacher Participants**

**Diego.** Diego is an energetic, fun, and personable individual in his fifth year of teaching at School A. Originally from Venezuela, Diego grew up in Arizona with his mother, a college Spanish professor, and from his experiences watching her teach as a child, he knew it was something that he was “always interested in.” This interest led him to do a lot of tutoring in high school, and he attended a prestigious language college for his undergraduate studies in Spanish and educational studies before completing graduate work in the field of education in Spain.

From the interview and from observing Diego teach, I clearly noticed that he is a people person with a passion for teaching and engaging students. He gently guided students in using new vocabulary, and the students seemed at ease and eager to learn. In talking with Diego, I also noticed he is versed in current language trends and practices in talking about Total Physical Response (TPR) to teach vocabulary and the fact that he also has a side job in helping to write language textbooks. Furthermore, because of his background in language education, he acknowledged when his opinions were contrary to accepted practices. In fact, he seemed quite embarrassed to discuss his opinions on topics such as TL use by introducing his thoughts with, “Please don’t judge. . . I hold a very unpopular opinion on this...” and then following up with “. . . There’s just no way. . . Look, I understand where they’re coming from and. . . I just hate admitting this out loud. Please don’t judge me. . .” (Diego, personal communication, January 28, 2019).

**Elena.** Elena has been teaching Spanish for 16 years, and she has experience in lower, middle, and upper school. The daughter of Spanish immigrants, Elena “grew up speaking
Spanish at home, but never really knowing the differences between the two languages” (Elena, personal communication, February 1, 2019). However, even as a child, she had a desire to understand the technical aspects of the two languages, wanting to know:

why do we do it this way in English, and why do we do it this way in Spanish? . . . I really wanted to know why, like why is it this way and what are the rules, like a lot of the grammar rules. So, that was my passion, just nuts and bolts. (Elena, personal communication, February 1, 2019)

Though she originally started as a journalism major, Elena switched to government and international studies, which had a language component. When her original career aspirations did not allow her to use Spanish as she had hoped, she eventually answered an ad for a Spanish teaching position at the independent school, where she has taught her entire career.

**William.** William, also a Spanish teacher, was the first non-native teacher whom I interviewed and observed. A language enthusiast, William started learning Spanish in eighth grade and continued to study it throughout high school, while combining it with a couple of years of French and some independent study of Japanese. Though he originally started studying computer science, he switched majors and earned a degree in Spanish. His language experiences include a semester abroad in Chile and earning his master’s degree in Spanish from Spain. He also has some educational work in linguistics.

William plainly admitted that when he earned his degree, he had no intention of becoming a teacher, and he “didn’t want to teach. . . an educator was just someone who gave information that the students then spat out on a test” (William, personal communication, January 30, 2019). However, when he realized job opportunities for Spanish majors were limited, he
started to substitute teach. After an experience with a student from Mexico with limited English skills, he realized:

‘somebody needs to help this kid out.’ it’s kinda through that experience and subbing that i realized that teaching is about building relationships with students and helping them with life, not just with language or whatever. . .so. . .i kinda put those 2 together.

(William, personal communication, January 30, 2019)

Now, William has been teaching for 11 years, with most of that time in the Spanish classroom.

Charlotte. Charlotte is a French teacher and mother of two young children. She has recently started going to the gym again, and she loves to travel. Charlotte’s dad is French, and her mother also has a bachelor’s degree in French. Charlotte spent her early childhood in France because of her parents’ jobs and her dad’s family living there. She moved to the states in the third grade, but she grew up spending a lot of summers in France visiting family.

Though Charlotte took some French classes in high school and college, her bachelor’s degree is in Spanish and she has a master’s degree in clinical counseling. With the birth of her first child, she decided to be a stay-at-home mom. After her daughters started to get a little older, she began to pray about what to do with her life. When a part-time French teaching job opened, she considered it the perfect balance between being a mother and working. In the same year, she also took over a Spanish class when another teacher left the school. Charlotte has now been teaching for five years, but admits, “I never thought I would be a language teacher because my mom was a language teacher in a public school. And I just saw the toll that took on her, but having this job has been really good, because I don’t think it’s as demanding as public school” (Charlotte, personal communication, February 28, 2019).
Liling. Life is very busy for Liling right now. Recently a new mother, she has only been back at work for a short while. When she is not teaching or caring for her daughter, she enjoys reading, tennis, calligraphy, and art. She graciously participated in the interview with me while trying to keep her young daughter happy. Even with an interruption or two, she continued to engage in dialogue and provide very thorough answers to my questions.

Born and raised in northern China, Liling came to the U.S. six years ago to pursue her master’s degree in English literature. Though she taught some adult English classes in China, Liling laughingly said, “I didn’t plan to be a teacher, but now I love it” (Liling, personal communication, March 27, 2019). While working in the international program at her school in communication and social media, she was approached about becoming the Chinese teacher. She said, “It kind of just happened” (Liling, personal communication, March 27, 2019). Liling now has a master’s in education, and she is currently in her fourth year of teaching Mandarin Chinese.

Sophia. From the first moment that Sophia started talking, I became enthralled in her ability to weave a story as she talked to me. When I spoke with her, she made me feel like I was family and a friend that she had not seen in a long time. Sophia is a first generation American born to Cuban parents. “My first language was Spanish, because both my parents spoke Spanish. We went to Spanish church and we only hung out with Spanish families” (Sophia, personal communication, February 28, 2019). Not until she started going to school and watching American cartoons did she begin to learn English, and at the age of seven she recalled telling her mom, “Mommy, mommy! I must be American now because I just dreamt in English!” (Sophia, personal communication, February 28, 2019).

When asked how she decided to become a language teacher, she stated, “Well, I think the Lord decided it for me. I didn’t really make that decision” (Sophia, personal communication,
February 28, 2019). After completing high school and getting married at a young age, she was often approached by individuals in the small churches she attended that they needed a Spanish teacher. This happened several times throughout the course of her life, and her reply was always, “Hey, I don’t have nothing but high school. I don’t have nothing but high school and what’s up here [points to head]” (Sophia, personal communication, February 28, 2019). Nevertheless, the various opportunities that were presented allowed her to gain experience in curriculum development across small Christian schools for elementary students, which then opened doors in larger public high schools because they heard about the great work she was doing. After tragedy struck her family, Sophia became the “main bread winner” as she put it, so she earned her A.A. degree, and eventually was offered a job at School B (Sophia, personal communication, February 28, 2019). She now has over 36 years of language teaching experience and will complete her master’s degree in the summer of 2019. According to her, this is all “the Lord. That’s my story and I’m sticking to it” (Sophia, personal communication, February 28, 2019).

**Chloe.** According to Chloe, she has been teaching Spanish since she can remember. The mother of two teenage boys, she knew at the age of five that she wanted to pursue a career in Spanish teaching. This drive happened after going on a field trip and hearing a family speaking a language that she did not understand. “And I remember saying to my mom like, ‘What are they doing?’ And she told me, ‘Oh, they’re speaking Spanish.’ And I was just totally intrigued that people could communicate, and I couldn’t understand them” (Chloe, personal communication, May 6, 2019).

By the time she was in seventh grade after moving often with her family, she was placed in a Spanish class and saw that she “had a knack for it, and [she] was totally intrigued again”
(Chloe, personal communication, May 6, 2019). So, Chloe kept taking Spanish classes until she earned a master’s degree in Spanish literature, linguistics, and the methodologies of teaching foreign language. Now, Chloe, a self-proclaimed “old school, traditional teacher” has been teaching Spanish for 15-16 years spanning middle school up to college-level classes with about a 10-year break during this time after the birth of her first son (Chloe, personal communication, May 6, 2019).

**Luis.** Luis, a native of Peru, moved to the U.S. when he was 15. A soccer coach and beach lover, he has been teaching for 19 years. He attributes the beginning of his teaching career to an experience coaching soccer:

I was coaching right out of high school. . . [and] I was coaching one day and it was just like one player that he had the uh-huh moment after a certain drill or explanation, and I was like, “I kind of like that.” So that’s how it all started. (Luis, personal communication, May 6, 2019)

After originally studying psychology, Luis switched to Spanish and a degree in foreign language education. Eventually he went on to earn a master’s degree in Spanish language and culture, and according to him, it has “worked out well” (Luis, personal communication, May 6, 2019). Even more, when he reflected back on his early experiences in the U.S. and not knowing English, he felt that allowed him to relate to his students by sharing his frustrations, how he was able to progress in the language, and developing realistic expectations “based on where they are with the language, where they are in class, where they are in their effort. . . see it a little bit clearer I guess” (Luis, personal communication, May 6, 2019).

**Jose.** A native of Mexico, Jose is married to an American, and he has been teaching Spanish for 25 years, two of which were in Mexico. Outside of teaching, Jose loves to play and
to coach soccer. He originally started teaching Spanish in Mexico when he needed to get a job after high school. When a Spanish school for American students opened in his hometown, Jose began working in the summer to teach the kids some Spanish and play sports with them. This job led to an interest in the teaching profession, so Jose began to take classes to teach Spanish, “and here I am” (Jose, personal communication, May 3, 2019).

**Tomas.** Originally from Portugal, Tomas began his career as a geography teacher. He loves to read, and he thinks and hopes “everybody likes to read” (Tomas, personal communication, May 6, 2019). He also enjoys racquetball, cooking, and sharing ideas with friends. Though he is a Spanish teacher, Spanish is his fourth language after his native Portuguese, seven to eight years of French, and English. With a smile on his face and a laugh to go along with it, Tomas said that he moved to the U.S. for “love. That’s it. My wife” (Tomas, personal communication, May 6, 2019). Not sure what he would do when he arrived in the states, the school where his wife worked needed a Spanish teacher. Tomas originally declined their offer, citing his lack of a language teaching background. However, “they really insisted. They told me, ‘You can do it. The first year, you have to study . . . but we’ll support you.’ And I accepted the challenge, and since then I’ve been teaching Spanish” (Tomas, personal communication, May 6, 2019).

**Student Participants**

**Palmer.** Palmer is an 18-year-old student in his senior year of high school in a level 4 Spanish class. He is best known for his love of golf and his dislike for coming to school. When describing himself, Palmer said, “I really consider myself pretty normal. I just like hanging out with my friends and playing golf” (Palmer, personal communication, February 6, 2019). Palmer has traveled to many countries such as Ireland, Germany, and France, and his family has hosted
exchange students for most of his life, including this year with a student from Germany. Though he started learning Latin in fifth grade, he has been studying Spanish for the past five years and hopes to at least minor in it in college. When he reflected on language learning and his travel experiences he stated:

I’ve always thought that it was just interesting there are just actual countries out there that we just can’t communicate with. And I find language pretty fascinating because it’s really the one thing that you can use to communicate with everybody as long as you, you know speak the same language. So, I think language is a really cool thing. (Palmer, personal communication, February 6, 2019)

**Henry.** Seventeen-year-old Henry comes across as a laid-back kind of guy with a calm demeanor. When he is not working at a local eatery, he loves to hang out with his friends and family. Henry began studying Spanish in pre-kindergarten, but he decided to study Latin for a couple of years in middle school before returning to Spanish in ninth grade. Henry is now a high school senior and level 4 Spanish student, and has traveled to France and Costa Rica. For Henry, his language experience has been a fairly positive one, and

it’s just really interesting speaking another language. . . [because] I’ve just been speaking English for so long that I just like being able to. . .most people, most Americans can only speak one language and I like being better than that.” (Henry, personal communication, February 5, 2019)

With future career aspirations in business, Henry sees the potential benefits of continuing to study a second language in college, stating, “From what I’ve heard, it’s nice to have a second language when you go into business. (Henry, personal communication, February 5, 2019)
**Tiana.** Tiana, 17, comes across with a lot of energy and personality. She loves sports, especially tennis and track, participating in student government, theatre, and spending time with her friends and family. Tiana’s language learning started in sixth grade with Latin, but then she began studying Spanish in ninth grade, and she has continued up to now, her senior year. Tiana considers her travel experiences to Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic invaluable to her language learning, particularly “having to like hear things, actually experiencing the talking to people, just broadened my language” (Tiana, personal communication, February 18, 2019). When she thinks about five years from now, Tiana hopes to be “fluent, not completely of course, but 90, 95% fluent in Spanish” and well on her way to a career in foreign relations (Tiana, personal communication, February 18, 2019).

**John.** A ninth grader and 15 years of age, John is the kind of guy who will be completely honest with you and keep you smiling the whole time with his witty comments. He enjoys tennis, but he really loves to play video games “a lot. . .more than [he] probably should. But. . .it’s fine” (John, personal communication, March 6, 2019). John has 2 brothers, 3 stepbrothers, and 2 stepsisters, and he is currently a level two Spanish student. His language journey began in the first grade, and outside of his Swedish grandmother trying to teach him some phrases occasionally, he has had no real exposure to languages other than English. However, through video games, John said he has tried to communicate with people from countries such as Germany and China by using “a translator to try to figure out what they were saying and respond to it in their language, which doesn’t always work. I think I offended some person on accident with Google Translate, but it’s all fine later on” (John, personal communication, March 6, 2019). When asked where he sees himself in five or 10 years as a language learner, he candidly replied, “maybe a year of it in college and then not much past that”
even though he recognizes that “It’s good to be able to speak multiple languages” (John, personal communication, March 6, 2019).

**Penny.** Penny is perhaps one of the most well-mannered young people I have ever met, using “yes ma’am” and “no ma’am” in abundance. A travel enthusiast, Penny has been to El Salvador, Costa Rica, France, and Italy. She is also a volleyball player who just enjoys hanging out with her friends. However, Penny is a unique individual because she is the only student I interviewed who is currently studying two languages. She is a level 2 Spanish student in a typical class setting, and she traded her study hall to take an online Chinese class. Penny began learning Spanish in kindergarten, but she considers fifth grade the first year that she really started studying it. When asked why she wanted to learn Chinese, she said, “Because it’s the most widely spoken language in the world, and it’s like the most popularly spoken language in the world. And I’ve always been interested in China, so I would like to speak the language I guess” (Penny, personal communication, April 11, 2019). When she looks to the future, Penny sees herself “more going along the Mandarin path. I prefer that language more, like which is kind of surprising, but I like how different it is” (Penny, personal communication, April 11, 2019).

**Amy.** Amy, 16, is in the 10th grade and she is always on the go. She enjoys swimming, tennis, basketball, soccer, and just being outdoors. She also likes to read and listen to music. Currently a level 2 Spanish student, she began learning Spanish in elementary school, and she also studied a couple of years of Latin. When asked about her travel and language experiences outside of the U.S., she spoke fondly of a mission trip to Ecuador where she “spoke a lot of Spanish with like the natives,” and she really feels like her Spanish improved during that time (Amy, personal communication, March 6, 2019). Smiling, Amy went on, “I feel like the language was finally like clicking” (Amy, personal communication, March 6, 2019). However,
though she has enjoyed learning Spanish so far, she said she is not sure that she wants to “center my future learning around learning another language” (Amy, personal communication, March 6, 2019). On the other hand, she hopes her high school path plus a few courses in college will help her become fluent.

**Calvin.** A young man of few words, Calvin, a ninth grade Spanish 1 student is a talented football and track athlete. He hopes to play at the collegiate level and beyond, and he daily carries around a gallon jug of water with some form of Pedialyte or hydration formula to keep him performing his best on the field and track. Though Calvin learned a little French when he was really young, he admits he does not remember any of it. Even his elementary Spanish is a vague memory, so this is his “first year back” (Calvin, personal communication, March 29, 2019). Looking to his future, Calvin is confident he will “be head over heels way better at speaking Spanish” than before he started, but when asked if Spanish will be part of his college or career plans, he replied with a quick and firm, yet polite, “no ma’am,” indicating that he wants to pursue sports management (Calvin, personal communication, March 29, 2019).

**Tyler.** Similar to John, Tyler is succinct in responding to questions but passionate about sports. He loves to play baseball and basketball, and he even has college offers to play baseball as only a 15-year-old freshman. Tyler is in Spanish 1, and he only had “a little bit [of Spanish] during elementary but not actual class” (Tyler, personal communication, May 10, 2019). He had a little more exposure toward the end of his eighth-grade school year, but this is his first year of formally studying Spanish. Tyler had trouble envisioning a future with Spanish in it, but he hopes to “be able to understand a conversation” and perhaps even participate in it (Tyler, personal communication, May 10, 2019).
**Sabrina.** Sabrina is a very quiet and reserved 15-year-old freshman, but when she talks about photography or art, her face lights up and she becomes much more animated. Though Sabrina began learning Spanish in pre-kindergarten and she completed a few years of formal study in middle school, she did not feel as though she had a solid foundation. Thus, she decided to retake Spanish 1 this year. Over spring break, she had the opportunity to travel to Belize, Cozumel, and Honduras, and when I asked her if she was able to speak Spanish with the locals, she laughed and responded, “A little bit” (Sabrina, personal communication, May 20, 2019). Beyond Spanish, some of her family members are German, so she does hear it spoken fairly often. With her passion for photography, Sabrina hopes to make a career out of it, but she goes back and forth on whether she will use Spanish as part of her career, and even went so far as to say she “will probably forget most of it” (Sabrina, personal communication, May 20, 2019).

