

An Examination of Teacher Practices for the Instruction of French as a Third Language  
among Spanish-Speaking Students in Georgia

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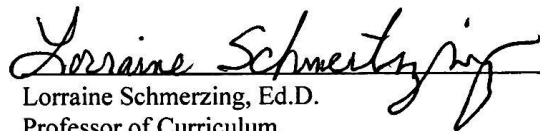
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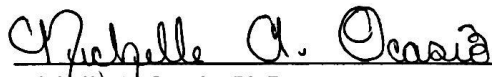
  
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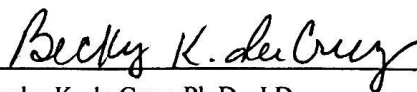
  
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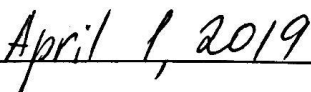
  
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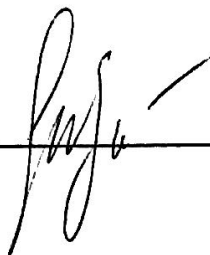
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## ABSTRACT

As the U.S. becomes increasingly diverse and multicultural, World Language (WL) instruction can no longer be aimed toward monolingual English-speaking students acquiring a second language. High school students enrolled in WL courses often speak a variety of languages, with Spanish being the second most commonly spoken language in the U.S. Nevertheless, it is presently unknown what strategies are used with bilingual and heritage speakers of Spanish, and to what degree WL educators are prepared to teach a third language (L3) to Spanish-speaking students. To gain an in-depth understanding of the French teachers' experiences teaching French as an L3 to Spanish-speaking students, and teachers' preparation and training with this unique population of learners, a study was conducted utilizing grounded theory. A survey was administered to 100 Georgia high school French language teachers and follow-up interviews were conducted with 10 survey respondents. Data were analyzed qualitatively, and the results revealed the use of research-based strategies when teaching French as an L3. However, the results indicated that French teachers lack sufficient training for teaching French as an L3 to Spanish-speaking students.

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## DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my husband, German, and our daughter, Sophia.

## Chapter I

### INTRODUCTION

#### Background

The Hispanic population is considered the fastest growing minority group in the U.S. and the Census Bureau projects it to reach 119 million by 2060 (Colby & Ottman, 2015). Unfortunately, the K-12 students in this population often suffer academically. The National Center for Education Statistics (2015) reported that high school dropout rates were 14% for Hispanics, 7% for Blacks, and 5% for Whites. Despite the multiple studies that have supported the claim that bilingualism has numerous benefits such as improved cognitive control, mathematical skills, problem-solving, creative thinking, better developed empathy, metalinguistic awareness, and conceptual transfer (Bialystok, 2001; Cenoz, 2000; Muñoz, 2000; Sanz, 2000), Hispanic students continue failing world language (WL) courses in high schools at a rate of 17% (Georgia Department of Education, 2016), which may be due to teachers' lack of understanding of how the bilingual mind works (Gandara, Maxwell-Jolly, & Driscoll, 2005; Potowski & Carreira, 2004) or what can be done to help Spanish-speaking students succeed academically and socially (Bialystok & Codd, 1997; Clarkson, 2006; Dewaele & Wei, 2012; Ricciardelli, 1992).

Estimating the number of Spanish-speaking students in Georgia public high schools and those who take WL classes is not an easy task, as there is no data on bilingual students taking WL courses in general, and of Spanish-speaking students taking

French language in particular. The Georgia Department of Education collects two separate data sets that can be useful for the present research: one on student race and ethnicity and another on languages spoken at home for English Language Learners. According to the Georgia Department of Education report (2016), there were 8,492 Hispanic students enrolled in high school French Language courses during the 2016-17 school year. These are the students whose parents identified as Hispanic or Latino when enrolling in public school. However, being Hispanic does not guarantee proficiency in the Spanish language. However, if a student is labeled as English Language Learner (ELL)—formerly called Limited English Proficient, then the student’s home language is registered.

The Georgia Department of Education ELL report (2016) showed that there were 305 Spanish-speaking students enrolled in high school French Language courses during the 2016-17 school year. However, this figure is likely inaccurate, as only ELLs whose home language is Spanish are included in this number and the Spanish-speaking students who have a high proficiency level in English are not accounted for; therefore, there is no way to determine the degree of students’ bilingualism in this report. Thus, the actual number of Spanish-speaking students who take WL classes in public high schools in Georgia should be somewhere between 305 and 8,492 for the 2016-17 academic year.

According to U.S. Census Bureau (2014), 21% of families in the U.S. speak a language other than English at home and, in Georgia, where the research study was conducted, 13.3% of households have a language other than English spoken at home. Public school teachers cannot possibly acquire all the languages used by their students, but they can increase their cultural understanding and adjust their teaching methods to



become more effective when teaching multicultural and multilingual students. The results of the studies on cultural and linguistic diversity confirm that students of all backgrounds believe they are more valued and appreciated when their teachers have knowledge and respect for their family history, home language, and culture (Gay, 2010; Santamaria, 2009). In order for the diverse bilingual student population to succeed in school, their teachers must: (1) understand the unique needs and challenges of bilinguals, (2) learn how to connect with them, and (3) show respect of students' home language and culture (Gay, 2010; Potowski & Carreira, 2004).

In this investigation, the term second language (L2) is used to describe a language that is spoken in the community and students of that language have exposure to it both inside and outside of the classroom. In the case with Spanish-speaking students (heritage learners of Spanish or bilingual Spanish speakers), the L2 is English. The term foreign language (FL) refers to a language that is learned in a classroom and students do not have interaction in this language outside of school. In this investigation, the focus is on Spanish-speaking students who take French as a FL course in high school. While many scholars and researchers fail to make the distinction between L2 and FL, it is critical to understand the difference for the purposes of this study. In addition to that, a new term, world language (WL), is currently used among language educators and researchers to replace FL due to negative connotation of the term "foreign."

#### *French language instruction in Georgia*

Currently, all Georgia high school graduates need to have at least two consecutive WL credits in order to attend a 4-year college to pursue a bachelor's degree in the state. The majority of high school students select Spanish because it is the second most spoken

language in the United States (next to English), and Spanish classes are widely available in public schools in all states, including Georgia. However, some high school students choose between the following WL courses offered in public high schools in Georgia: French, German, Latin, Chinese, Japanese, Arabic, Portuguese, Russian, Italian, Greek, and Korean (Georgia Department of Education, 2019). As can be seen in Table 1, high school students who chose Spanish as an elective course in the 2018-2019 school year outnumbered all other languages available in public school in Georgia.

Table 1

*World Language Courses offered in High Schools in Georgia in 2018-2019*

Language Course	High School Enrollment
Spanish	183,634
French	35,961
Latin	8,774
German	6,171
Chinese	2,059
Japanese	915
Portuguese	189
Russian	167
Arabic	137
Korean	20
Italian	15
Greek	12
Total	288,054

*Note.* Data from Georgia Department of Education (2019).

The less commonly taught languages are offered in the metro Atlanta area, in the following counties: Fulton County, Atlanta Public Schools, Cobb County, Cherokee County, Hall County, Gwinnett County. Not all Georgia high schools are able to offer all

of these languages; however, most are able to offer Spanish and French. Four languages from this list (Spanish, Italian, French, and Portuguese) are members of the Romance language group, meaning they all derive from Latin. Thus, Spanish-speaking students should benefit from taking Italian, French, or Portuguese as a WL due to their prior knowledge of another Latin-based language (Spanish), which gives them access to two similar language systems instead of one (Cenoz, 2000), and languages with similar writing and grammar systems have been demonstrated to enhance each other (Bérubé & Marinova-Todd, 2012). Therefore, Spanish-speakers have advantages when learning French, Italian, or Portuguese because they can relate a third language (L3) to their mother tongue (Spanish).

According to the Georgia Department of Education (2019), three Romance languages other than Spanish are offered in Georgia public high schools: French (with the largest enrollment numbers in Gwinnett, Cobb, Fulton, DeKalb, Clayton, Douglas Counties, and Atlanta Public Schools), Portuguese (Cobb County, Hall County, Chatham County) and Italian (Fannin County).

Table 2

*Romance Language Courses offered in High Schools in Georgia in 2018-2019*

Language Course	Number of Counties in Georgia	Student Enrollment
French	111	36,961
Portuguese	10	189
Italian	14	15

*Note.* Data from Georgia Department of Education (2019).

Overall, in the state of Georgia, the total high school enrollment numbers were approximately 36,961 students for French, 189 students for Portuguese, and 15 students

for Italian during the 2018-2019 school year. Considering the small number of students learning the Italian and Portuguese languages in Georgia, the focus of this study is on French language educators who teach Spanish-speaking students French as an L3.