**Jesse.** A pianist, tennis player, and self-proclaimed “academic guy,” Jesse, 15, is quick to introduce himself as a guy who does “a little bit of everything, honestly” (Jesse, personal communication, March 13, 2019). Currently in French 2, Jesse began studying French in second grade and continued through fifth grade before stopping for a few years. He then “picked it back up” during his freshman year and he is now a sophomore (Jesse, personal communication, March 13, 2019). Jesse has never traveled outside of the U.S., but he believes “there is a lot of benefit to learning a foreign language” (Jesse, personal communication, March 13, 2019). However, he also acknowledges that he will probably quit studying a world language after high school because he will not “be focused or dedicated enough to become fluent in it” (Jesse, personal communication, March 13, 2019).

**Michael.** A sophomore, Michael likes to run track, a passion he has had since the seventh grade. He also enjoys being outdoors, and he finds the weekends boring because he
spends too much time indoors. Michael’s first introduction to French came in the eighth grade with his track coach who taught an introductory French class. Michael has never been outside the U.S., and he does not consider French his “cup of tea” despite acknowledging a love for the French language (Michael, personal communication, March 13, 2019). Looking five to 10 years down the road, he does not see French in his future because it “doesn’t grip me like other things” (Michael, personal communication, March 13, 2019).

**Kate.** Kate, 15 and in the 10th grade, is a cheerleader and she runs track. Outside of sports, she also enjoys math and reading, and she recently traveled to Belize. Her language background, particularly in elementary school is rather unique. She learned Chinese in kindergarten, Spanish from first through third grades, Latin in fourth and fifth grades, and finally, she began an intro to French in eighth grade. Now, she is in French 2 and hopes to “test out in college” to forgo further study and not be “too busy” (Kate, personal communication, March 13, 2019). Kate likes French and her French class but does not see herself using the language. However, she thinks “it’s good to have” because she has heard that it might help with dementia (Kate, personal communication, March 13, 2019).

**Maria.** Sixteen-year-old Maria is an avid and dedicated tennis player with aspirations to play in college one day. “I’m pretty serious about it,” she said, adding that she is either playing or doing “some kind of conditioning,” not leaving much time for other hobbies or activities (Maria, personal communication, March 13, 2019). Maria has studied French since the second grade, but because her current school did not offer French in the sixth grade, she was not able to continue studying French until the introductory class in eighth grade. Currently in French 2, she hopes to “go all the way up, if they have it, until senior year” (Maria, personal communication, March 13, 2019). Maria is looking forward to a mission trip this summer to Haiti even though
she realizes that a lot of the people will speak Creole. Looking to the future, Maria hopes to be “fluent in the next 10 years for sure” (Maria, personal communication, March 13, 2019). She wants to possibly minor in French and eventually do medical missions, and she believes that knowing French well could help her to “reach more people, and it could give me more opportunities” (Maria, personal communication, March 13, 2019).

**Mia.** Mia is a junior in high school, and she is 17 years of age. She loves to play soccer, and she is currently athletic prefect, meaning she serves in a student leadership role to help organize pep rallies and encourage people to come to athletic events. She admits that between club and school soccer, she does not have much time for other hobbies. Currently in Spanish 3, Mia began studying a second language as a freshman, though she does acknowledge learning a few things from Dora the Explorer. Beyond this year, Mia discloses, “Personally, I don’t see myself taking my knowledge of the Spanish language much further, unless I’m actually called to do something with that,” to which she added, “Who knows? I may go to Guatemala or something to be a missionary there. . .But I don’t know” (Mia, personal communication, March 13, 2019).

**Allison.** Before moving to South Carolina, Allison grew up in Florida and started to study Spanish around first grade. Her mom’s family is Cuban, but she said that she has just kind of been “picking up little words here and there” outside of her more formal study in school (Allison, personal communication, March 13, 2019). Allison, 17, considers herself a typical teenager. She plays volleyball and soccer, and she likes to read, watch movies, and listen to music. Because of her family connections, Allison would love to use Spanish more and be able to understand what her family is saying. She is not sure if she will “specifically go and study
Spanish more in depth,” but she acknowledges, “I do know that I would like to use it in the future” (Allison, personal communication, March 13, 2019).

**Cooper.** With a quiet intelligence beyond his 17 years, Cooper is a learning enthusiast. He admits, “When I start getting into something, I really like it” (Cooper, personal communication, March 13, 2019). His interests range from psychology to engineering and “even schoolwork sometimes” (Cooper, personal communication, March 13, 2019). Cooper’s language background in Spanish started in elementary school with some basic numbers and colors but did not develop much before his freshman year. He is now a junior in Spanish 3, but he also started using Duo Lingo to learn French earlier this year, and he hopes to learn other languages in the future. Though he is not sure that using Spanish is in his future, he sees the potential benefits of knowing Spanish or French, particularly if he were to work internationally. Overall, Cooper said, “I’m pretty fascinated with languages. I think it’s interesting to see how different people groups learned how to communicate. Just seeing the differences in different languages is very interesting to me” (Cooper, personal communication, March 13, 2019).

**Kyle.** Full of energy and a comedian at heart, Kyle is a 15-year-old freshman. He enjoys running cross country, and he likes to drive. He has had travel experiences in France, Argentina, and Costa Rica. Though he studied French in seventh and eighth grade, the language his mom studied in school, he decided that he wanted to “try something new” (Kyle, personal communication, April 10, 2019). With his dad’s encouragement, he began Chinese this year, and he really enjoys it and thinks it is fun. He desires to study Chinese throughout high school and potentially in college. His goal is not to be fluent in that time, but he hopes to “be able to carry on a conversation for quite a while” (Kyle, personal communication, April 10, 2019).
Bella. Also a ninth grader, Bella has a variety of interests. When she is not playing softball, she likes to draw, write, and act. She is really fond of animals as well, with her favorites being squirrels or barn owls. Bella’s language study began in seventh grade with Spanish, but when she learned that her school would offer Mandarin starting her ninth grade year, she said, “I was really excited because I knew we had a lot of boarding students and I thought it would be kind of cool to learn some of their language” (Bella, personal communication, April 10, 2019). For Bella, just the ability to pass international students in the halls and understand them makes learning interesting, and she hopes to keep studying Mandarin and perhaps Japanese, if the courses are offered in college. For Bella, Chinese “is really interesting. . .It’s really fun. I would definitely study it later on” (Bella, personal communication, April 10, 2019).

Stacey. A junior, Stacey likes “anything with art” and enjoys doing makeup, including special effects makeup (Stacy, personal communication, April 10, 2019). She spent her ninth and 10th grade years studying French but changed to Chinese this year. When asked why she switched languages, she said, “I feel like I wasn’t really learning anything in French and it was really hard, and I wasn’t very bad at it, but I feel like Chinese has been easier for me” (Stacy, personal communication, April 10, 2019). Stacy would like to study Chinese after high school, and if she lands her dream job doing television and movie makeup in an international setting, then she sees Chinese benefitting her in the future.

Christian. Originally from the French speaking part of Quebec, Christian, a 17-year-old junior, grew up in French-English bilingual schools. He came to the states with his family when he was a freshman in high school. In the eighth grade he began learning Spanish but said that he did not learn much then. Now in Spanish 3, he plans to take AP Spanish next year. When thinking about the future of his language learning, Christian said, “I would like to be able to
speak it fluently soon. . . So if I get to go to Spain or something eventually, I would like to just try and practice it more” (Christian, personal communication, May 6, 2019). When asked if he will formally study Spanish or French in college, he said he would prefer to study abroad instead of studying languages. He added, “I know that speaking multiple languages will help you when you’re going to work. . . because I want to do international business. So, it is definitely going to help me” (Christian, personal communication, May 6, 2019).

Georgia. A creative spirit, Georgia loves art—making things, drawing, and painting. She also enjoys cooking and even taekwondo. Georgia, 15, is finishing her sophomore year, and while she has not traveled outside of the U.S., she has some experiences speaking Spanish with individuals where her parents work. She first began studying Spanish in the sixth grade, and she is now in Spanish 3. Georgia hopes to continue learning Spanish, adding that she has an interest in it, but she admits, “I don’t know if I will, but I know it’s helpful” (Georgia, personal communication, May 24, 2019).

Janie. Seventeen and a junior, Janie is a volleyball and softball player. She also participates in community service, and she particularly enjoys her volunteer work at elementary schools. Beyond this, she said, “I just like hanging out with my dogs” (Janie, personal communication, May 24, 2019). Janie took an introductory Spanish class in seventh grade but admits that she learned similar content in Spanish 1 as a freshman. For her, Spanish 2 is when she “started getting into just more tenses, more vocabulary, and being able to speak more clearly” (Janie, personal communication, May 24, 2019). This year, she said that Spanish 3 has really challenged her to speak more and to develop better listening skills. Interestingly enough, each summer, Janie has cousins who visit from Italy, and she tries to use her Spanish knowledge to make connections with Italian. Looking down the road, Janie plans to take a few classes and
hopes to “become fluent in both Spanish and Italian” because of her family ties, and because she feels “it’s important to be able to communicate with maybe some people. . . and maybe make them feel more comfortable too in the workplace” (Janie, personal communication, May 24, 2019).

Isaac. At 15, Isaac is a level 10 gymnast, the highest level possible, though he said he is not quite a full level 10 just yet. Currently in Spanish 2, Isaac began his language studies in elementary school at age seven or eight learning Hebrew. After a few years of Hebrew, he did not study languages again until beginning Spanish in ninth grade. When asked about five or 10 years from now, Isaac confesses, “I’m not entirely sure if I have too much of a future in studying language” (Isaac, personal communication, May 13, 2019). However, he also acknowledges, “it’s good to have a second language,” even indicating that Chinese “might be a bit more helpful” than Spanish for his desired career in engineering (Isaac, personal communication, May 13, 2019).

Pippa. A freshman, Pippa is very dedicated to theatre. Because of this interest and the time commitment it takes, she concedes that she does not have a lot of free time. Pippa’s language exposure began in sixth grade with a survey course of romance languages, and then she completed Spanish 1 over the course of seventh and eighth grades. Presently in Spanish 2, Pippa recently spent spring break in Spain, an experience she found “fun” and “cool to be able to understand [people] a little bit” (Pippa, personal communication, May 13, 2019). When she thinks about her future as a language learner or speaker, Pippa aspires to be like her sister and “to be fluent by the end of high school,” but she immediately follows with, “I don’t know how realistic that is” (Pippa, personal communication, May 13, 2019). If it is not as feasible as she
hopes, then Pippa hopes to just “have the skills to go somewhere, like go back to Spain, or go to Mexico and be able to function on my own” (Pippa, personal communication, May 13, 2019).

**Greg.** Seventeen and in the 10th grade, Greg is a highly competitive springboard diver, and he hopes to dive for a college or university one day. When I express that I just cannot imagine diving and flipping like that, he laughs with me, and admits it was a farfetched idea for him a couple of years ago as well. However, he added, “It’s a big mental game. But once you get over that, it becomes easier” (Greg, personal communication, May 16, 2019). Greg also started languages with a survey course but chose to study French for seventh and eighth grades. However, he thinks French is “less necessary” and Spanish is “strategically” better “in the modern world, like for business and stuff” (Greg, personal communication, May 16, 2019). Even as a Spanish 2 student, Greg acknowledges that “50 minutes is not enough to learn a language by any means,” and truly learning the language is about time and making a personal decision of being able to “culturally immerse myself in the language” instead of being forced to take a class with tests and quizzes, “the grammatic stuff” (Greg, personal communication, May 16, 2019). Greg would love to learn a lot of languages and perhaps study abroad one day, but he does not see himself formally studying a second language beyond high school.

**Billy.** A native of Florida and resident for his whole life, 17-year-old Billy is in the 10th grade. He is a devoted soccer player, playing club soccer and for his school. When he is not playing soccer, he is either at school or spending time with friends. Billy first studied Latin in middle school, but then he switched to Spanish when he was a ninth grader. He recently went to Puerto Rico for spring break with his family, he has been to Peru, and he enjoyed hearing Spanish spoken around him in both locations. Billy plans to continue studying Spanish throughout high school, but when he looks to the future, he is not sure if he will have time to
“work classes into a collegiate level or university schedule,” and he does not see it as a part of his future career (Billy, personal communication, May 16, 2019). However, he believes his love of traveling “is probably the best way to keep embracing the language.”

**Willow.** Approaching the end of her junior year, Willow is a busy 17-year old. When she is not dancing or running track at school, she can be found babysitting, hanging out with her friends, or just working out. Willow’s dad is Puerto Rican, but she did not grow up speaking Spanish. The last time she visited Puerto Rico was before she started to study Spanish in middle school. Though Willow practices speaking Spanish with her dad, she does not really speak it around other family members. She admits, “I’m self-conscious about my pronunciation and things,” but she hopes “to try to keep learning Spanish to be able to speak it fluently eventually” (Willow, personal communication, May 16, 2019).

**Perry.** At 16, Perry has interests that range from fishing to ice hockey, a sport that has surprising popularity in Florida. Though he took the level 1 Spanish class in seventh and eighth grades, he decided to retake the course as a freshman. Now in Spanish 2, Perry has traveled to Spain, Peru, and Costa Rica where he said, “I was able to communicate a little bit” (Perry, personal communication, May 16, 2019). After high school, Perry plans to study abroad in college and take some classes, but he does not know beyond that. He thinks he may want to go into business, and when I inform him that Spanish could be helpful in this area, he replies, “Yes. Maybe. Possibly” (Perry, personal communication, May 16, 2019).

**Brandon.** Nearing the end of his junior year, Brandon is all about baseball, saying, “It’s my main thing” (Brandon, personal communication, May 24, 2019). But he also likes to travel, having visited places such as Greece and Italy. Like many of his peers, Brandon began his language study in Latin, but then switched to Spanish in ninth grade. Currently in Spanish 3,
Brandon confessed, “Spanish has always been a little rough for me” (Brandon, personal communication, May 24, 2019). With plans of studying nutrition or exercise science, Brandon does not think that speaking Spanish will be necessary, but he added, “I’m going to definitely try and keep proficient” (Brandon, personal communication, May 24, 2019).

**Collin.** Seventeen and a junior, Collin is really into theatre and video games. When asked about his favorite video game, he animatedly told me about a new release in a series. “It’s kind of the cool critique on McCarthyism and kind of American culture during the 1950s and what would happen if the apocalypse happened” (Collin, personal communication, May 21, 2019). At home, Collin’s mom speaks Russian and his dad knows sign language. He said that he grew up seeing/hearing both languages and using some basic phrases. At school, Collin began Spanish in pre-kindergarten, but he described his elementary years as “repeating Spanish 1 over and over again” (Collin, personal communication, May 21, 2019). Now in Spanish 3, he hopes to qualify for AP Spanish next year, and if not, he wants to take Spanish 4. Brandon said in the future:

> I would like to be fluent in Spanish as well as Arabic . . . I want to be a translator. And having those two major languages . . . are kind of critical for being a citizen in the United States. And going into the future, I would definitely like to be fluent in those two languages because I could do so much good for my community and the world knowing those languages. (Collin, personal communication, May 21, 2019)

**Kerri.** An active 17-year-old, Kerri is a varsity volleyball and soccer player, and she plays club volleyball. Kerri started Spanish in seventh grade, but when she switched from public to private school as a sophomore, it was recommended that she retake Spanish 2 to have a solid foundation in the curriculum. Now a junior, she is in Spanish 3, and she recently left the country
for the first time on a trip to Mexico for spring break. Kerri does not plan to continue Spanish for her senior year because she does not get along with her teacher, and she does not want to have the same teacher again. However, she said, “I would like to continue to practice [Spanish] and . . . probably study Spanish in college and travel” (Kerri, personal communication, May 14, 2019).

Results

The results will be presented for each of the types of data collected and the themes that arose across the data forms. First, the documents that were analyzed will be presented, followed by teacher observations, and the interviews. For the interviews, the data will be presented for the central research question and sub-questions divided by the participant groups of the teachers and the students.

Document Themes

When starting this study, I intended to look at program philosophies or mission statements, course descriptions, lesson plans, and departmental meeting minutes. Because none of the schools required formal lesson plans, none of the teachers had a document to examine. Therefore, I was unable to use the lesson plans as a document source to compare with other documents or the other data sources.

Program philosophies/mission statements. From the examination of the program philosophies or mission statements, three themes emerged: global citizenship, communication, and culture. In regard to global citizenship, the language departments at the schools expressed a desire to help students “expand global perspectives,” “[develop] global citizens,” and to be leaders in “global ministries.” The schools also expressed a desire to foster “meaningful communication,” communicating in “one or more languages” with the necessary skills and
knowledge. Lastly, the mission statements highlighted the importance of promoting “cultural connections” and cultural awareness via “cultural elements of the countries in which the languages are spoken” and thriving in “multicultural environments.”

**Course descriptions.** For each school, I examined the course descriptions across course levels, i.e. level 1, level 2, etc., and language courses (Spanish, French, Chinese). Three themes emerged for all schools from this examination: skills, culture, and grammar. Two of the three schools also had a fourth theme: proficiency. In regard to skills, every course description referenced the development of “listening, reading, and writing skills” that students should expect to undertake in the course. Across the board, phrases such as “basic skills,” “productive skills,” “linguistic skills,” and “developing more in-depth skills” appeared numerous times. Additionally, grammar was emphasized across levels with mentions of studying “grammar concepts,” “grammar structures,” “grammar structures and patterns,” and “new grammatical structures.” Beyond this, many references were made to the specific grammar topics that would be taught including verb tenses such as the imperative, the preterit, and the imperfect, along with other structural items like adjectives and object pronouns. For two of the three schools, proficiency also developed as a theme from level 1 up to the AP level. These schools expressed course goals of helping students “develop proficiency,” “increase language proficiency,” and “demonstrate interpersonal, interpretive, and presentational proficiency.”