### Theoretical Framework

Historically, L3 acquisition has been viewed as a subfield of Second Language Acquisition research, which primarily focuses on the acquisition of FL and/or L2s; however, in the past decades, a growing number of researchers have examined the differences and similarities between L2 and L3 acquisition and have come to the conclusion that L3 acquisition must be considered as a separate discipline (Cenoz, 2000; Cenoz, Hufeisen & Jessner, 2001; Flynn, Foley & Vinnitskaya, 2004; & Herdina & Jessner, 2002). The complexity and diversity of L3 acquisition is determined by the variety of ways in which humans learn languages, including the possible interruptions and interactions of language learning. While L2 acquisition only accounts for two pathways of language learning: simultaneous (learning two languages from birth) and sequential (acquiring second language (L2) after first language (L1)), Cenoz (2000) identified the following four types of language acquisition orders:

- simultaneous acquisition of L1/L2/L3,
- consecutive acquisition of L1, L2, and L3,
- simultaneous acquisition of L2/L3 after learning the L1,
- simultaneous acquisition of L1/L2 before learning the L3.

Additionally, the learning process of multilingual acquisition can be interrupted if a student begins to learn another language.

While many theories of L3 acquisition exist, the researcher used Krashen's monitor model (1982) and Hufeisen's factor model of multilingual learning (2004) to provide the theoretical framework underlying this study. Krashen's (1981, 1982) model explained how all languages are learned, or rather acquired, and Hufeisen's (2004) model provided explanation of how L3 acquisition is facilitated by previous language learning experience. Both models are essential for understanding how students learn and what can be done to help improve language learning process.

*Krashen's Monitor Model*

Krashen's (1976, 1981, 1982) model of second language acquisition includes the following five hypotheses that are essential for understanding how languages are learned: the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the input hypothesis, the affective filter hypothesis.

*The acquisition-learning hypothesis.* According to Krashen (1981, 1982), L2s are not learned, but rather they are acquired subconsciously, and the distinction between learning and acquiring language is that learning is a conscious process, which is the result of direct instruction on the metalinguistic aspects of language as well as memorizing rules and vocabulary items. Conversely, acquisition is a natural, subconscious process of developing language that results from exposure to meaningful messages. According to Krashen (1976, 1981, 1982), languages are acquired through exposure to linguistic input that is comprehensible, and learners create an internal grammar in the L2, much as they do when acquiring their L1, without any awareness of doing so.

*The natural order hypothesis.* According to the natural order hypothesis, grammar rules and structures are acquired in a predictable sequence that cannot be

changed even by explicit instruction (Krashen, 1985). Though the natural order is different for various languages, all learners of a particular language, whether acquiring their L1 or their L2, must proceed through the same development sequence for a given language structure.

*The monitor hypothesis.* Krashen (1985, 2003) asserted that learners use a monitor device that is similar to a mental editor that checks their language output for correctness. The mental monitor is formed by consciously learning grammar. While the monitor may assist language learners when they are writing because they have time to think and formulate their L2 production, the monitor impedes speaking fluency, as learners need to take more time to filter and edit their spoken language production in real time.

*The input hypothesis.* Krashen (1985) developed the input hypothesis, which claims that individuals learn when they understand a message or receive comprehensible input. Following the natural order, the learners comprehend structures that are a little beyond their current ability level, which Krashen referred to as  $i + 1$ . While he did not specify what the  $i$  stands for, many speculate that it refers to interlanguage, which is the learners' current knowledge of L2 phonology, phonetics, morphology, syntax, and lexis. Thus, learners are able to understand and acquire language with the help of a meaningful context. The input hypothesis explains how learners build an implicit linguistic system (or interlanguage) through exposure to comprehensible language input that is just a little beyond their current ability level.

*The affective filter hypothesis.* The affective filter hypothesis takes emotional factors that influence L2 acquisition into account (Krashen, 1982, 1985, 2003). These

factors include: motivation, self-confidence, anxiety, and stress; and they can slow down and even prevent language learning from happening. Krashen (1982, 1985, 2003) claimed that learners with high motivation, strong self-confidence, a positive self-image, and low levels of anxiety are more likely to succeed in L2 acquisition. However, anxiety may block linguistic input from entering the mind of the student, thus blocking the language acquisition process.