**Departmental meetings.** Though the schools met with different frequencies for departmental meetings, the agendas from the meetings brought to light two themes: addressing learning differences and assessment. Agenda minutes expressed concerns about meeting the needs of diverse learners and proficiency levels. Topics such as “ability groups,” how to “effectively meet the needs of students with learning differences,” and how to “challenge
students in level-appropriate ways” were all noted for several meetings. Furthermore, minutes also addressed the topic of different ways to assess students via various summative or formative assessments, and specific tools for assessing such as Go Formative, Kahoot, Quizlet, the National Spanish and National French Exams, and The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages Assessment of Performance toward Proficiency in Languages (AAPL).

**Observation Themes**

Each teacher was observed for one class period. Two samples of observation notes can be found in Appendix B. From the observations, the two themes, vocabulary development and grammar instruction, arose. Diego, Jose, William, Elena, Liling, Charlotte, Luis, and Sophia spent all or the majority of their class period introducing and/or expanding on vocabulary. Diego and William did this by going through a vocabulary list or diagram and having students work with the terms in oral and written forms. Luis, Jose, Elena, Charlotte, and Chloe had some sort of worksheet or questionnaire to work with the vocabulary and have students use context to choose the correct word for the context or definition. Several of the teachers, including Liling, Sophia, William, Elena, and Charlotte, also incorporated reading and listening tasks with an emphasis on vocabulary. Tomas placed an emphasis on vocabulary through song translation.

Beyond vocabulary, the teachers also addressed particular grammatical concepts. William and Diego addressed grammar as more of a side note or as it arose within student speaking, while Charlotte, Luis, Sophia, Elena, Liling, Tomas, Jose, and Chloe had distinct parts of their lessons dedicated to the teaching or reviewing of whichever concept they were currently covering. Many of the teachers used online tools such as Kahoot or Go Formative to work with the grammar, while others had textbooks or tasks that were projected for students to complete. The most common grammar concepts were verb tenses or conjugations.
Interview Themes

The teacher and student interviews were carried out over the course of the spring semester of the 2018-2019 school year. The largest amount of data came from the 41 interviews, 10 from teachers and 31 from students because the interviews specifically targeted the central research question and the four sub-questions. Two sample transcriptions are in Appendix C. In this section, the interview themes will be presented according to question and will include both participant groups.

Central research question themes. The central research question for this study was: How do high school world language teachers and high school world language students perceive effective L2 teaching practices? Early in the interview, participants were asked to define or describe effective language teaching practices, and before closing the interview, they were given a final opportunity to address this topic once more. After coding the data, I noticed four themes consistently appearing across both participant groups: content relevance, engagement, language input, and language output. A fifth theme, teacher behaviors, was also present, but with a slightly different viewpoint for the two groups. For teachers, the theme related to teacher behaviors in the sense of teacher and student relationships, but the students focused more on overall teacher behaviors with some overlap occurring.

Content relevance. A very prevalent theme across teachers and students, content relevance manifested itself in various ways. For French teacher, Charlotte, the selection of topics and activities should be “interesting” and “relevant” (Charlotte, personal communication, February 28, 2019). Moreover, Elena, a Spanish teacher, stressed the importance of students being able to take the content and “associate. . . [and] apply it to themselves” and their lives (Elena, personal communication, February 1, 2019). Otherwise, as Diego noted, students ask,
“Why do we need this? When are we ever going to use this,” a sentiment that was repeated by Jesse, a French student (Diego, personal communication, January 28, 2019). Thus, for Diego, it is extremely important that students can take the content and “anchor it to something real” (Diego, personal communication, January 28, 2019).

From the student perspective, Palmer emphasized the importance of “hearing [Spanish] in real-world situations” and finding “real-world applicability” with what he is learning (Palmer, personal communication, February 6, 2019). John furthered this notion by indicating a desire for students to take content and “make it apply to their own lives... add in some context to it” (John, personal communication, March 6, 2019). For Bella, the relevance came from certain activities such as “talk time... because it really helps us to apply it in a practical way” and from the teaching of culture “because it kind of helps you be able to relate to those people who speak that language” (Bella, personal communication, April 10, 2019). In Jesse’s opinion, teachers should “focus on the stuff that you use more often” and avoid textbooks that have “really weird sets of vocab that I would probably never use, or I wouldn’t use as often” (Jesse, personal communication, March 13, 2019). Greg furthered this idea by stressing the need for “actually doing something that’s necessary rather than just feeling like it’s just for the next quiz” (Greg, personal communication, May 16, 2019).

Beyond specific content, two students remarked on an overall relevance concern when it comes to effective language teaching and language learning. For Cooper and Greg, relevance is related to the value of learning a language. According to Cooper, “I think people need to understand that [a second language] has its uses. It will be able to open opportunities” (personal communication, March 13, 2019). And with a little more elaboration, Greg asserted that teachers need to help students understand this:
there’s just so many benefits to knowing another language rather than just getting an A in the class, that I really see that that needs to be publicized to kids a lot more. Like for them to understand the point of learning a language. Because I’m sure you understand, as a teacher, lots of kids are like, “Oh, I’m never going to use this again. It’s just so stupid. I guess it’s so pointless.” But not only, yeah, just learning a language [can] teach you a lot about the language. . . but it can teach you a lot about just the way that you learn and more about yourself in general, whether or not you continue with that language in the long run. (Greg, personal communication, May 16, 2019)

**Engagement.** Beyond content relevance, teachers and students also identified making lessons engaging as an important effective language teaching practice. For Willow, a Spanish student, effective is “student engagement in general” (personal communication, May 16, 2019). Spanish teacher, Tomas, said teachers have to be committed to “engaging [students]. . . it doesn’t matter the method” (personal communication, May 6, 2019). For Chinese teacher, Liling, engagement is connected to student participation and “differentiation strategies. . . to motivate them to learn more” (personal communication, March 27, 2019). Tiana, a level 4 Spanish student, noted a similar idea in that effective language teachers “put something in there that makes [students] want to keep going,” to keep learning (personal communication, February 18, 2019). For Luis, “It has to be interactive. . . if the kids aren’t engaged, involved, it makes it difficult” (personal communication, May 6, 2019). Chloe believes effective teaching is when “the students are definitely engaged, they’re participating, hopefully communicating with me. . . and enjoying it” (Chloe, personal communication, May 6, 2019).

Whether it involves activities with hands-on components for students like Bella and Kyle, “fun projects” for Christian (Christian, personal communication, May 6, 2019), or online games
such as Kahoot and Quizlet Live for Penny, John, Mia, Isaac, Willow, Perry, Brandon, Collin, and Kerri, for numerous student participants, engagement comes down to fun, interest, and competition. For John, it is important to “keep the students interested” and with Kahoot and Quizlet, he said, “I get really competitive [and] . . . I like that a lot” (John, personal communication, March 6, 2019).

**Language input.** The topic of input was more prevalent among students than teachers in direct relation to the central research question; however, the theme of input was very noticeable when teachers reflected on what they found effective about the lesson that I observed. Several teachers expressed the need for comprehensible input or that they found the way they provided input via charts, audio, or other visuals as effective. Still, William really elaborated this point from the teacher perspective:

Effective language teaching looks like . . . giving students language that is comprehensible, approachable, stuff that’s not too far above or too far below their level. It pushes them a little bit. Effective language teaching must include input, I mean, you gotta give them the stuff. You can’t expect them to spit it out unless you’ve given it to them first and seen it. (William, personal communication, January 30, 2019)

Students also acknowledged the importance of input to be effective. For a lot of students, input comes down to the use of the target language (TL): “hearing it spoken,” (Palmer, personal communication, February 6, 2019), “just hearing things” (Tiana, personal communication, February 18, 2019), “you need to be surrounded by the language” (Calvin, personal communication, March 29, 2019), “immersing yourself in the language” (Stacy, personal communication, April 10, 2019), “hearing it” (Allison, personal communication, March 13, 2019), “really immersion, when everything around you is Spanish” (Christian, personal
communication, May 6, 2019), and “incorporating the language into class” (Billy, personal communication, May 16, 2019). Other students like Tiana, Sabrina, Calvin, Michael, and Kate identified their need for visuals such as Power Point presentations. Sabrina expressed this need by saying, “I need to see . . . if I don’t see what you’re talking—what you’re saying, I’m going to get confused” (Sabrina, personal communication, May 20, 2019). For Michael, “seeing the word and seeing the action that goes along with it” is really effective (Michael, personal communication, March 13, 2019). Other forms of input that students mentioned included listening activities, videos, cultural presentations, reading tasks, vocabulary instruction, Total Physical Response (TPR), and repetition.

**Language output.** Closely related to input, teachers and students often referenced output while speaking of input. To some extent, the notion of output goes back to relevance for the teachers, but for the most part, output is a separate theme as well. According to Sophia, effective language teaching involves students being able to “practice [the language], exercise it, breathe it” (personal communication, February 28, 2019). For Liling, effective teachers help students “to process and to use” the language (personal communication, March 27, 2019), and for Tomas, effective is “helping them to produce or understand” (Tomas, personal communication, May 6, 2019), or as William said, helping kids “do something with language” (personal communication, January 30, 2019). From Elena’s perspective, output and relevance go together:

> Well obviously if you teach the material and they can use it, to me that’s the most important part. And by using it, I mean not just writing it, but speaking it and being able to make those connections. . . And then I feel like they get something out of it because they’re like, “Oh, I can actually tell somebody what I do in Spanish.” (Elena, personal communication, February 1, 2019)
While teachers focused on the more general element of output or “using” the language, students were fairly specific in that they often distinguished having conversations or communicative tasks as an effective practice. Henry finds it effective when teachers allow students to have “full on conversations” (personal communication, February 5, 2019) or for Amy, “being able to have conversations with other people” is really helpful (personal communication, March 6, 2019). Stacey, Bella, and Kyle, all level 1 Chinese students, expressed appreciation for “talk time” and how it provides opportunities for practical application and “how to interact or how to respond to other people” (Kyle, personal communication, April 10, 2019). Kate, Mia, Georgia, Janie, Billy, Willow, Perry, and Collin all mentioned speaking practice as well and the importance of teachers providing these types of output opportunities.

Teacher behaviors. For many of the teachers, the first thing they mentioned in relation to effective language teaching practices had little to do with language teaching, instead focusing on the relationship between the teacher and students. For Jose, “it’s not about the language,” instead noting, “It’s about effective teaching. You have to make a connection with your students” (Jose, personal communication, May 3, 2019). For Diego, developing a “good rapport” and “patience on the part of the teacher” are keys to being effective, “especially with teenagers” (Diego, personal communication, January 28, 2019). Tomas poignantly highlighted the importance of relationships and for teachers to put themselves back in the place of the students. For him, teachers need to remember that “it’s hard to be a beginner,” and they need to “be patient and love [students]. . . be on their side. . . tolerate them and understand it’s not easy for them to be [in school]” (Tomas, personal communication, May 6, 2019). Henry, Allison, and Perry also noted the importance of patience, and Calvin, a level 1 student, emphasized this
needed quality when working with “new learners” (Calvin, personal communication, March 29, 2019).

For teachers such as Chloe, effective language teaching, specifically pertaining teacher behaviors, simply comes to making “connections with each of your students” and taking the time to “know who they are” (Chloe, personal communication, May 6, 2019). Tyler, reiterated this aspect by stating that effective teachers are “outgoing. . . and able to make a relationship with [their] students” (Tyler, personal communication, May 10, 2019). For Allison, Isaac, Perry, Michael, and Georgia, knowing students is also linked to personalizing learning, accounting for the fact that “everyone’s kind of at a different level” (Allison, personal communication, March 13, 2019), and “people learn things differently” (Georgia, personal communication, May 24, 2019), so the students may need “one-on-one time” (Perry, personal communication, May 16, 2019). For Georgia, if this differentiation does not happen, then teachers may “lose people along the way” (Georgia, personal communication, May 24, 2019).

**Sub-question 1 themes.** Sub-question 1 was: How do high school world language teachers and students perceive L2 grammar teaching? After asking participants about effective language teaching practices overall, I then asked about their perceptions of the role of grammar teaching as an effective language teaching practice. As with the central research question, two overarching themes materialized from the data analysis of both participant groups. For teachers and students, grammar provides structure and has a place of importance. Under the umbrella of importance, two subthemes explaining why it is important emerged as well: development of meaning/context and the basis for language growth.

**Provides structure.** For many of the participants, grammar comes down to structure or the “nuts and bolts” as Elena called it. From Charlotte’s perspective “grammar is the basic structure
of language” with “subjects and the verbs [serving as] the basic building blocks of language” (Charlotte, personal communication, February 28, 2019). In another vein, Spanish teacher, Sophia, and Spanish student, Palmer, viewed grammar as organization. Palmer said grammar “keeps everything organized” and believes that without grammar or “rules, it’s just chaos” (Palmer, personal communication, February 6, 2019). For Chinese student, Bella, grammar is about sentence structure, an aspect she considers “a big thing” (Bella, personal communication, April 10, 2019). Other students like Henry and Allison considered grammar as the foundation for language development, an element that Spanish teacher, Diego, refuted to an extent: “I believe the role of grammar is to provide structure. . . It’s a template to help with the process of language output. . . but it shouldn’t be the foundation of [the language classroom]. . . It should be one of the bigger support beams” (Diego, personal communication, January 28, 2019).

**Has a place of importance.** While the theme of grammar having a place of importance is present, this is one theme where participants, teachers and students, found themselves in opposing camps at times as to the degree of importance. Overwhelmingly, students responded that grammar is “really important,” “very important,” “obviously important,” or just “important,” with Tiana stating, “it’s definitely at the top of the list when learning Spanish” (Tiana, personal communication, February 18, 2019). Brandon echoed Tiana’s beliefs by remarking, “I believe it’s everything. I believe it’s the cornerstone. . . a major, very important part” (Brandon, personal communication, May 24, 2019). Contrarily, students learning Chinese who had also previously learned Spanish or French, such as Bella, Kyle, and Penny, did not attach as much importance to grammar in Chinese noting, “it depends on which language you learn” (Bella, personal communication, April 10, 2019), “we haven’t really had a big thing with grammar” (Kyle, personal communication, April 10, 2019), and “grammar is more important in Spanish
than it is in Chinese” (Penny, personal communication, April 11, 2019). Two Spanish students, Willow and Perry contested the majority of their peers by expressing contrary opinions. For Willow, “the biggest priority is proficiency over correct grammar” (Willow, personal communication, May 16, 2019), and according to Perry, who has traveled a lot, grammar “didn’t seem as necessary to me as getting an expansive vocabulary” (Perry, personal communication, May 16, 2019).

Teachers, on the other hand, acknowledged grammar as a valuable tool, but overall, they did not attach the same degree of importance to grammar teaching. Liling openly admitted to not liking grammar: “Yeah, personally, I don’t like it. I don’t think it’s very effective” (Liling, personal communication, March 27, 2019). She concurred with students that grammar in Chinese is different from other languages such as French, which she studied for years. She continued, “Grammar is also hard to explain. . . If you just try to explain that point, it’s not effective” (Liling, personal communication, March 27, 2019). Jose understood that teachers “have to teach grammar at some point,” but he added that “it shouldn’t be the focus” of the whole class (Jose, personal communication, May 3, 2019), a view Sophia expounded on by describing the importance of “balance” between grammar, vocabulary, and conversation (Sophia, personal communication, February 28, 2019). Diego holds similar views on grammar instruction, but he concedes that it is “important to teach,” a sentiment with which Elena and Chloe agreed (Diego, personal communication, January 28, 2019). Moreover, Chloe considers grammar “a big deal” (Chloe, personal communication, May 6, 2019), whereas, Elena thinks that grammar is “very important, probably more important than a lot of people think it is” (Elena, personal communication, February 1, 2019). William agrees with Diego, Chloe, and Elena, but he also believes the goal of language learning is “so that we can communicate with each other”
Of all the teachers, Tomas presented the most conflicted or back and forth response to grammar instruction first in relation to effective practices overall and then to this question:

You know that we have to teach grammar, right? Still, even though I don’t like that. But we have to go over the grammar. . . I mean. . . it’s first important to understand. . . I think it’s fundamental. It’s a big part of preparing the students to understand the input. . . And to understand, you need the grammar, I think. . . You need to be aware of the language. . . And I think it’s important to show them the linguistic part of the language. . . It’s another, a tool, another linguistic tool to help them learn a language. . . Yeah. It’s important. It’s another piece of the framework. . . It’s not the most important part, but it’s important. . . I don’t give the quizzes, grammar quizzes (Tomas, personal communication, May 6, 2019).

**Development of meaning/context.** For many teachers and students, the importance of grammar instruction is connected to the development of meaning or context when communicating. In Elena’s view, the feature of pronunciation is “huge” and not mastering this skill could lead students to say “all kinds of inappropriate things” or “something really silly” (Elena, personal communication, February 1, 2019). Many students expressed a similar view in regard to pronunciation and just needing the grammar for proper communication. Tyler feels “you can say inappropriate stuff if you don’t say the right thing” (Tyler, personal communication, May 10, 2019), or, according to Calvin, possibly “say something that’s offensive” (Calvin, personal communication, March 29, 2019). For communicative value, Sabrina, Amy, Stacey, Kate, Mia, Cooper, Janie, Isaac, and Collin believe grammar is needed for a learner to understand others and to be understood by others. Brandon even went so far as to
say proper grammar keeps you from “sound[ing] like a stupid American . . . [and instead] sound somewhat of a competent speaker” (Brandon, personal communication, May 24, 2019).

Spanish teacher, William, conceded that grammar is “a tool we need in order to communicate effectively . . . [and] there are points, parts, when conjugating a verb effectively does affect how the message gets communicated” (William, personal communication, January 30, 2019). Diego added to this idea of communication with his view of grammar as “structures [that] help turn the words into meaningful sentences and language” (Diego, personal communication, January 28, 2019). Jose and Tomas shared similar perceptions in that, for them, grammar gives meaning and context in the sense of “understand[ing] what you’re trying to say” (Jose, personal communication, May 3, 2019) or understanding “what’s there” (Tomas, personal communication, May 6, 2019) in relation to the input a person is receiving.

_Basis for language growth._ Another subtheme that came out of the place for grammar instruction was the idea that grammar, or rather good grammar development, is necessary for overall language learning progress. In Charlotte’s opinion, knowing grammatical concepts allows a learner to “actually just move on into really delving into the language more” (Charlotte, personal communication, February 28, 2019). For Chloe, “You can’t speak effectively if you don’t know some of the basic rules . . . what a subject is, what a verb is, what an adjective is because it will help you in the long run if you truly want to speak a foreign language.” She added, “How can you speak it if you can’t memorize or don’t understand the grammar behind it” (Chloe, personal communication, May 6, 2019). From a different angle, Sophia linked grammar to confidence for language production and growth: “If they don’t have the confidence in what they’re saying, they’re going to be hesitant to use [the language]. . . So the grammar gives that
confidence that I’m not just goofing it all up” (Sophia, personal communication, February 28, 2019).

Several students expressed similar perspectives regarding grammar as the basis for language growth. For Henry, a knowledge of grammar basics allows learners to go “further and further” (Henry, personal communication, February 5, 2019), and in Palmer’s eyes, his weaknesses in grammar are “the one thing hindering [his] grades and [his] ability to learn [Spanish]” (Palmer, personal communication, February 6, 2019). Another student, Maria, shared this opinion by stating, “If you don’t know the rules, you can’t really advance... I mean there is no room for growth if you don’t know what you’re doing and why you’re doing it” (Maria, personal communication, March, 13, 2019). Likewise, Perry believes “grammar is obviously really important” in order to “learn a language, actually, and progress through” (Perry, personal communication, May 16, 2019).

Sub-question 2 themes. The second sub-question was: How do high school world language teachers and students perceive oral and written error correction in an L2? This question generated a lot of different codes that do not fit as neatly into themes. However, five major themes arose, to include, oral explicit correction, written explicit correction, when to correct or not correct, frequency of correction, and importance of correction. With a few teacher participants and several students, the subtheme of tone of voice also emerged under oral explicit correction, and the subtheme of emotions appeared for students in the frequency of correction.

Oral explicit correction. For the teachers and students, explicitly or directly explaining errors came up often in the discussion of oral error correction. Though Liling does not correct students for trying new things they have not learned, she will correct students by saying, “Okay, the right way to say it is this” (Liling, personal communication, March 27, 2019). William
corrects students in a similar manner: “this is how you need to say it” (William, personal communication, January 30, 2019). For several of the teachers, the most common form of oral explicit instruction is pronunciation and correcting students if meaning is lost. William admitted that sometimes students “need to fine-tune” their pronunciation, and Jose believes in correcting pronunciation if it affects comprehension. Sophia did not name pronunciation, but rather the southern “twang” and drawing students’ attention to this oral component. For other teachers like Elena, it is important to “verbally stop” students and then “tell them how to say it correctly, [and] make them say it correctly” (Elena, personal communication, February 1, 2019).

Students also noted the need for explicit oral correction, expressing a desire for teachers to “step in and say, ‘This is how you do it’” (Amy, personal communication, March 6, 2019). Sabrina believes teachers should “explain what you did wrong and what it should be” (Sabrina, personal communication, May 20, 2019), while Penny wants teachers to gently tell students, “Well that’s wrong, but this is how you normally do it in Spanish” (Penny, personal communication, April 11, 2019). Students like Stacey, Kyle, Jesse, Michael, Kate, Maria, Cooper, Christian, Janie, Pippa, Greg, Billy, Perry, Brandon, and Collin all indicated that teachers should point out errors and explain them to students: “say what I did wrong” (Michael, personal communication, March 13, 2019), “repeat it and tell how you should improve it” (Christian, personal communication, May 6, 2019), and tell “how to correct it properly” (Brandon, personal communication, May 24, 2019).

*Tone of voice.* A big component of oral correction for teachers referred to the manner in which they corrected students. For Diego, teachers need to “be kind about it . . . [and] never make a student feel stupid” (Diego, personal communication, January 28, 2019). During the interviews, when teachers provided their scenarios for how to tell students they had made a
mistake, they all changed their tone of voice to be gentler, kinder. Bella appreciated that her teacher is “gracious” and “very kind” with corrections (Bella, personal communication, April 10, 2019), and Mia said her teacher has a “nice” and “sweet” way to correct students (Mia, personal communication, March 13, 2019). Kate believes teachers need to be “nice about [correction]” (Kate, personal communication, March 13, 2019), much like Allison thinks teachers should use a “gentle, encouraging approach” (Allison, personal communication, March 13, 2019). For Maria, teachers should not “make a huge scene” when correcting students (Maria, personal communication, March 13, 2019), nor should they be “harsh” (Brandon, personal communication, May 24, 2019) or “maliciously” correct students (Janie, personal communication, May 24, 2019).

**Written explicit correction.** In addition to oral feedback, teachers and students also identified written explicit correction as important. In written form, Sophia believes in a certain “accuracy level that’s expected,” so “when it’s on paper, [she] strictly correct[s]” (Sophia, personal communication, February 28, 2019). When Liling’s students turn in written work, she said she will “literally correct every single sentence” in the goal of helping students achieve a “perfect writing” when they receive one-on-one feedback (Liling, personal communication March 27, 2019). Diego is particularly attentive to spelling and grammatical mistakes, but he feels that accent marks are “silly and nitpicky” (Diego, personal communication, January 28, 2019), whereas Chloe believes “accents count. . . words change meaning if they don’t have an accent” (Chloe, personal communication, May 6, 2019). Several students shared Diego and Chloe’s viewpoints. For Allison and Collin, spelling is important, and Christian, Billy, Collin, and Janie believe it is important to pay attention to accent marks, but Georgia is a mix of the two,
believing accent marks matter, but for spelling she said, “I don’t think that’s as important” (Georgia, personal communication, May 24, 2019).

Beyond accent marks and spelling, students also want teachers to correct grammatical elements like verb conjugations and verb tenses (Henry, Tiana, John, Kate, Georgia, Billy, and Perry), along with vocabulary errors (Henry, Brandon, Billy, Greg, Jesse, Stacey, Amy, John, and Sabrina). Luis and Tomas like to use Go Formative to provide written correction for students in these areas. However, Chloe, Elena, and William do a little more implicit correction by marking or highlighting student mistakes, drawing their attention to the errors, but then having the students correct them, an aspect that students like Tiana and John prefer. In John’s opinion, “when you get something back that already everything’s marked. . . you’re not going to look at it much” (John, personal communication, March 6, 2019).

When to correct or not. For several of the teachers and students, the issue of when to correct, i.e. immediately or after students expressed their thoughts, or to not correct at all depending on the severity of the error was mentioned. Though Sophia really emphasizes written correction, she said she is much more lenient when students are communicating orally. Her ultimate goal is for students to try, and she wants to allow the students to “just in grace, grow” without being called out for all of their errors (Sophia, personal communication, February 28, 2019). Tomas is very similar in that he usually just “let[s] it go when it comes to the speaking” and he chooses not to correct them “unless, I mean, they are saying something absolutely wrong” (Tomas, personal communication, May 6, 2019). Chloe shares a similar view and stated, “If I can understand what they’re trying to say” then there is no correction, but, “if it’s horrible, I might say something” (Chloe, personal communication, May 6, 2019). In Jose’s opinion, “there
are times for corrections, and there’s time for just understanding what you’re trying to tell me” (Jose, personal communication, May 3, 2019).

So, the idea of communicating a message is important for the teachers, and for Luis, if the mistake is “something that’s going to disrupt communication. . . [correction] should be done right away,” because if the teacher waits too long “it’s a lost cause” (Luis, personal communication, May 6, 2019). Diego and William do not believe in correcting every mistake that students make, because, for Diego, this might “disrupt their flow so much that they lose their train of thought” (Diego, personal communication, January 28, 2019). Or, in William’s case, teachers “would never do anything besides correct errors” (William, personal communication, January 30, 2019), and perhaps, according to Chloe, make students feel “intimidated” (Chloe, personal communication, May 6, 2019).

Students also highlighted the circumstances of when to correct and when not to correct. Students like Henry, Tyler, John, Bella, and Willow prefer to be corrected when the communicative value is lost or different than what they intended. Several students also mentioned the need for teachers to wait for them to finish their thoughts before correcting them. Palmer prefers “at the end of the sentence. . . then you kinda see the whole” picture (Palmer, personal communication, February 6, 2019), and Sabrina was very similar, wanting teachers to “let you try to finish what you were trying to go at” (Sabrina, personal communication, May 20, 2019). This idea of waiting for correction was repeated again and again: “let you make the mistake. . . wait” (Calvin, personal communication, March 29, 2019), “after you say a sentence. . . instead of interrupting” (Stacey, personal communication, April 10, 2019), “once we finish what we’re saying” (Kyle, personal communication, April 10, 2019), “it shouldn’t be right then and there” (Cooper, personal communication, March 13, 2019), when we “finish our thought”
(Greg, personal communication, May 16, 2019), and “get the complete idea or sentence out” (Billy, personal communication, May 16, 2019).

However, a few students expressed the need for immediate correction. For Georgia, this means correcting a mistake “when it comes up” and “in the moment” (Georgia, personal communication, May 24, 2019), and Collin and Kerri agree that correction should take place “right away” (Collin, personal communication, May 21, 2019), and “as soon as possible” (Kerri, personal communication, May 14, 2019). A couple of students expressed conflicting views as well. While Penny thinks waiting too long with feedback can make it hard for students to really grasp their mistakes, she also believes that language teachers should “let you get your idea out first and then correct you” (Penny, personal communication, April 11, 2019). In like manner, Mia wants correction “immediately, unless there was a reason to wait,” but also feels that teachers should “wait for the students to do their best” before telling them what is wrong (Mia, personal communication, March 13, 2019).

**Frequency of correction.** This theme is more prevalent with students but explained more with teachers when they talk about why they choose to correct students or not, or rather, the importance that they attribute to correction. Collectively, teachers expressed certain reservations about overcorrecting. For most, like Charlotte, correction is about finding “a balance” between too often and not enough (Charlotte, personal communication, February 28, 2019).

However, the students overwhelmingly indicated a desire to be corrected “every time” they make a mistake. “Often,” “as often as it happens,” “as much as she can,” “as needed,” and “as often as, I guess necessary” were just some of the phrases students used to indicate a high frequency of error correction. While certain students like Amy, Stacey, Bella, Kate, and Greg put stipulations on “every time” or “all of the time” for what they considered big or critical
mistakes, such as items that affect meaning and pronunciation, and small or minor mistakes like pronunciation or non-graded work, they still wanted to be corrected. Conversely, the desire for frequent correction can elicit certain emotions among students.

*Emotions.* While Cooper admitted that “certain students can accept criticism a lot more than others” (Cooper, personal communication, March 13, 2019), and Henry finds that “correction doesn’t really bother” him (Henry, personal communication, February 5, 2019), many student participants cited negative feelings that are associated with too much correction. Frustration, embarrassment, apprehension and feelings of being bad at language were mentioned by Tiana, Tyler, Palmer, Amy, Jesse, Michael, and Allison. Maria noted that too much correction is “annoying. . . just because it breaks the momentum. . . [and] it might make [students] not want to speak out because they just know they’re going to get corrected” (Maria, personal communication, March 13, 2019). For Isaac, the idea of too much correction is “depressing” (Isaac, personal communication, May 13, 2019), and Tiana remarks that too much correction is “probably going to hurt some people” (Tiana, personal communication, February 18, 2019), and then, as Jesse explained, “they wouldn’t care at all” (Jesse, personal communication, March 13, 2019).

Nevertheless, for certain students, correction and the feelings that come with it are natural and part of the process. For Kyle, it’s the teacher’s job to correct students, and he believes all of his classmates are “fine with her correcting [them]” (Kyle, personal communication, April 10, 2019). For Pippa, correction keeps you from “think[ing] that you’re doing something correctly” when you are not (Pippa, personal communication, May 13, 2019). When questioned on whether she would be okay with being corrected 100 times, Georgia replied, “Realistically, I should be. I don’t really enjoy being corrected that much. . . I think it would be helpful. . . even if it’s a bit
uncomfortable” (Georgia, personal communication, May 24, 2019). For Tyler and Calvin, students learn from their mistakes, and even if Tyler has been frustrated while experiencing correction, “that’s a part of school” (Tyler, personal communication, May 10, 2019). And, for Brandon, being corrected every time develops the mindset of a champion:

I like being corrected every time because I believe the champions are the people who got torn down but decided to get back up, not stay down. . . if it’s a good student, then they’ll learn from their mistake, and they’ll get back up (Brandon, personal communication, May 24, 2019).

**Importance of correction.** For all of the participants, both teachers and students, the notion of how to correct, when to correct, and how often to correct are connected to their beliefs about the role that correction should play in language learning and their goals for language learning. For teachers like Diego and Elena, correction goes back to preventing “bad habits.” According to Liling, “the goal of correction is to encourage them, to make them proud of their work. It’s not to discourage them” (Liling, personal communication, March 27, 2019). Several teachers, including Tomas, also noted the fact that they want to students to feel “comfortable” enough to participate without “bringing anxiety to the process” (Tomas, personal communication, May 6, 2019). For Chloe, to “answer perfectly correct” is not the point, but rather that her students “take risks” and not “be afraid to make mistakes.” She said, “I think if I was constantly on them, they wouldn’t want to speak up” (Chloe, personal communication, May 6, 2019). Jose agreed, stating that if he overly corrects his students, he might “kill their willingness to participate. . . discourage them from participating,” and he does not want this to happen (Jose, personal communication, May 3, 2019). In Sophia’s opinion, too much correction
is “overwhelming,” and personally, she is just “thrilled that they’re talking” at all (Sophia, personal communication, February 28, 2019).

Whereas teachers honed in on the emotional reasoning in their perceived importance of correction, students focused on the potential results of being corrected or not. In Palmer’s point of view, like many of his peers, “without being corrected, you never get that chance” to learn (Palmer, personal communication, February 5, 2019), an idea Michael said, “is very important” (Michael, personal communication, March 13, 2019) and Allison said is “pretty important” (Allison, personal communication, March 13, 2019). For Penny, Amy, Pippa, and Mia, correcting mistakes prevents students from repeating mistakes and learning the wrong way. Kyle (personal communication, April 10, 2019) believes not correcting even the small mistakes keeps students from progressing, literally keeping them on “base one” instead of, as Janie stated, “learning and growing. . . [having] the chance to understand and develop” because of correction (Janie, personal communication, May 24, 2019).

**Sub-question 3 themes.** Sub-question 3 was: How do high school world language teachers and students perceive communicative language teaching (CLT) and the role of target language (TL) use in an L2? Because this is a two-part question, the themes that emerged from this question split between CLT and TL use and are identified as such instead of subthemes within these two domains. Within CLT, the themes are: personal application and engagement and perceived weaknesses, with the necessity of grammar as a subtheme of weaknesses. For TL use, the themes are: 90%—I agree, 90% gradually, and 90%—not hardly.

**CLT: Personal application and engagement.** For many of the teacher responses, including Tomas, CLT offers opportunities for students to “actually be more engaged and more motivated,” a trait they find important for being effective (Tomas, personal communication, May
In Charlotte’s mind, CLT goes beyond the textbook and provides students a “real-life context” for learning, such as speed dating or blind dating as Luis mentioned, and for Charlotte, relevant material means “the kids pay more attention” (Charlotte, personal communication, February 28, 2019). Liling and Chloe concurred with Charlotte, finding CLT motivating and interesting to students; for Liling, it is because of the variety of interesting resources that can be used, and with teachers as facilitators, “you actually want to engage your students to learn on their own” (Liling, personal communication, March 27, 2019). For Chloe, the students “connect with [the material] and then maybe they want to actually learn” because their interest has been peaked (Chloe, personal communication, May 6, 2019). Diego recognized this personal benefit as well, citing the way that CLT allows students to take an “abstract concept of knowledge” and tie it to concrete examples of “how this language plays into people’s lives” (Diego, personal communication, January 28, 2019). As William stated, “This is not a hypothetical language that is spoken halfway around the world. We can get there super easily... playing Fortnite and we run across a Spanish speaker or whatever” (William, personal communication, January 30, 2019).