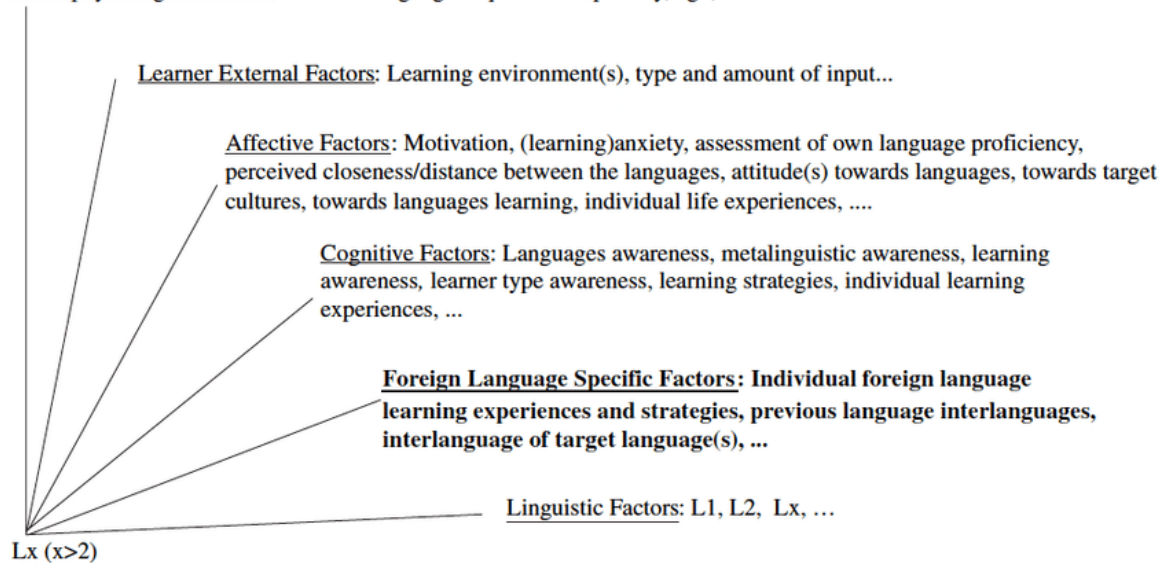
Krashen's (1976, 1981, 1982, 2003) five hypotheses that comprise monitor theory are essential for understanding how an L1 and each additional language are learned. Knowledge of these hypotheses may help foreign language teachers facilitate the language acquisition process for their students. The purpose of the current study was to shed light on how students are taught an L3 and what strategies teachers currently use with Spanish-speaking students who are acquiring French as an L3; therefore, this study attempted to uncover whether teachers' strategy use is aligned with Krashen's model.

#### *Hufeisen's factor model of multilingual learning*

Hufeisen (2004) asserted that students who learn an L3 have already established individual language learning techniques and strategies that distinguish them from L2 learners. As students continue learning additional FLs, they grow more conscious about their learner styles and develop their own factor complex that suits them the best. The factor model designed by Hufeisen and Marx (2007) accounts for six factors that influence the language learning process. As shown in Figure 1, these factors include: neurophysiological, external, affective, cognitive factors, linguistic, and language specific factors.

Neurophysiological factors include students' age and ability to learn languages; they serve as the basis for language learning. External factors comprise cultural and socio-economic realities of the community where the learning takes place as well as the language input that the learners receive. Affective factors are the emotional factors that influence language learning, such as anxiety, stress, self-image, motivation, desire to learn the target language, and previous life experiences. Cognitive factors include language awareness, linguistic and metalinguistic awareness, students' previous learning experiences and their ability to use learning strategies. Linguistic factors are experiences of learning previous languages that affect learning additional languages. Finally, language specific factors relate to multilingual individuals' ability to create their own learning techniques and analyze their own language patterns in order to apply them to further language learning.

Neurophysiological Factors: General language acquisition capability, age, ...



*Figure 1.* The Factor Model of L3 Learning (Hufeisen & Marx, 2007). Reprinted with permission (see Appendix G).

The language specific factors, unique for each language learner, play the most important part in L3 acquisition as they allow students to select techniques that work for



them. As language learners grow more proficient, they apply their previous learning experiences and strategies to new learning situations, selecting the most useful and creating their own repertoire of techniques. For example, a student who was successful in memorizing L2 words by using flashcards will more likely use the same strategy when learning L3, while using rhyming words will be ignored because this strategy did not help in L2 acquisition. Thus, some factors will play the major role in student language acquisition, while others will remain irrelevant to a particular learner situation.

Overall, Hufeisen's (2004) model outlined individual factors that contribute to the language learning process at three stages: (1) the acquisition of L1, (2) the learning of L2, and finally (3) the learning of L3; there is no limit to the number of languages that a learner may wish to acquire. According to this model, factors are added from language to language, equipping the learner with new experiences and strategies that were not available during previous language learning experiences. This scaffolding system helps to explain the benefits of bilingualism.

Hufeisen (2004) claimed that the greatest qualitative leap in the language learning process happens between L2 and L3 acquisition, when a student purposefully masters L3 while relying on the previous language learning practices. This progress is driven by students' previous learning experiences, cognitive abilities, and the strategies that were perceived as successful based on past language learning. When acquiring additional languages, learners develop awareness of what kind of students they are, what strategies and techniques work best for them, and how to use prior linguistic knowledge to their advantage. Hence, the actual learning experience and specific language learning strategies determine success in the L3 acquisition process (Hufeisen, 2004). The factor

model of L3 learning informs the current research study because it provides a clear explanation of the differences between L2 and L3 acquisition; therefore, it provides a more detailed picture of the language acquisition process for the population of learners targeted in this study. In addition, this model describes how multilingual learners develop specific factors that improve their subsequent language learning.

While both Krashen's and Hufeisen's theories describe how languages are learned, Hufeisen (2004) provided a detailed explanation of how L1 and L2 knowledge contribute to the L3 learning process. Also, Hufeisen's (2004) factor model accounted for conscious language learning where students make choices based on their previous learning experience, while Krashen (1981, 1982) insisted that L2 are acquired subconsciously rather than learned in formal classroom settings. In the end, both theories are important for understanding how languages are studied and what can be done to improve the way languages are currently taught.

#### Statement of the Problem

The majority of research on WL teaching and language learning strategies was conducted on learners who were monolingual speakers acquiring an L2. However, the growing number of bilingual students in the U.S. calls for research on how to teach language to bilinguals by building on their prior knowledge. Because Spanish-speaking students continue to fail WL courses in high school despite research that supports the benefits of bilingualism (Bialystok, 2001; Cenoz, 2000; Muñoz, 2000; Sanz, 2000), WL teachers need to be better prepared to teach bilingual students and to use appropriate strategies for teaching an L3 to this unique population of learners.

## Purpose

The purpose of the current study was to investigate French language educators' use of strategies when teaching students who are native or heritage speakers of Spanish. By uncovering French teachers' current practices with this unique population, it is possible to determine whether these teachers are engaging in research-based, best practices for L3 acquisition or not. Furthermore, this study attempted to uncover the type of training, or lack thereof, that French teachers in Georgia received in order to work with Spanish-speakers who are learning French as an L3. Understanding what strategies are used in Georgia public schools among this unique population of language learners will add to the present body of knowledge on L3 instruction.

## Research Questions

1. What types of strategies (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social) do French teachers report using with third language learners of French who are native or heritage speakers of Spanish?
2. What type of training do French language teachers report receiving during their teacher preparation programs on strategy instruction and language learning strategy use for teaching Spanish-speaking students a third language?

## Significance of the Study

Researchers such as Bild and Swain (1989), Cenoz and Valencia (1994), and Muñoz (2000) asserted that the ability to speak multiple languages, which is called multilingualism, has a positive influence on the language acquisition process. Multiple studies on multilinguals and multilingual language learning were conducted in Europe (Rauch, Naumann, & Jude, 2011), Canada (Tremblay, 2006), and Asia (Kärchner-Ober,

2012). However, there is a significant gap in L3 research conducted in the U.S. Thomas (1988) pioneered this work when she compared Spanish-English bilinguals ( $N = 16$ ) to English monolingual college students ( $N = 10$ ) learning French as an L3. The results of her study suggested that these bilingual Spanish-speaking students had greater metalinguistic awareness, which gave them an advantage over monolinguals when learning French. As a result of this research, Thomas (1998) provided recommendations for recruiting Spanish-speakers into French classes and emphasizing the similarities between Spanish and French languages.