Another aspect of the personal application and engagement for teachers is the emphasis on the exposure to culture and authentic materials. When students get a variety of material, Elena feels they learn more culture. Luis believes the connections to culture and understanding the culture are important, because without them, “the language doesn’t make any sense” (Luis, personal communication, May 6, 2019). Authentic materials and culture “opens students’ minds to other ways of life and other beliefs,” and because of this, “they just become more empathetic. And I just think that’s something that we need a lot more of.” (Diego, personal communication, January 28, 2019).
Student participants spoke on many of the same ideas when asked to talk about their perceptions of CLT. Palmer believes his teacher has used more of this over the course of the year, so for him, language learning “has been fun and definitely better” (Palmer, personal communication, February 6, 2019). For Collin and Perry, the class becomes more authentic, or it gives students “the real-life kind of side to the language” (Perry, personal communication, May 16, 2019) that “you would’ve gotten if you were born in that country” (Collin, personal communication, May 21, 2019). Tyler reiterated this idea, finding that CLT with its use of authentic materials allows students to “see how the actual Spanish people act and how they talk” (Tyler, personal communication, May 10, 2019). For Sabrina, this may make students “more driven to actually pay attention and learn” (Sabrina, personal communication, May 20, 2019). Other students, like Michael, Bella, and Cooper, liked the idea of a more involved, hands-on and practical learning approach that they perceive in CLT, and for Janie, CLT makes “the class engage” (Janie, personal communication, May 24, 2019).

Another element for personal application and engagement that students referenced was the notion of teachers as facilitators and the idea of independent learning. With CLT, “students have to take control of their learning” (Janie, personal communication, May 24, 2019), have a certain “independence” (Kerri, personal communication, May 14, 2019; Willow, personal communication, May 16, 2019) that perhaps other teaching methods do not afford. For Penny, CLT gives students real-life interactions and the ability to be “self-paced” with the teacher as a facilitator (Penny, personal communication, April 11, 2019). However, for some students like Kyle, Sabrina, and Stacey, more direct teaching rather than facilitating is preferred.

**CLT: Perceived weaknesses.** The teacher and student perceived weaknesses were quite varied in scope. While students and teachers like authentic materials, they also acknowledged
that they are complex, “difficult,” “hard to understand,” “difficult to follow,” and too “advanced” for language learners. As mentioned before, several students did not like the idea of direct instruction taking a backseat. Sabrina said, “I need notes and I need a teacher” (Sabrina, personal communication, May 20, 2019), while Georgia believes teachers need a more central role to help unmotivated students who “won’t try and do the work” (Georgia, personal communication, May 24, 2019), something Brandon acknowledged as well. For Charlotte, CLT has benefits, but the issues arise when it comes to how textbooks are structured. Additionally, Chloe sees CLT as “challenging” because she finds it hard “to make all those connections all the time” especially if teachers want to “do it right and do it well with the time constraints [they] have and expectations” (Chloe, personal communication, May 6, 2019). Sophia, the teacher with the most experience in the study, really seemed the least receptive to CLT or her understanding of it:

I don’t know what that is. All I can tell you is that for me, of my 37 years’ experience—because listen—they also said, “Let’s take away cursive.” And then all these kids knew how to do is print. . . I just know what I’ve seen and what produces. . . Don’t use me as a guinea pig. If I see it’s producing well, I like it. . . Listen. I’m old. I’m Cuban, so I’m a little preserved. . . I don’t have a problem tweaking, but again, when we get too this is hip and look! I’m not impressed (Sophia, personal communication, February 28, 2019).

The necessity of grammar. Nevertheless, despite the varying weaknesses noted, almost all of the participants addressed CLT’s lack of emphasis on direct grammar instruction as some type of weakness or concern. As many of the participants mentioned in response to sub-question 2, they find that grammar plays an important role in language learning. Thus, upon hearing that
grammar is not central to CLT, teacher and student participants vocalized their dislike for this or the potential problems they felt could arise.

Though grammar may be “old school,” “artificial,” “boring,” and even “truly boring” according to teachers like Diego, Charlotte, and Luis, teacher Charlotte also thinks “it’s necessary” for language learning in older learners (Charlotte, personal communication, February 28, 2019). According to Diego, the necessity of grammar falls in the context it provides, “because if you don’t have the context, if you can’t identify the difference” between when something will happen or that has happened, then the overall comprehension of the language is impeded (Diego, personal communication, January 28, 2019). For William and Jose, if teachers focus too much on communication, then students may not be as strong with formal structures, particularly in writing, and William acknowledged that CLT, his “wheelhouse,” does provide “an opportunity for a little bit of the focus on forms to get lost a little bit” (William, personal communication, January 30, 2019). So, in Chloe’s mind, teachers “still have to teach the grammar and how you communicate. . . because I do believe that you have to know the grammar as part of the process,” a viewpoint that Elena shared as well (Chloe, personal communication, May 6, 2019).

Students also perceived the missing emphasis on grammar as a weakness, not only in language production but in comprehension, too. Henry believes “sentences will be weaker” (Henry, personal communication, February 5, 2019) without solid grammar instruction, and John asserted that knowing and being able to use correct tenses is necessary to not “confuse other people” (John, personal communication, March 6, 2019). Mia also believes “sometimes grammar can help” with communicating messages effectively (Mia, personal communication, March 13, 2019), while Cooper thinks grammar instruction is needed for individuals to properly
do professional or formal writing. For Isaac, if teachers do not teach the grammar then “what else would they be doing,” thus once again noting students’ perceptions that grammar is a necessary feature of language instruction (Isaac, personal communication, May 13, 2019).

**TL 90%--I agree.** Very few students and teachers agreed with the goal of 90% TL use or even the possibility of it in the L2 classroom; however, Jose and Chloe, along with a handful of students, were proponents of this approach. Jose “loves” the 90% goal, “even in level one” and despite his personal challenging experiences learning English this way, he believes it forces learners to communicate (Jose, personal communication, May 3, 2019). Chloe “totally agrees” with 90% TL use: “I think it’s extremely important to speak in the language as often as possible. . . I don’t know how you teach a class, a Spanish class in English. . . if you don’t hear it, you don’t use it, then you’re not going to retain the information.” However, Chloe also admitted that some students may become frustrated, “shut down,” and not listen when teachers strive to meet this goal (Chloe, personal communication, May 6, 2019). Students such as Kate, Billy, and Collin affirmed the 90% goal as a “good,” “right,” and even “excellent” idea. Brandon sees the high quantity of TL use as a “necessary thing you got to struggle through” (Brandon, personal communication, May 24, 2019), and for Billy, hearing and using the TL more, has helped him with “actually learning and paying attention” in class (Billy, personal communication, May 16, 2019). For Christian, the 90% goal is beneficial and “would help way more” in the goal to really learning a language (Christian, personal communication, May 6, 2019).

**TL 90% gradually.** For a few teachers and many students, 90% is a target to achieve over time. Charlotte admitted that reaching 90% “is a personal goal” but feels that it really “depends on the teacher and it would depend on the group of students, because the reality is, a lot of times, kids are more responsive if they hear English” (Charlotte, personal communication,
February 28, 2019). Though Tomas does not achieve 90% in his lower level classes, he said, “I think it’s good idea,” and “it’s possible,” but for those lower level classes, he is “not prepared to do that” (Tomas, personal communication, May 6, 2019). For Sophia, who believes she is at 75%, the amount of TL use is connected to what is “fair” for students, especially students with different abilities and backgrounds. She believes that a solid mix of Spanish and English in the classroom gives students a sense of discipline, they do not give up, and “they start succeeding” (Sophia, personal communication, February 28, 2019).

Many students also believe the 90% goal should be achieved gradually as they progress through levels, even if some, like Palmer, a level 4 student, are not sure it is ever really possible. Overwhelmingly, students do not believe 90% TL use is achievable in level 1 classes, but they believe it could happen “as you get older,” “in a higher [level],” as students “build up to that,” and “as you progress and as you get more fluent.” Several students see this happening toward the latter part of level 2 or level 3, but definitely by the time students reach AP level or college.

**TL 90%—not hardly.** For many of the teachers, the idea of achieving 90% TL use on a regular basis starting at level 1 is best described as idealistic, a goal they would love to attain, but a goal that can only happen in “a beautiful. . . perfect world” (Elena, personal communication, February 1, 2019). Luis said for level ones and twos, “there’s no way in heavens you can pull that one off unless you have stellar students. . . [or] you want to talk to yourself for 45 minutes” (Luis, personal communication, May 6, 2019). For many teachers, the idea of discouraging or frustrating students, perhaps making them want to give up, is not worth the high quantity of TL use. Diego affirmed that he has tried this approach, but students got lost and frustrated, “they start to feel stupid. . . [they] shut down” and then do not do well because “they don’t care” (Diego, personal communication, January 28, 2019).
Student responses affirmed the teachers’ perceptions. For many students, they associated negative feelings and consequences with the 90% goal. The largest negative sentiment is confusion: “feel lost,” “don’t . . . grasp it,” “have no clue,” “completely lost,” “confusing,” “hard to process,” “very bewildered,” “very lost,” and “lost.” For Tiana, if teachers aim for this goal regularly, then it makes students “feel dumb maybe and like have them not want to take [language] later” (Tiana, personal communication, February 18, 2019), and Amy feels “it’s going to do more damage and harm” (Amy, personal communication, March 6, 2019), potentially stressing students out, as Willow noted. Palmer affirmed that if his teachers had taken this approach up to now, and even now, then it would “probably push me away a little bit, especially from minoring in college . . . if I were to get discouraged before stepping into a difficult role like that, I probably wouldn’t do as well, or I may just drop it all together” (Palmer, personal communication, February 6, 2019).

**Sub-question 4 themes.** Sub-question 4 was: How do high school world language teachers and students perceive computer-based technology in L2 learning? For this question, students and teachers identified numerous aspects about and types of computer-based technology. From their responses, the following themes materialized: positive tool and concerns. Under the theme of positive tool, beneficial apps/features and exposure/access to materials came out as subthemes.

**Positive tool.** The greater part of students and teachers held positive perceptions of computer-based technology as a beneficial tool in the L2 classroom. Diego believes, “Technology is awesome, [but], just like every other tool, it depends entirely on how it’s used” (Diego, personal communication, January 28, 2019). For Jose, it is a tool that can enhance language learning, but “it should be just a tool” (Jose, personal communication, May 3, 2019).
Chloe acknowledged that “kids relate to [technology], they love it,” and so while she does not like technology per say, she sees its benefits “in the education world” (Chloe, personal communication, May 6, 2019).

Overall, students think technology is “great,” “effective,” “helpful,” and “useful.” For Calvin, Tiana, and Brandon, using technology in the L2 classroom is appealing to and reflective of the current generation of learners. However, certain students like Kyle and Bella do not want technology to completely take over the role of instruction: “technology shouldn’t be the sole resource for learning a language. . . it should be a helper” (Bella, personal communication, April 10, 2019).

**Beneficial apps/features.** As part of the positive aspects of technology, participants cited several apps, online tools and games, and features of technology that make it work in the L2 classroom. Time and again, students referenced Kahoot, Quizlet, Quizlet Live, Go Formative, and Duolingo as helpful for learning vocabulary, practicing grammar, and providing a “fun” and “competitive” way to learn. For teachers, these technologies help with engagement, differentiation, and study skills. Both groups also referenced features of online textbooks, online dictionaries such as Word Reference, and school sanctioned technologies like iPads and Macbooks that helped to facilitate teaching and learning. Other types of technology included Power Point or Keynote presentations, audio-visual resources like YouTube, and using the projector. For Tomas, the greatest benefit to the various types of technology is increased productivity: “I use technology to be more productive, to actually do more things in a classroom” (Tomas, personal communication, May 6, 2019).

**Exposure/access to materials.** In addition to beneficial features, both groups also recognized the potential for technology to expose or provide students with access to more TL
materials. “Access to many things online like online newspapers in various countries or online databases of recordings” are great features for William, and for him, it is nice that the teacher does not have to give all of the information to students; they can find it and access it themselves (William, personal communication, January 30, 2019). Students really appreciate that with the click of a button they can access their textbooks online, submit homework, and seek out study aids on “hundreds of sites with just thousands of tips” (Henry, personal communication, February 5, 2019). For Pippa, the Internet just makes it “easier to find materials” (Pippa, personal communication, May 13, 2019), and Collin believes technology provides “access to... pretty much every single thing you would need to learn a language” (Collin, personal communication, May 21, 2019). Still, teachers and students expressed certain concerns pertaining to technology use in the L2 classroom.

**Concerns.** As with any tool, teachers and students conceded that certain issues arise with technology and use. In fact, certain benefits like access to materials may also lead to one of the top problems noted: cheating. Instead of using online dictionaries, teachers and students concurred that students may be tempted to use online translators like Google Translate. For Mia, this means students are not learning, “because, then, you’re letting the technology do it all for you” (Mia, personal communication, March 13, 2019). Luis also believes that students become too reliant on using online dictionaries: “Some will go to Word Reference for anything... [they’re] not thinking” (Luis, personal communication, May 6, 2019). Sophia further elaborated on this concern of Luis’s and the overall concerns she sees with technology games and such:

I’m very anti look it up on the electronics because it’ll conjugate it for you, it’ll do—no, no, no, no, no. I want you to know the infinitive. I want you to figure [it] out. . . Because if you just [type it in], you’re not learning anything. . . I feel like I am the game. Because
I’ve seen it takes so much time to put their name up, and their little fake name. I don’t have time to waste. . . I don’t have time for 15 minutes just to start a—I’ve got stuff to do. I don’t have time for that (Sophia, personal communication, February 28, 2019).

Beyond cheating and not doing the work, certain students expressed the concern that technology can be distracting. According to Maria, “iPads, they’re just really distracting” (Maria, personal communication, March 13, 2019), a sentiment echoed by Isaac and Billy. Brandon called technology a “double-edge sword” for this very reason (Brandon, personal communication, May 24, 2019), whereas for Bella, the concern is not the distraction it poses, but rather that it could place “a boundary just between you and actually talking to someone else, because there’s a difference between staring at a screen and actually having a conversation with someone which is the ultimate goal in learning a language” (Bella, personal communication, April 10, 2019). On a completely different note, William, as a teacher, worried that technology may lead students to “think Spanish class isn’t necessary” (William, personal communication, January 30, 2019), but, based on many of the students’ responses that were examined earlier, this is not how the students view technology in the L2 classroom.

**Summary**

From the data analysis, numerous themes, subthemes, and crossovers between themes emerged. The most prominent themes that emerged related to the input students received and the language they produced. From the documents, this was seen in the desire to give students a certain type of content based on their learning needs in order for them to embrace new cultures and communicate on a global scale. The observations revealed that teachers place an emphasis on the forms of grammar and vocabulary instruction, and from the interviews, teachers and students see grammar and vocabulary as essential components in developing language output for
communication. Finding the tools (technology, authentic materials) and methods (CLT, grammar, TL use, explicit correction) to make input more engaging, relevant, and helpful so that students can produce language are the areas where students and teachers placed the most emphasis for effective language teaching practices.
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION

Overview

The purpose of this collective case study is to understand high school language teachers’ and language students’ perceptions of effective language teaching practices. In this chapter, a summary of the findings is given, and then a discussion of the theoretical and empirical findings and implications of the study is presented in regard to the literature. Next, the methodological and practical implications are offered followed by the delimitations and limitations of the study. The chapter concludes with an exploration of recommendations for future research and a summary of the study.

Summary of Findings

The study took place at two independent schools in South Carolina and one independent school in Florida. There were 10 teacher participants whom I both observed teaching a class and interviewed one-on-one. Additionally, I interviewed three to four of each teacher’s students, totaling 31 student participants. Furthermore, I examined relevant documents from each of the study sites as part of the triangulation process. From the documents, observations, and interviews, two major themes or ideas emerged: input and output. Under the umbrella of these major themes, several smaller subthemes were revealed across the central research question and sub-questions.

The central research question was: How do high school world language teachers and high school world language students perceive effective language teaching practices? In response to this question, teachers and students identified the importance of the content or input being relevant to their lives, engaging, and comprehensible. In regard to output, teachers and students emphasized the importance of allowing time for students to practice the language, particularly in
oral communication. Lastly, both groups focused on behaviors that effective language teachers exhibit while providing opportunities for input and output. These behaviors included making a connection with students, building a relationship, addressing diverse learning needs, and being patient.

The first sub-question was: How do high school world language teachers and students perceive L2 grammar teaching? For this question teachers and students discussed how grammar provides structure to language learning and that it does have a place of importance, even if the level of importance differed sometimes between the two groups and within the two groups. Under the theme of importance, both groups expressed the idea that grammar helps learners to have a better concept or understanding of what is going on with the language and the idea that good grammar is a steppingstone to language growth and development.

The second sub-question was: How do high school world language teachers and students perceive oral and written error correction in an L2? Though the themes in this question did not arrange themselves as neatly as others, several themes were noted. Participants addressed the role of oral correction, with teachers focusing largely on pronunciation in oral communication. Within this topic, many of the teachers and students elaborated on the need for teachers to be careful with how they correct students, indicating a need for kindness in correction. Written correction was also important, but teachers and students differed to some extent on what types of written errors should be corrected, i.e. accent marks, spelling, and grammar, and how teachers should draw students’ attention to these errors. Regarding when to correct students orally, teachers and students were divided on when corrections should be made or not made, specifically whether every error should be corrected and right away or at the end of the sentence, thus possibly disrupting the flow of communication.
Another theme dealt with the frequency of corrections, with teachers overwhelmingly stating a preference for communicative value over complete accuracy. However, students expressed a strong desire to be corrected for every mistake, even while citing the potential harmful emotional effects that could result and the negative impact overcorrection could have on students’ willingness to participate and try to use the language on future occasions. A final theme that became apparent was the importance of correction to the two groups. For teachers, correcting students or not correcting them had more to do with not wanting students to get discouraged but rather helping them to be willing to take risks. However, students felt that frequent correction is important in order to help students not develop bad habits and to help them progress in their language learning.

The third sub-question was: How do high school world language teachers and students perceive communicative language teaching (CLT) and the role of target language (TL) use in an L2? For CLT, participants highlighted the value that CLT places on personal relevance and engaging students more—traits that were also important overall for both groups when discussing effective language teaching overall. The idea of relevance and engagement is enhanced through CLT’s use of authentic materials and the more student-centered approach to learning that it provides. Nevertheless, both groups acknowledged the very same strengths could be considered weaknesses. Several students noted a preference for more direct instruction, and with CLT placing less of an emphasis on grammar, an element that many students perceived as very important, students felt that a critical element of their language learning and development could be hindered through this approach. Teachers also noted the need to understand certain grammatical points in order to properly understand the language, referring once again to their perception that grammar helps to develop meaning and context in language learning. For TL
use, participants were fairly divided in their perceptions of the 90% target. Only a few from both
groups felt this target was a good idea. A few teachers and several students believed this goal
could be achieved gradually, with higher level classes having a better chance of maintaining this
goal. However, the majority of teachers found this goal too idealistic and not achievable, with
several noting that it frustrates and discourages students from wanting to learn the language, a
sentiment that a large portion of the students reiterated.

The fourth and final sub-question was: How do high school world language teachers and
students perceive computer-based technology in L2 learning? Both groups of participants
believe that computer-based technology is a positive and beneficial tool that enhances the
language learning experience. As such, they identified several apps and online games such as
Kahoot, Quizlet, Quizlet Live, Go Formative, and Duolingo as helpful and fun. Additionally,
since all of the schools are 1:1 schools, teachers and students referenced devices that facilitate
teaching and learning. Beyond these tools, the availability of and access to resources and
information via the Internet were also highly praised. Even so, teachers and students expressed
concerns that having all of the information at the click of a button could lead to more cheating,
less thinking, and more distractions rather than actual learning.

Discussion

The findings of the current study aligned with much of the current research but showed
some areas of divergence as well. Additionally, the findings gleaned from the personal
interviews provided a more in-depth look at the phenomenon of perceptions related to effective
language teaching practices, particularly in a K-12 setting. This section will examine the study
in light of the theoretical and empirical literature.
Theoretical Discussion

The current study was based on three theories of L2 learning: Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory (SCT) of learning, Krashen’s hypotheses of second language acquisition, and VanPatten’s input processing theory. As indicated in the review of the literature, current pedagogy places a strong emphasis on communicative language teaching and using the TL 90% of the instructional period (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages [ACTFL], 2019a; Kissau, Algozzine, & Yon, 2013). As the results of this study showed, students and teachers addressed several key aspects relative to the learning theories that guided the study.

In relation to Vygotsky’s SCT. As a part of SCT, Vygotsky believed that learners need to be active in the learning process and they need a meaningful context for this to take place (Stetsenko, 2010). Furthermore, the roles of mediation in social activities, tools, encouragement and assistance from a more experienced learner, and tasks that allow internalization and development are essential (Eun & Lim, 2009; Fahim & Haghani, 2012; Kao, 2010; van Compernolle & Williams, 2013). From the document analysis and a review of the interviews, teachers’ and students’ definitions of effective language teaching practices in this study aligned with these key elements.

The ZPD. Departmental meeting minutes addressed the zone of proximal development (ZPD) by examining questions of how to reach all learners despite learning differences and how to appropriately challenge students. Based on these topics in their department meetings, teachers recognized the need to provide the appropriate assistance to students to help them arrive at their best independent state (Chaiklin, 2003). Moreover, the fact that this was a topic discussed more than once also gives credence to the idea that the ZPD is a dynamic zone of constant change (Lantolfe & Thorne, 2007; Vygotsky, 1997).
**Mediation.** In addition to the ZPD and the documents, the interviews also showed that students and teachers believe in the use of tools to help with mediation of learning, particularly strong visuals and computer-based tasks and tools, elements that Kozulin (2003) also found. Additionally, the idea of a meaningful context for learning within a socially active domain (Stetsenko, 2010) was very important to participants based on the number of responses that expressed the desire for interesting, relevant, and real-world contexts for language learning. Furthermore, student participants expressed the need to be encouraged and the importance of the teacher facilitating the learning process in order for them to be able to develop as language learners, perceptions that align with Eun and Lim (2009), Fahim and Haghani (2012), Kao (2010), and van Campernolle and William (2013).

**In relation to Krashen’s hypotheses.** This study also highlighted agreement and disagreement with Krashen’s (1982, 1985) hypotheses. As previously indicated, teachers and students had much to say about grammar instruction, error correction, input, and engagement. These topics were also evidenced in the lesson observations, and to some extent, the document analysis. Based on these areas, the perceptions addressed aspects of Krashen’s monitor hypothesis, input/comprehension hypothesis, and affective filter hypothesis.

**Grammar instruction.** The area in which Krashen’s hypotheses were most evident in the current study centered around grammar instruction and error correction in the L2 classroom. While Krashen (1982, 1985) believed that grammar should not be the sole focus of instruction and not directly or explicitly taught, many of the teachers and students felt that explicit instruction of the grammar such as verb conjugations and pronunciation is important to L2 learning. In the same way, Krashen and several teacher and student participants also felt that grammatical structures would come with time through comprehensible input. However, Krashen
(1985) also asserted that an understanding of grammar was needed for developing accuracy and monitoring production, an element with which students and teachers agreed based on their belief that a solid foundation in grammar serves to help learners grow and progress.

**Error correction/monitoring.** While Krashen (1985) believed learners needed a certain level of grammar to be able to monitor or correct their language production, he also cautioned against too much monitoring because it might hinder communication. Though this study mostly addressed monitoring or correction from teachers to students, teachers seemed to agree with this idea because they did not want to overcorrect students and perhaps prevent them from wanting to communicate in the future. Based on students’ desire to be explicitly and frequently corrected, they sided more with the second part of Krashen’s hypothesis in that if there is not enough monitoring, then messages can get lost while trying to communicate. The topic of correction also led to a discussion of the emotional impact on learners, or as Krashen (1982) called it, the affective filter.

**The affective filter.** For most teachers and several students, too much correction could cause learners to be anxious or unmotivated to participate or try in class. For Krashen (1982), learners need to have a positive view of learning in order to be able to receive input, and if students become unmotivated because of too much correction, then they are not able to receive input (Latifi, Ketabi, & Mohammadi, 2013). However, certain students believe correction, despite the emotions that may come with it, is just necessary if learners want to progress.

**Input and engagement.** The questions concerning CLT and TL use highlighted elements in agreement with and contradiction to Krashen’s (1985) input or comprehension hypothesis. For Krashen (1982, 1985) the best or optimal input is relevant or interesting and requires different tools and strategies such as high frequency vocabulary, visuals, and high TL use in the
realm of i + 1, which cannot be directly taught and is different for everyone. From the observations in this study, teachers perceive vocabulary instruction to be important in language learning, and from the department meeting minutes, teachers recognize, directly or indirectly, the concept of i + 1 in their desire to meet the diverse needs and abilities of students. Moreover, for teachers and students, CLT provides a more interesting context for learning because of the different types of input it can provide via authentic materials, but they also acknowledged that this approach can make it difficult to provide comprehensible input for learners. Furthermore, many participants felt that the goal of 90% TL use from the earliest days of language learning was not conducive to learning because they did not feel that learners would be able to understand or produce language from this approach, and they felt it caused a lot of negative emotions that could hinder learning. This somewhat contradicts Krashen (1982, 1985) who believed that exposure to more comprehensible input would help develop language proficiency, but it also aligns with his belief that learners must have a low affective filter in order to receive input and acquire language.

**In relation to VanPatten.** Input processing, as it relates to this study, is particularly important in examining how learners receive input and the extent to which they process it or not and why (Benati, 2013). Certain aspects related to the theory are found in the strategies that teachers and students found effective for language teaching and learning, specifically with vocabulary development and grammar instruction. Additionally, the theory has implications in considering the participants’ perceptions of TL use.

**Vocabulary development.** From the observed lessons, the teachers placed a high importance on vocabulary as part of input processing, which aligns with VanPatten’s (2004) first principle. The teachers seem to agree that learners need to understand words before they can
really focus on the forms. Moreover, the students’ positive association with certain computer-based technologies popular for working with vocabulary such as Kahoot, Quizlet, and Word Reference, also gives credence to the idea that they place a high degree of importance on vocabulary development. Furthermore, teachers highlighted various types of input through visuals, audio, and charts as effective strategies used in their lessons that facilitated vocabulary development. Lastly, students and teachers drew attention to the importance of relevant vocabulary and content, an aspect the correlates with VanPatten’s (2004) belief that learners focus more on things they perceive as meaningful to communication (Benati, 2013).

**Processing grammar.** While students and teachers valued vocabulary development, in relation to VanPatten’s (2004) Principles 1a and 1b, students seemed to place more emphasis on the role of grammatical structures in learning and processing the language. VanPatten believed learners would focus more on vocabulary than grammar if the information was redundant, but students and teachers in this study seemed to believe that the forms give meaning to the words. For the participants, without the grammatical forms, despite having correct words, overall communication and comprehension is affected.

**TL use and working memory.** For VanPatten (2002), learner intake relates to what learners actually understand, process, and store to be able to use (Harrington, 2004). The amount that learners can process correlates to a limited amount of working memory (Miller, 2011a). This has a direct connection with TL use and the 90% goal for classroom learning. If students are unable take in the TL, or perhaps have too much, then their working memory is exceeded, and less intake occurs. Thus, for students and teachers in this study, their concerns over being able to handle such a great amount of the TL at this stage of their learning is perhaps justified in light of VanPatten’s (2002) theory.
Empirical Discussion

The results of this study aligned with much of the literature around the topic of language learning and perceptions of the areas on which this study focused, but at the same time they add to the field of study by specifically focusing on high school students and high school teachers. Conversely, this study also showed some areas of conflicting viewpoints among participants concerning approaches to teaching, mainly CLT and the role of grammar instruction. Regarding effective teaching overall, the participants highlighted the need for relevant content, TL use, comprehensible input, and opportunities to produce language, thus indicating a favorable view of CLT (Aski, 2009; de Graaf et al., 2007; Islam, 2012; Kim, 2014; Kirkpatrick & Ghaemi, 2011; Krashen, 1982; Wong, 2012). The participants also believed in the importance of relational aspects between the teacher and students (Ganjabi, 2011).

Somewhat in contrast to their perception of the effectiveness of CLT characteristics, the majority of students and teachers in this study strongly affirmed previous findings about the necessity or importance of grammar and its benefits for language growth (Jean & Simard, 2011; Jean & Simard, 2013; Loewen et al., 2009; Scheffler & Cinciala, 2011; Vogel et al., 2011). Much like the participants in Brown’s (2009) and Ganjabi’s (2011) studies, but in contrast to Alimorad and Tajgozari’s (2016) participants, students in the current study placed more emphasis than teachers on the importance of grammar. However, students in the Chinese class did not view grammar as important as their French and Spanish peers. Instead, they focused on the communicative aspects, a perception that is slightly explored in Loewen et al. (2009), but this could also be attributed to their teacher’s admitted lack of emphasis on grammar.

Pertaining to error correction, students overwhelmingly desired more explicit correction in oral and written forms than their teachers thought was necessary or beneficial, a perception
that is supported in the literature (Adams, Nuevo, & Egi, 2011; Brown, 2009; Davis, 2003; Jean & Simard, 2011; Kissau et al., 2013; Van Beuning, 2010). Additionally, this study corroborated Jean and Simard’s (2011) findings that teachers believe oral correction is mostly important when comprehension is impeded. Moreover, the teachers’ desire to correct less had more to do with lowering student anxiety and not interrupting their thought process, which was true for participants in several related studies (Kissau et al., 2013; Sato & Oyanedel, 2019; Van Beuning, 2010). Lastly, students’ desire for explicit correction was linked to their desire to produce better language and progress in their learning, a perception shared by participants in the research of Adams et al. (2011).

Though participants provided answers that addressed CLT and TL use in effective teaching practices overall, both areas were further explored by participants. In line with the research, students and teachers in this study loved the personal applications, engagement, student-centered learning, and use of authentic materials that CLT provides (Ju, 2013; Kim, 2014; Sung, 2010; Wong, 2012; Yuan, 2011). Additionally, much like the research, the participants and students believed authentic materials sometimes proved challenging to learners (Kim, 2014; Wong, 2012), and for some teachers, textbooks, course objectives, and time constraints can make CLT difficult to implement (Jabeen, 2014; Ju, 2013; Kim, 2014). Students and teachers also questioned the perceived backseat approach to grammar and the fear that written forms may be impeded, common misconceptions according to the literature (Islam, 2012; Pan, 2013; Sung, 2010; Wong, 2012).

Pertaining to TL use, certain discrepancies occurred between this study and previous studies. While students and teachers in this study cited high levels of input or TL use as an effective language teaching practice overall, they diverged somewhat when directly asked about
the 90% target. Contrary to the literature, most of the teachers and even higher-level students did not believe it was possible to attain the 90% target daily (Brown, 2009; Thompson, 2009). Students and teachers instead affirmed the literature that found including more of the first language (L1) in the class, especially early on and particularly with vocabulary and concepts, can help to alleviate frustration, misunderstandings, and apprehensions in class (Almohaimeed & Almurshed, 2018; Rolin-Ianzti & Varshney, 2008). Additionally, the participants who perceived the possibility of achieving this goal gradually seem to affirm Littlewood and Yu’s (2011) findings that as more TL is used in the classroom in conjunction with communicative teaching strategies, then less L1 is needed.

Responses about computer-based technology were by and large very positive, affirming previous studies that learners and teachers find such technology a positive and beneficial tool for language learning (Bahrani, 2011; Chen, 2013; Ducate & Lumicka, 2013; Miangah & Nezarat, 2012; Viberg & Grönlund, 2013). This study also supported findings that web-based learning provides access to so many materials that would not otherwise be available (Wang & Vásquez, 2012; Zhang, 2013). Though the computer-based games mentioned by teachers and students in this study were not specific to language learning outside of Duo Lingo, the positive response and correlation that participants associated with games such as Kahoot and Quizlet confirm studies that have shown higher collaboration, engagement, motivation, and enthusiasm from learners (Anyaegbu, Ting, & Li, 2012; Connolly, Stansfield, & Hainey, 2011; Cruaud, 2018; Escudeiro & de Carvalho, 2013; Godwin-Jones, 2014; Hitosugi, Schmidt, & Hayashi, 2014; Liu, Wang, & Tai, 2016; Reinders & Wattana, 2011; Sadeghi & Dousti, 2014; Sun & Hsieh, 2018; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012). This study also addressed potential concerns that were not addressed in the review of the literature—the potential for cheating, technology as a distractions and technology
replacing thinking—but are found in other studies and are potential areas for future research (Ducar & Schocket, 2018; Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson, & Freynik, 2014; Mango, 2015).

**Implications**

The current study has several theoretical, empirical, and practical implications. The practical implications also include specific recommendations for policy makers and teachers. I elaborate on each of these areas in the following sections.

**Theoretical Implications**

The results of my study affirm the major aspects of the theories guiding current language teaching practices. Teachers and students asserted on several occasions the need for meaningful, relevant contexts for language learning, the importance of social elements, and the need to meet diverse student needs (Stetsenko, 2010; Vygotsky, 1997). Moreover, participants seemed to walk both sides of the line of grammar instruction and communicative-based language teaching, indicating strong preferences for both at different points in the interviews. Though these seem to be conflicting viewpoints, they highlight the dual nature of Krashen’s (1982, 1985) hypotheses and VanPatten’s (2004) input processing theory. Krashen’s (1982) work with the affective filter supports teachers’ and students’ perceptions about potential anxiety and frustration that may occur during error correction and if input is not comprehensible, whereas VanPatten’s (2002) take on working memory also gives credence to the possibility that 90% TL use may be too much for language learners to process, as previously indicated in the theoretical discussion.

**Empirical Implications**

As previously indicated, research studies surrounding students’ and teachers’ perceptions concerning effective language teaching practices focus mostly on the university setting (Brown,
2009; Davis, 2003; de Graaf et al., 2007, Felder & Henriques, 1995; Ganjabi, 2011; Wichadee & Orawiwatnakul, 2012; Yang & Kim, 2011). Additionally, with just one study examining high school students’ perceptions (Alimorad & Tajgozai, 2016) and so few looking at this topic from a purely qualitative perspective (Moradi & Sabeti, 2014; Ramazani, 2014), this study addresses a gap in the literature. Nevertheless, as seen in the empirical discussion, most of the findings of the study do not differ from previous research. However, there is still the problem with research indicating declining enrollment in language classes (Looney & Lusin, 2018) and businesses indicating a growing demand for proficient speakers of languages other than English (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2019a). For most of the student participants in my study, they will not address this growing demand for proficient language users, and the reasoning did not seem to be linked to instructional practices, rather to perceptions of usefulness for future careers and plans.

**Practical Implications**

The greatest practical implications for this study apply to policy makers and teachers. Policy makers help drive content and teachers are at the forefront of how everything is implemented. Thus, it is important to address each of these stakeholders.