Additionally, the current body of research suggests that bilingualism empowers students to succeed both in school and in life (Bialystok, 2001; Bild & Swain, 1989; Cenoz, 2000; Dewaele & Wei, 2012; Kharkhurin, 2010; Muñoz, 2000; Sanz, 2000). At the same time, use of language learning strategies—memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, social, and communication strategies—have demonstrated a positive correlation with higher language proficiency levels (Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003; Wharton, 2000). Thus, teaching bilingual students how to use language learning strategies should result in faster and better L3 acquisition.

Meanwhile, little is known about teacher training and strategy use when teaching native and heritage speakers of Spanish an L3. WL teacher preparation programs in the U.S. are guided by the Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers (ACTFL, 2015a), which was developed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and approved by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and later by the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP). These standards define both content

knowledge for teacher candidates and mandatory components of teacher preparation programs. According to the Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers (ACTFL, 2015a), teachers are trained to teach a FL or an L2 without differentiation between the two, as the language acquisition process is assumed to be the same for both populations of learners. Currently, FL methods classes in higher education institutions cover strategies for teaching FL and L2 without distinguishing between L2, L3, etc. The present study helps uncover whether this distinction may be necessary. Numerous studies have been conducted on teacher preparation and readiness, focusing on teacher effectiveness (Huhn, 2012; Wilbur, 2007) and oral proficiency (Ortega & Byrnes, 2008; Schick & Nelson, 2001). However, very few studies have focused on L3 acquisition or how to teach language successfully to students who are bilingual already in another Romance language (De Angelis, 2011; Thomas, 1988). In fact, the term “heritage learners” is used only once in ACTFL program standards, while the term “bilingual” is not mentioned at all (ACTFL, 2015a).

Therefore, surveying and interviewing French language teachers on the types of strategies used in class and the training that they received on strategy instruction, this study has the potential to expand what is currently known about teaching Spanish speakers a third Romance language in the United States. The results of this study could also positively impact teacher training programs in the U.S.

#### Definition of Terms

Bilingualism - the ability to speak two languages. This term is used by many researchers to describe different degrees of language skills, from full native-like fluency in two languages (Bloomfield, 1933) to the ability to function in two languages according

to specific needs (Grosjean, 2008). There are two types of bilingual students: simultaneous bilinguals (people who learn two languages from birth) and sequential bilinguals (people who acquire a second language after the first one).

First language (L1) - the first language acquired by a speaker, also referred as a mother tongue.

Foreign language - any language that is not a mother tongue. A foreign language is also defined as a language indigenous to another country.

Heritage Spanish Speakers - students who are raised in a Spanish-speaking home, who can speak and understand Spanish to some extent, and who are somewhat bilingual in English and Spanish (Valdés, 2001).

Language learning strategies - conscious thoughts, techniques, and actions used by students to improve their own learning and achieve a language learning goal (Oxford, 1990). The term used by many researchers to describe learning behaviors (Politzer & McGroarty, 1985), steps (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990), techniques (Rubin, 1987), and methods (Stern, 1991) used by students to succeed in language acquisition. This study used Oxford's (1990) definition of learning strategies as specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students take, often consciously to improve their own language learning progress.

Monolingual English Speakers - students who speak or use only the English language.

Multilingualism - the ability to speak multiple languages.

Native Spanish Speakers - students to whom Spanish is the first and dominant language.

Second language (L2) - the second language learned or acquired by adolescents or adults, sometimes mistakenly referred as foreign language. This is the language of the community that learners are exposed to inside and/or outside the classroom.

Second language acquisition (SLA) - the discipline that describes the process of learning or acquisition of a foreign language.

Strategy instruction - explicit teaching of students how to develop learning skills and improve learning. If strategy instruction is successful, then students become more independent and productive learners.

Target language - a foreign language that an individual wants to learn.

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) – a survey designed by Oxford (1990) to get information on how a foreign or second language learner learns the language.

Third language (L3) - the third language learned or acquired by adolescents or adults.

Third language acquisition (L3 acquisition) - the theory that describes the process of learning or acquisition of a third language.

World language - a term used to replace “foreign language” due to negative connotation of the term “foreign.”