**Policy makers.** If advanced language skills are necessary and yet lacking for the military and areas of foreign, diplomatic, and economic policy (Brecht, 2015; U.S. Department of Education, 2010), then policy makers need to reevaluate the level of importance they place on language education. Currently, great focus is on Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) curricula, but language education “needs to be recognized as a complementary and often interdependent skill that produces the globally competent workforce employers are seeking” (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2019a, p. 3).
Therefore, policy makers need to help increase and improve access to language learning at its earliest stages, perhaps even pre-school, when students are most receptive and engaged in learning new skills. This new focus will also require a commitment to addressing teacher shortages through efforts at the federal, state and local levels, including potential loan forgiveness programs to attract more proficient teachers to the profession. New policies may require treating language as part of the “core curriculum” instead of an elective, and opportunities for international travel need to be provided to students (American Academy of Arts & Sciences, 2017). Furthermore, policy makers need to work in conjunction with businesses in order to help “prioritize language education and recognize the role of language in staying economically competitive” (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2019a, p.7).

**Teachers.** Language teachers also play a key role in shaping how students view language learning at whatever age the learners begin. As mentioned in the review of the literature, learners come to language learning with beliefs (Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005) and the experiences that they have also influence their beliefs (Stergiopoulou, 2012; Zhong, 2015) and can cause them to change over time (Agudo, 2014; Horwitz, 1987; Riley, 2009). Therefore, teachers need to acknowledge the role they play in influencing students’ beliefs about the importance of language learning and how certain teaching and learning strategies contribute to successful language learning. Just as Greg stated, teachers need to take the time, and perhaps more than one time to reiterate the value and benefits of learning a language, that it “needs to be publicized to kids a lot more” (Greg, personal communication, May 16, 2019). Furthermore, if teachers will have more conversations with students about how they define effective practices versus the practices used in class, then students may have a better grasp of why CLT is a good
model, why grammar is perhaps not the most important, and why high levels of TL input are important. Teachers can also strengthen the perception of the long-term value of language learning through local partnerships with businesses and language-based organizations to enhance cultural and linguistic encounters (American Academy of Arts & Sciences, 2017).

**Delimitations and Limitations**

Certain delimitations occurred over the course of this study. I chose to do a qualitative study because I wanted to understand my participants’ perspectives (Patton, 2015), and I specifically chose a case study because I wanted to gain a more in-depth understanding of the perceptions of the participants (Harrison, Birks, Franklin, & Mills, 2017). Additionally, a collective case study allowed me to examine multiple cases across different environments and I was specifically looking to understand a problem (Creswell, 2013; Stake, 1995). I also knew my study population was fairly unique based on limited studies involving high school students in this domain. Moreover, my study was delimited by my choice to specifically look at independent schools based on their convenience in location, the teachers’ willingness to participate, and my perception that it would be easier to gain permission to conduct my study in independent schools versus public schools. Originally, I focused on three independent schools in South Carolina, but when one of the schools had to drop out of the study, I reached out to a new school with which I had connections in Florida, a school I also knew to be comparable to the South Carolina schools but also different in regard to a perceived stronger emphasis on technology use.

While the number of participants in my study is potentially a limitation, the sample size is quite large for a qualitative study that did not use focus groups. Also, the original schools I hoped to use had additional French and Chinese teachers, while the current study only has one of each. However, in each of the schools, Spanish was the predominant world language; therefore,
a large number of participants would have been Spanish teachers and students notwithstanding.
Also, due to time constraints, I was not able to observe teachers more than one time, which could have potentially added another layer to the data and analysis. Furthermore, some of the interviews may have seemed rushed because I knew the students were trying to accommodate me but also had other things to do. Perhaps a little more time set aside for the interviews would have yielded more in-depth responses. Lastly, the data analysis focused on the questions and teachers and students as collective groups. Further analyzing the data for language studied, language level, and years of teaching experience could yield different results as well.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

This study is just a small glimpse at high school students’ and high school teachers’ perceptions of effective language teaching practices. Thus, future research should continue to look at this population due to the low number of studies that currently exist on their perceptions to language teaching practices overall and concerning specific aspects of language learning. Also, because this study focused on students in independent schools, future studies could examine public schools to see if similar or different results are found.

While large disparities between the two groups’ perceptions did not materialize, the question lingers of why most of the students in this study, and the majority of students across the U.S. do not pursue more advanced language study. Therefore, future research should focus on perceptions of the usefulness or value of language learning and what it will take for learners to pursue long-term study. Additionally, a longitudinal study of high school students over the course of their language study could yield invaluable insights into how their perceptions change or resist change as they encounter more advanced language study.
Lastly, the limitations of the languages surveyed in this study leave room for further study. Finding a sample with a greater variety of languages being studied could generate different results about grammar instruction, TL use, and error correction, particularly considering the responses from the students of Chinese in the present study. Additionally, more diversity in the language being taught and studied would allow for analysis between and across languages.

Summary

The purpose of this collective instrumental case study was to understand the perceptions of effective L2 teaching practices for high school language teachers and students at three independent schools—two in South Carolina and one in Florida. The study included 10 language teachers and 31 language students across Chinese, French, and Spanish classes. The findings of this study did not deviate much from the literature, and, for the most part, students did not have drastically differing opinions from those of their teachers regarding effective language teaching practices. Even when differences occurred, many students still found their teachers to be effective. Nevertheless, many students expressed they did not have a desire to study an L2 beyond what is required, which is a problem based on the current needs of society. The findings of this study imply that a more thorough exploration is needed of students’ perceptions of the value of knowing an L2 well and how to motivate them to continue to pursue more advanced study. Policy makers and teachers have an important role to play in ensuring this happens at an early stage of language learning, especially if they hope to address the language gap that currently exists and could grow in the next five to 10 years across various business sectors (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2019a) and our global society (Kramsch, 2014, U.S. Department of Education, 2017). For Greg, this means helping students see language class “more as like not just, ‘Oh, it’s just a class.’” Because kids kind of tend to tune
out that stuff. . . [they need] to understand the point of learning a language” (Greg, personal communication, May 16, 2019). But Cooper cautioned that language “shouldn’t be forced on someone because some people won’t go far with a foreign language and they won’t need it. . . [but] I think people need to understand that it does have its uses” (Cooper, personal communication, March 13, 2019). Ultimately, as the American Academy of Arts & Sciences Commission on Language Learning (2017) determined, “it is up to all of us—parents, students, educators, policy-makers, and businesses—to make language learning a valued national priority, and to address a need that is more acute today than at any other time in our history” (p. 31).
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APPENDICES
Appendix A: IRB Approval

January 17, 2019

Janet Lainé
IRB Approval 3570.011719: High School Language Students’ and Teachers’ Perceptions of Effective Teaching Practices: A Collective Case Study

Dear Janet Lainé,

We are pleased to inform you that your study has been approved by the Liberty University IRB. This approval is extended to you for one year from the date provided above with your protocol number. If data collection proceeds past one year or if you make changes in the methodology as it pertains to human subjects, you must submit an appropriate update form to the IRB. The forms for these cases were attached to your approval email.

Your study falls under the expedited review category (45 CFR 46.110), which is applicable to specific, minimal risk studies and minor changes to approved studies for the following reason(s):

Collection of data from voice, video, digital, or image recordings made for research purposes.

Your study involves surveying or interviewing minors, or it involves observing the public behavior of minors, and you will participate in the activities being observed.

Thank you for your cooperation with the IRB, and we wish you well with your research project.

Sincerely,

G. Michele Baker, MA, CIP
Administrative Chair of Institutional Research
The Graduate School

Liberty University | Training Champions for Christ since 1971
Appendix B: Observational Protocol  


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observational Protocol:</th>
<th>Charlotte</th>
<th>Length of Activity: 85 minutes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Descriptive Notes</td>
<td>Quotes</td>
<td>Reflective Notes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The class has 10 students. Four are boys and six are girls.

Charlotte opens class by checking attendance and homework. As this is the first class of the day, an announcement with a verse, prayer, and school announcements come over the PA system.

After announcements, Charlotte asks students about their projects and homework. When students start talking about homework passes, Charlotte reminds everyone that they can earn passes through going to the theatre or Duo Lingo.

Charlotte: “Qui a le projet? » (Who has the project?)
Student: “I have a homework pass.”
Student: “When is it due?”
Charlotte: “Vendredi prochain” (Next Friday)

I like the mix of some French and English to start class. I have never been a fan of homework passes, however, because I feel it is valuable practice.

Charlotte then tells the students in French to take out their books and turn to page 225 to review vocabulary. Quickly, a student asks, in English, what page, to which Charlotte responds in English. Charlotte then has the students repeat the vocabulary after her and she asks them what each word means.

Charlotte: “Répétez classe.” (Repeat class). “What is it?”

I understand the importance of students hearing and saying words, but I am not a fan of so much direct translation, especially if it is review.

After the vocabulary review, Charlotte reads a statement and has the students translate it. She provides positive feedback when students are correct.

Charlotte: “What does the sentence mean?” “Bien!” (Good!)

I like that students are hearing French, but I feel that a better activity could be done with the sentences.
For a second activity, students have to unscramble vocabulary words. After correcting this task, the students then complete another textbook activity to work on vocabulary. The teacher has them work independently to begin with, and she goes and stands by a group of boys who are not focused. To correct the task, Charlotte has the students read the statement, answer it, and then translate it.

Charlotte (in French): “Take out a paper, open your books to page 206.”
Student: “What does that mean?”
Charlotte (in French): “[Student] read and translate.”
Student: Do you want me to translate?

During this task of reading out loud, I was surprised that Charlotte did not correct much pronunciation. Also, several of the boys are not paying attention, and Charlotte mainly just “shhs” them with little result. I am glad when she finally stands by them and they get on task.

Next, Charlotte tells the students they will continue to work on their translation of “The Three Little Pigs”. The students have a handout, but Charlotte also projects the text and plays the audio with it. For each section, they translate as a class, but one student is doing most of the work. For certain words, Charlotte makes connections to English words such as “mur” meaning wall like a mural on a wall, or gestures to show the meaning of laughter.

Again, I am not a fan of so much translation, and I feel that other activities could help with showing student comprehension.

After translating, Charlotte leads the students in a review of the passé composé and the imparfait. She draws a chart on the board to show the differences. She then instructs the students to identify the tenses in the text and to explain why. She puts the students in groups for this task. At the beginning of this task, Charlotte pulled a couple of students aside to help them with missed word, and then she walked around to help students.”

Charlotte: “Why is it imparfait? Why is it passé composé?”
Student: “This is confusing. I’m not going to do it.”

I think Charlotte made a good connection between the story and the two tenses. I also know that this concept is very confusing for language learners, so I understand the one student’s frustration.
A couple of groups were off task, and some seemed confused.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptive Notes</th>
<th>Quotes</th>
<th>Reflective Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The class has 13 students, seven males and six females.</td>
<td>This seems like a nice sized class, and the setup of the room really invites conversation and pair work.</td>
<td>I love the way that Jose interacts with his students in Spanish. Even when he is telling them to use Spanish, the students switch with no push back which leads me to believe that he has set a precedent for speaking Spanish in class. He also does a great job of guiding students toward the answer in the TL. Also, by allowing students to work together, even the student who seemed overwhelmed is able to build some confidence with the help of his partner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jose opens the class in Spanish by asking how the students are doing. He immediately corrects a couple of students who make mistakes in how they respond.</td>
<td>I appreciate Jose’s use of Spanish right away, and it is neat to hear the students respond in the TL.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Jose gives the students a vocabulary handout to work on in pairs or individually for the next 20 minutes. Students are allowed to use their Quizlet vocabulary lists to help them, and the students who are working together are negotiating meaning in English. One student seems overwhelmed by the task, and another student starts having a side conversation in English. Jose corrects the student with Spanish. Even when students ask Jose questions about the task in English, he consistently responds Spanish. During the task, Jose uses one projector to show a different set of vocabulary from the book, and he also walks around, constantly engaging students in Spanish conversation. Jose guides students toward the correct answer by establishing what they know and going from there. At the end of the 20 minutes, Jose calls on different | Jose: “En Espagnol!”  
Student, upon receiving the handout: “Oh my God.”  
Jose: “Muy bien!” |                                                                                   |
students to read the statement and provide the answers. Jose offers a lot of positive praise.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The next activity is Kahoot, and it is centered around the grammar concept of the conditional tense and certain cultural questions related to their unit. Jose tells the class that the top 3 students will earn extra credit on the next quiz. After each question, Jose explains the correct answer. He also references a chart on the board. The overwhelmed student in the last activity is now very engaged and enthusiastic.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student: “I don’t remember learning this.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jose: “But you have a quiz on Tuesday.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jose, in reference to a cultural question in the Kahoot about his hometown: “If you don’t get this, I’m going to be mad.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As I have experienced, Kahoot is a great tool for student engagement and garnering competitive enthusiasm. I also appreciate how Jose explains each answer to give students, particularly those who missed the question, immediate feedback.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To end the class, Jose asks for students to bring up their homework.

| I am surprised that he asks for this at the end of class instead of the beginning. |
Appendix C: Transcription Samples

Student: Amy

Transcribed by Researcher

R: So first, thank you for doing this. I really appreciate it. I would like you to start off—
introduce yourself to me as if I don’t know you. Tell me a little bit about yourself, your age,
where you’re from, what you like to do. Just tell me a little bit about yourself.
A: Okay. So I’m Amy. I’m from South Carolina. I’m 16 years old and in 10th grade, and I go to
________.
R: What are some things you like to do?
A: I like to play sports like soccer, basketball, swim tennis. I like to read and I like to listen to
music and just be outside.
R: Tell me a little bit about your language background as a language learner. So what languages
have you studied? When did you start studying them? That sort of thing.
A: Well in elementary school I probably started first off with Spanish. And then for a couple
years in elementary school I learned Latin and Spanish together. And then when I got to
middle school, I studied Latin for 2 years. And then when I got to high school, in 9th grade, I
started back up with Spanish, and now I’ve taken Spanish for the last 2 years.
R: And, do you have any type of language experiences outside of the U.S.? Have you traveled
anywhere to be able to use your language or been exposed to other languages?
A: Well this year, or this past summer actually, I went to Ecuador for 2 weeks where I did like
mission project work there and spoke a lot of Spanish with like the natives, the people there.
So that was a good experience. And I recently just went to Prague and Europe over there, so I
was also exposed to those languages.
R: And your experiences in Ecuador, did you... you said you were able to speak it a lot. Did you feel like you had the tools you needed to be able to..?

A: Well we also had a translator there who could help us, but at times we were like one on one with the people, so I was able to use like fragments of stuff I learned, and they could like help me and point at things. I feel like I, I feel like my Spanish really improved while I was there.

R: And you were able to like understand them when they were talking and stuff?

A: Yes.

R: That’s gotta be kinda cool. I remember the first time I studied...

A: It was really cool. I feel like the language was finally like clicking.

R: Okay. Good. When you think about having learned Spanish, and been learning Spanish, what do you think are some effective language teaching practices that have really helped you with learning Spanish?

A: I think, well what we’ve done this year is we’ve read books starting off at younger grade levels like 1, 2 learning small, beginner words. And I feel like that’s really helped me being able to look up words on my own. That has helped me, and also watching videos because I know in Spanish they just speak really fast, so sometimes the words blur. But listening to videos and having the con—the text on the bottom helps too.

R: And are there any other type of strategies or activities that your teachers or that your teacher’s doing this year or has done in the past that you’re like, “Wow... that really helps me”?

A: Probably for homework this year, he gave us a packet in advance of different sections of vocabulary that we’d be learning. Like one section’s food and then like body parts and places and stuff. And our homework was to look up, or he’d have the meanings of the words
online for us and we’d go to that, and we’d look up and define them. And then in class the next day we’d talk about them, and I feel like that was really helpful.

R: Just having that prep work to . . .

A: Yeah.

R: Okay. What do you think the role of grammar teaching is when it comes to being an effective language teacher? I guess how important do you think grammar is as an effective language teaching tool?

A: I think grammar is important because to be able to like speak correctly and write correctly, you need to know the grammar and how to do it so people can understand what you’re saying. It helps you with tenses and stuff like that to know when you did something. I think it’s important.

R: And I know that you mentioned that you guys are doing a lot of the reading and videos and such this year. Do you feel like you’re still getting that emphasis in grammar?

A: No so much with like the videos; sometimes it’s harder to tell. But when we do like worksheets and stuff and activities, yeah.

R: Okay. When it comes to making mistakes, you know, when you get corrected for your errors. . . how do you think that your teacher should—I guess how does your teacher correct you and how do you think your teacher should correct you when you make a mistake?

A: Like usually our teacher, when we’re doing worksheets, he’ll come around, he’ll be looking on our papers, and he’ll like point out if we need, if we have the wrong tenses or something. But, I feel like he doesn’t always catch everything, so I feel like what we should do is if we do something independently that we should go over it again as a class to make sure we have the right things.
R: So tenses, what other types of mistakes do you think should be corrected?

A: Just not like the words, translating things incorrectly, or reading the directions wrong.

R: At what point should you be corrected? When do you think your teacher should step in and say, “That’s wrong” or “It’s this way”?

A: I think, I think they should let us try it by ourselves, a couple problems so then we don’t do the whole thing entirely wrong. And then step in and say, so at least we know what we were doing wrong. And then step in and say, “This is how you do it” so you can start over.

R: And do you think, how often should they say, “Oh, that’s wrong. Oh, that’s wrong. That’s wrong.”?

A: I’d say probably as often as it happens so that we learn to do things correctly and so we don’t learn things the wrong way.

R: And just kind of comparing last year to this year, how does it make you feel when your teacher corrects you if they correct everything that you do that’s wrong? I guess, how does that play into how you look at learning the language?

A: I mean, I guess I just think we should be corrected on everything, but also just like when it’s repeatedly every so often, I guess it’s just, it does make you a little apprehensive I guess a little. But, yeah.

R: I guess my question is, do you think it has the possibility to cause some bad feelings?

A: Yeah, I think if the teacher approaches it the wrong way, then yeah, I think so. It kind of depends on the student too because some people can like take it better than others can.

R: Are you one of those people that you want to know every time that you’re wrong?

A: I guess no. I guess I’m not that kind of student. But I guess on really important things, like stuff that are for a grade or things that like I know I’m going to need to know in the future. I
guess I would like to know everything that I was wrong on. But, if it was just simple activities then I might not like, I don’t know, I might not have an opinion about it.

R: So, if he understands what you’re trying to say, and it’s not graded, don’t worry about it. But, if it’s on a test, please tell me so I can fix it.

A: Yes.

R: Okay. I’m gonna read you a statement, and then I want to get your reaction to it. So, language teaching practices in the U.S. are guided or led by what we call the World Readiness Standards for Language Learning. You hear a lot about those in public school. Based on these standards, it says that teachers are supposed to be more of a helper or a facilitator instead of standing up and directly teaching every word, every structure, every piece of grammar, etc. And they place an emphasis on developing your language proficiency over say grammar stuff by communicating meaning within real-life contexts with authentic materials. When I say authentic, I mean made by Spanish speakers for Spanish speakers in your case, through what we call the 5 Cs—Communication, Culture, Comparisons, Connections, and Communities. So based on your learning experience, you know from elementary school and now, in high school, what do you think the benefits are to that approach that I just described?

A: Well I think the benefits are that the kids are able to figure things out for themselves, which I think in some way is helpful. But also, sometimes there are people in the classrooms that like who don’t want to learn necessarily so who may do things like incorrectly or the easy way which is. . . I mean if they do it the easy way, it’s not always like the right way to do it, so I think if the teacher is up there guiding the class, showing exactly what things mean, I think that’s helpful to some point. But also like being able to um learn things and things being
made specifically for like Spanish, people who speak Spanish, that kind of audience, um I think sometimes it’s more difficult for kids who are learning it to understand.

R: Have you had any experiences in your classes over the past couple of years where they’ve used those authentic materials?

A: Yes. One time we watched a video on how to make something. And it was using bigger terms than we’ve seen before. So, it was definitely for people who were more familiar with the language. Yeah, more familiar than we were. It was hard to understand.

R: And how did that make you feel that it was so hard?

A: It made me just kind of frustrated.

R: And did your teacher do anything to kind of help you guys get through it?

A: Yeah, he would stop the video like occasionally and explain what a couple terms meant which was helpful so we could understand it.

R: What do you think, and I think you kind of already touched on what you think is a weakness of that, but what are some other weaknesses of this approach, you know, being that helper, facilitator, putting the emphasis on these real-world contexts over like contrived textbook type contexts?

A: I guess another part of it is um well like sometimes if you don’t’ have the teacher up there like specifically giving you directions and showing you how to do it. . . well this is like similar to what I just said, but it’s like if you ask someone for help and they think this is right but you have a way of doing it, you don’t really know which is the right way because you weren’t told which is the right way. So you just kind of have to come up with it yourself.

R: So you’re saying that sometimes it’s good to have that teacher really specifically saying this is how it goes.
A: Yeah.

R: Okay. I’m gonna read another statement to you, and I wanna get your reaction. So the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, ACTFL—they’re the same group that made those standards and they kind of govern foreign language learning in the U.S.. They say that the target language, so in your case Spanish, should be used in the classroom 90% of the instructional time. So what that means is from the first time you enter Spanish 1 for example, if a class is 50 minutes, then 45 minutes should be done completely in Spanish. What is your reaction to that standard or objective when it comes to using that much Spanish in a class?

A: Well, I agree that it is helpful for like the directions and the teachings to be given in Spanish, but I don’t think the whole 45 minutes should be used in that language because especially, I mean that’s probably more helpful and can be like used more in a higher level class. But coming like in the first level of a class, you don’t know that many words, so I think like giving directions or telling people how to do things in that language can be confusing.

R: And if people continue to be confused, what do you think the result ends up being?

A: I think it’s going to do more damage and harm because people could take it as oh that means something when it really doesn’t mean that at all.

R: And imagine if your, I don’t know what your Spanish 1 class was like, was it a lot of Spanish like all the time? Or 50/50?

A: It was probably like 50/50. Yeah, I think like towards the beginning he spoke mostly in English, but towards the end, he started speaking most of the class in Spanish.

R: And when he made that switch, what kinds of reactions did you have?
A: Well, I had to pay more attention to understand, like to be able to do what was being asked. So, it took me a little bit longer to figure out what was going on. But I think it, overall I think it improved my ability to learn.

R: We also live in an age where everybody has some kind of electronic device whether it’s a phone, your iPad, MacBook Pro, whatever the case may be. And schools like ours, we’re always looking for new ways to integrate technology, like SMART boards and stuff like that. What do you think or what is your opinion of using these types of computer-based technology as an effective language teaching practice?

A: Well I think they are very helpful just to be able to look words up quickly. And also having websites where you can practice like conjugating verbs or tenses or stuff like that. I think those are very helpful, like little games. Also like Quizlet, Quizlet Live and Kahoot are like team games I think that are very helpful.

R: What makes them so helpful?

A: It’s just like, well you’re not just like learning the language, it also helps like build like talking to other people. It’s like, it just makes learning the language much more fun which makes you want to learn the language.

R: And have you ever, have y’all ever used any type of technology in the classroom that you’ve had to do speaking with it or anything like that? I don’t know . . . any kind of an exchange with somebody in another country or . . . ?

A: Well we’ve had like tests, we’ve had, so like our online textbook, there has been places where we’ve had to play a video, and they spoke to us in another language and we had to answer questions on our test. We had to listen and do that. But there’s also another time where we had to speak into our computers for a test in the other language.
R: And how was that?

A: It was, it was difficult, just because I had never really had tests where I had to do things orally, and so, that was, it was a new experience. But it’s also very nerve-racking because if you say a word incorrectly and it’s being recorded or whatever then you have to like start over.

R: Why do you have to start over?

A: Well like, if you’re like being graded on like a particular vocabulary or something and you accidentally say the wrong one. It just depends on the circumstance, and then like you had already been saying this whole long thing but you really importantly need that word to be correct. You just gotta start over.

R: Okay. Fair enough. Based on your language learning experiences so far, where do you see yourself in 5 or 10 years as a language learner, language speaker, language user?

A: Well, I’ve enjoyed studying Spanish so far. I don’t know if, just because of what I want to do, I mean I could probably take a couple classes in college here and there, but I wouldn’t center my future learning around learning another language.

R: What do you want to do?

A: Well, I want to be a doctor. So that does involve learning obviously other language, but like teaching another language, I wouldn’t be so involved with it.

R: So maybe keeping up with some of your Spanish, but do you ever see yourself being completely fluent in it in the next 5-10 years? I use the term fluent loosely, highly proficient?

A: I think so, I mean possibly.

R: (Laughing). She’s like, “Sure. No.” Do you think that your high school track plus a couple of courses in college are going to get you to that point?
A: Yes, I think so.

R: Okay. We’re almost done. I just have, you know we’ve talked about some different things, and I just want to ask you a final question. So outside of the different things that we’ve talked about, what else do you think is important in effective language teaching? What’s something that maybe I haven’t asked about but you’re like, “This is really important, and this has really helped me learn Spanish, or I think it’s important and I want to see more of it?”

A: I think an important thing is like being able to see pictures of things, well this kind of depends on the type of learner you are, but being able to see pictures of things from other countries where they speak that language primarily is helpful and how it applies to their lives, the people who speak it. And um, I think being able to have conversations with other people, like even no matter the level, I think that’s also important too.

R: So putting in that time in class for you to have those conversations.

A: Yes.

R: Ok. Good, well thank you very much.
Student: Calvin

Transcribed by Researcher

R: First off, thank you for doing this. I really appreciate it. I’d like you just to start off by introducing yourself to me, name, age, grade level, what you like to do, and that kind of stuff.

C: I’m Calvin. I’m in the 9th grade and my favorite things to do are football and track.

R: Which Spanish class are you in?

C: Spanish 1.

R: Is Spanish the only language you’ve studied besides obviously speaking English? Or have you studied other languages?

C: I did French when I was really young, but I don’t remember a single thing.

R: Okay. When did you start studying Spanish?

C: I did some in elementary school but haven’t done any since. So, this is my first year back.

R: Do you have any experiences using any other languages outside of the U.S.? Have you been anywhere to use your Spanish?

C: No.

R: What do you consider to be effective language teaching practices that best help you to learn Spanish?

C: Visual.

R: What makes visual so good for you?

C: It appeals to more of the people because when you’re talking out loud, some people are visual learners. More people are visual learners than out loud speaking.

R: So for your teacher to help you with your visual, what do you need her to do?

C: Power Points, class games, stuff like that. Sketches.
R: So, you like to have pictures to match vocab words and things?

C: Yes ma’am.

R: What about grammar? What is the role of grammar teaching, learning grammar when it comes to effective language teaching?

C: What do you mean?

R: Grammar—the study of the rules, verb conjugations, adjective placement. Like for you, how important is grammar?

C: Very important because you have to have the grammar to know what you’re saying. Because you could say something that’s offensive when you’re not even trying to be offensive.

R: In Spanish you can do that if you don’t have the right grammar?

C: You can offend somebody by calling them older than they are. If you talk to them like they’re not your friend, and you’re supposed to talk to them like they’re important. Like the president, you would talk to the president with different grammar than you would a friend.

R: You think it’s very important in effective language teaching, and going back to you saying you’re a visual learner, do you feel that your teacher is effective in using visual things to help you with the grammar?

C: Yes ma’am. She does that a lot.

R: What about error correction? So when you make a mistake, how do you think your teacher should correct you?

C: It kind of depends on how many times you made the mistake, because usually, she, if you make a mistake the first two times, she works with you on it. But, outside of that, it’s your fault if you don’t learn from your mistakes. I think Ms. ___ does a good job with that.

R: And, what types of mistakes need to be corrected?
C: You talking about from . . . what do you mean by what types of mistakes?

R: So, like mistakes in writing, mistakes in speaking, vocab choice, verb conjugation, pronunciation—anything in those domains.

C: Speaking she kind of guides you when you’re speaking. We do class warmups where she asks everybody in the class one question, and she kind of guides you to the answer. And we do that every day until we know how to answer by ourselves.

R: What about with your writing? Out of those mistakes, whether it’s writing, speaking, pronunciation, what types of mistakes do you think should be corrected?

C: Your speaking and your writing because they are the most important. Because if you actually go to Spain or somewhere, you have to know what you’re doing, so those are the most important to correct.

R: At what point should you be corrected when you make a mistake? Should she do it right away, should she wait?

C: She should wait so you get a full feel. Because if she corrects you right away, it’s not really helping you. You have to make the full mistake, so then she can help you.

R: Let you get your idea out first.

C: Yeah, yeah.

R: How often should you be corrected?

C: How often? Like I said earlier, she should let you make the mistake a couple of times before she helps you out.

R: What about, I just want to go back to when you said grammar is very important, you could offend people. What happens if you’re starting off on a path that could offend somebody? Should she correct you right away or still let you finish?
C: Still let you finish and then help you out and what you did wrong. And then tell you what you can do next time to make it better.

R: Okay. I’m going to read you a statement, and then I want to get your reaction to it. So, language teaching practices in the U.S. are guided by what is called World Readiness Standards for Language Learning. So, if you were in public school, you heard about standards all the time. But based on these standards for language learning, teachers should be more of a helper or facilitator instead of teaching every single grammar rule, every piece of vocab. They should be kind of guiding you in your learning. And the standards place an emphasis on developing language proficiency, what a lot of you call fluency, by communicating meaning within real-life contexts like going to the market, the movies, etc. with authentic materials, meaning that if you listen to something in Spanish or read something in Spanish, it was made by Spanish people for Spanish people. So, it’s not textbook stuff; it’s real things. Sometimes your textbook may call it realia. I don’t know what the Spanish word is, but that’s what they call it in the French book. And doing this through Communications, Comparisons, Cultures, Connections, and Communities. So, based on your experiences, what do you think the benefits are to what I’ve just described?

C: I think the benefits of actually reading and listening to what a Spanish person does, it really gives you a full grasp of what you’re learning rather than a real slow educational standpoint. It’s just better overall for helping you learn. We watch, every time we move into a new section for what we’re about to do, she puts a video up, it has the whole lesson, it gives a summary of what we’re about to learn, and it’s all in Spanish. She doesn’t let us listen to any English, so it’s better for learning how to speak. R: And do you see any weaknesses?
C: No, not really. There really are no weaknesses in listening to what they actually listen to. It’s better for you overall in helping you learn it.

R: You don’t think it’s harder?

C: It can be, but the more you do it, you’ll get the grasp of it, and it will make you better in the long-term.

R: What doesn’t kill you makes you stronger.

C: Yes ma’am.

R: Okay. I’m going to read another statement to you. ACTFL, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, the same group who helped make the standards, they say that the target language, so in your case Spanish, should be used in the classroom 90% of the instructional time. So, if a class is 50 minutes, 45 minutes should be completely in Spanish. And, this should be done from day 1 all the way through. So what is your reaction to that standard or objective for using. . . ?

C: 45 minutes out of 50 minutes?

R: 45 minutes. Yep. So, we have 50-minute classes. So, 45 minutes should be completely in Spanish from you asking questions, to her giving directions, to her teaching. Everything should be completely in Spanish for those 45 minutes starting with your first day of Spanish.

C: I don’t think that’s helpful at all. I think it should be more split up. If you’re in Spanish 1, there should be way more normal speaking than Spanish. But if you’re in Spanish 2 and on up, yeah, I think that’s better. But in Spanish 1 from day 1 . . . no.

R: So by “normal speaking” you mean English?

C: Yes ma’am. You should work toward it in Spanish 1 and do it toward the end of the year. And in Spanish 2 and Spanish 3.
R: So, starting next year, you would be okay with your teacher talking to you completely in Spanish? Or even by the end of this year?

C: No. Since it’s my first year doing Spanish in a long time, not for me, but I feel like for most of the people in my class, yes.

R: Because they’ve done it longer?

C: Yes. They’ve done it longer.

R: So, it sounds like if you’ve had it for longer, and maybe been exposed to it as a younger person, they can meet this goal.

C: Yeah. It kind of depends.

R: Okay. But for you, not really having much of a background, you need more English and more time to build into it?

C: Yes ma’am.

R: Okay. We live in an age where almost everybody has some sort of electronic device, phone, iPad, MacBooks, and schools are always looking for more ways to integrate different types of technology into instructional practice. So what is your opinion of the use of computer-based technology as an effective language teaching practice?

C: It’s great. It appeals to younger people more than just doing stuff on a chalkboard or a whiteboard.

R: Have you actually used a chalkboard?

C: Yeah. When I was in public school, we used chalkboards.

R: You said it’s great and it appeals. What are some types of technologies that your teacher uses that really appeals to you and you think is really effective?

C: Quizlets and Kahoots.
R: I’ve heard that answer a lot. What makes those good for you? Why do you like them so much?

C: It’s like a competition and a game, so you’re trying your hardest to beat somebody else. It really makes you better.

R: And you like competition?

C: Yes ma’am.

R: And when I observed your class, you guys were doing a game where you had to spell things and sit down if it came. . .

C: Yes ma’am. *Fuera.*

R: What is the point of that game? Do you enjoy that game?

C: Me, I don’t really like that game. I like it more now than when you were watching in on the class, because I didn’t really know everything I needed to know to be able to do my best. But, now I like the game way more. It’s one of those games, it’s like a competition. It makes you better.

R: Okay. Are there any other types of technology. . . you mentioned she shows videos and you like Power Points and stuff like that. Are there any other types of technology that you find effective in the classroom?

C: Other than that, the Kahoots, the Quizlets, no.

R: Okay. We’re just about done, a couple more questions. Based on your language learning experience so far, where do you see yourself in 5 or 10 years as a language learner/speaker/user?
C: I think with the Spanish teacher’s here, I’ll be way better than . . . like if I compare myself from when I first came and when I left, I’ll be head over heels way better at speaking Spanish than when I was when I came compared to if I went to any other school.

R: Do you think that you will be in a career or maybe study it in college? Do you see yourself doing . . . ?

C: No ma’am.

R: Any particular reason why? I’m just curious.

C: I was gonna do sports management.

R: Okay. Alright, and we’re just about done, and we’ve talked about lots of different things. And I just want to ask you a final question. Outside of anything we’ve talked about and focused on, what else do you think is important to say about effective language teaching practices? What else do you think is important? If you could say one additional thing, “This is what effective language teaching looks like,” what would you say?

C: Just your teaching being patient with you if you’re in Spanish 1. It all depends on the teacher you have. Being patient, my teacher being as patient as she is with new learners is very important in learning.

R: So you think effective language teaching has a lot of patience.

C: Yes ma’am.

R: Thank you so much.