#### Delimitations

The findings of this study are not generalizable to the entire population of French teachers of Spanish-speaking students learning an L3 in the U.S. because there was no random selection of participants from high schools across the country. The study is limited to French teachers who teach Spanish-speaking students in high schools in

Georgia and those who voluntarily agreed to participate in the study. Thus, the findings at best are only generalizable to high school French language teachers in Georgia who have experience teaching Spanish-speaking students. Additionally, the level of Spanish language proficiency in students was not measured. Furthermore, the study only attempts to uncover French teachers' strategy use with Spanish-speaking students, and it does not attempt to determine the effectiveness of these strategies. This initial study may pave the way for future studies that explore whether these strategies are effective and to what degree.

### Limitations

The study used the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), a survey designed by Oxford (1990). Though the participants answered on a 5-point Likert-scale, the statements on the SILL are still open to teachers' individual interpretation. In addition, validity of the results of the study depend on the participants' honesty and ability to respond accurately to each question. As the survey may not account for the whole range of strategies used, the researcher followed up with interviews to develop a better understanding of the strategies that Georgia French teachers use with their Spanish-speaking students.

### Summary

This chapter presented the background, purpose, and significance of the study, including the need for the research in teaching an L3 to Spanish-speaking students. Additionally, the statement of the problem, the research questions, the definitions of terms, the delimitations and limitations of the study were presented in this chapter.



## Chapter II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### Introduction

This chapter begins with an overview of the research findings on bilingualism and third language (L3) acquisition. Students who speak multiple languages are believed to have advantages in studying any additional language due to their improved cognitive control, mathematical skills, problem-solving, creative thinking, better developed empathy, metalinguistic awareness, and conceptual transfer (Bialystok, 2001; Cenoz, 2000; Muñoz, 2000; Sanz, 2000). A thorough description of the major L3 learning models is provided in this chapter. After that, a review of language learning strategies is presented along with the best practices for teaching bilingual students. The chapter ends with an overview of Oxford's (1990) strategy system and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) used for learning strategies assessment, along with the research on the SILL and Oxford's (1990) strategy system. It is the goal of the present study to build upon and fill the gap in the present body of knowledge on the strategy instruction (SI) in world language (WL) classroom.

The present research study focuses on teacher practices with Spanish-speaking students who learn French as an L3. Though this student population may be called bilingual and/or heritage speakers, the researcher chose the term Spanish-speaking students in order to avoid confusion between these two terms. There are different types of bilinguals that can be defined by different criteria, such as: age of onset (early and late

bilinguals), order of language acquisition (simultaneous and sequential bilinguals), language proficiency (balanced and unbalanced bilinguals). Besides that, these students can also be called heritage Spanish speakers, as they are raised in Spanish-speaking homes, can speak, and understand Spanish to some extent, and they are somewhat bilingual in both English and Spanish (Valdés, 2001). Because the proposed research procedures do not account for the type and level of students' bilingualism, the term Spanish-speaking students is being used throughout this manuscript.

#### Bilingualism and Research on L3 Learners.

Students with diverse linguistic backgrounds come to WL classrooms in many areas of the U.S., including Georgia. These learners are likely to have exposure to more than one language since birth in their own household and in the community. Their academic performance is affected by their motivation and involvement, cognitive skills, work habits, learning disabilities, and/or socioeconomic status. Even if these students do not have formal academic experience studying a WL, they bring their sense of different linguistic systems and knowledge of language structure to the classroom, and they might have more tools and strategies to apply to L3 acquisition than monolingual students (Bialystok, 2001; Bialystok & Codd, 1997; Clarkson 2006).

Several studies have supported the assertion that bilingual students have advantages over their monolingual peers when learning an L3 (Bialystok, 2001; Bild & Swain, 1989; Cenoz, 2000; Cenoz & Valencia, 1994; Muñoz, 2000; Sanz, 2000).

Furthermore, there is some evidence that adding an L3 to the curriculum of bilingual learners may positively influence students' performance in their second language (L2) (Griessler, 2001; Hammarberg, 2001; Kellerman, 2001). In research conducted in

Austria, German-speaking students who learned English as an L2 had lower English test scores than students who learned English as an L2 and French as an L3 (Griessler, 2001). Thus, L3 acquisition was shown to have a positive influence on L2 acquisition; therefore, Spanish-speaking students who are identified as English language learners and who struggle with the English language in schools may have an advantage when learning an L3 compared to their monolingual peers. Furthermore, learning an L3, for example French, might help improve their English language proficiency (Griessler, 2001; Hammarberg, 2001; Kellerman, 2001).

Current research on L3 acquisition is based on research from the fields of both Second Language Acquisition and bilingualism. Although L2 and L3 acquisition share common characteristics, they are different in their complexity and diversity, as every language that an individual learns has the ability to influence later language acquisition processes. While several L3 learning models have attempted to explain how multiple languages are learned, the present study adheres to the factor model and the multilingual processing model frameworks, which are described in detail below.

#### *The factor model*

As mentioned in the theoretical framework section of Chapter 1, Hufeisen and Marx (2007) created a factor model that provided explanation of how L3 learners build on their previous languages' knowledge and support further language learning. The factor model chronologically describes the factors contributing to the acquisition of the mother tongue, first foreign language, second foreign language, and the learning of any other further languages. From one language to another, the factors add up, helping the learner master each additional language more effectively and efficiently.

The six factors that influence language learning process are: neurophysiological, external, affective, cognitive, linguistic, and language specific factors (see Figure 1). When learning L3, the most benefits come from linguistic factors such as, knowledge of L1 and L2, and learners' individual experiences, strategies and techniques that were formed and selected during previous language learning. However, Hufeisen (2004) believed that these foreign language specific factors might be predominant in some L3 learners, while being irrelevant for other learners. Thus, each language learner has his or her own way of building repertoire of successful techniques and strategies that work for that particular individual but might be useless to others.

#### *The multilingual processing model*

Meissner (2004) developed the multilingual processing model to provide explanation for L3 learning and help speakers of the Romance languages to build a stronger linguistic foundation for language learning. According to Meissner (2004), when a learner who has already mastered one Latin-based language (L2), approaches written or oral texts in a new language (L3) that belongs to the same language family, he or she inevitably relies on L2 to enable understanding of a new language. The multilingual processing model assumes that a learner who has gained proficiency in Spanish for example, developed receptive skills that help acquire any other Romance language successfully. The knowledge of the previously learned languages helps learners build their own hypothesis on how the new language works. At the beginning stages of L3 acquisition, the learner relies heavily on grammatical and lexical systems of previous languages, selecting either the L1 or the L2 depending on the closeness and similarities with the target language (TL). As the learner grows more confident and proficient in the

TL, the language learning hypotheses are constantly revised and developed towards the systems of the TL. Thus, each multilingual language learner constantly formulates, tests, rejects, and approves theories of how language works.

Meissner (2004) named this process a spontaneous grammar, and he also determined the following conditions under which a spontaneous grammar can exist: the languages must be typologically related, the learner must be proficient in the previous languages, and the learner must be instructed on how to use L1 and L2 knowledge in L3 acquisition. The last condition has the greatest pedagogical implications, as proficiency in two or more languages of the same group is not enough for learning a new language successfully. Thus, multilingual learners must be instructed, taught, and coached on how to use previous language knowledge to their advantage and how to build receptive skills for further language learning.

Overall, much research supports the assertion that the L3 acquisition process is facilitated by prior L1 and L2 learning experiences (Cenoz & Valencia, 1994; Jessner, 1999; Thomas, 1988) due to the fact that multilinguals have developed a repertoire of language learning strategies and metalinguistic awareness, or “conscious knowledge of the rules and forms of language” (Thomas, 1988, p. 236). Given these points, L3 learners who already have advantages in language learning should benefit from strategy training to help them activate language skills and advance language learning.

#### Research on General Strategy Use and Strategy Instruction

Every individual learns a language in his or her own unique pace determined by learner motivation, the surrounding environment, the quality and quantity of the language input, and individual differences in language learning. Individual differences, such as

aptitude, motivation, age, language background, and socioeconomic status are often related to language learning strategies that students use to improve their own language acquisition. Over the past decades, researchers tried to investigate what makes a good and a bad language learner, what strategies are used by successful learners, and what strategies are used by different groups of learners, such as: L2 and L3 learners, males and females, immigrant and nonimmigrant students and so forth (Dewaele, 2005; Griffiths, 2003; Lee & Oxford, 2008; Oxford, 1999; Reis, 1985; Rubin, 1975). Good language learners are defined as individuals who (a) make guesses willingly and accurately, (b) want to communicate in TL, (c) learn from their own mistakes, (d) often practice TL, (e) attend to form and meaning, and (f) monitor their own speech and speech of others (Rubin, 1975). Furthermore, learning to think in TL and addressing the affective demands of language learning were added as qualifiers of good language learners (Naiman, Frölich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978).

Overall, the strategy use correlates with improved performance in different aspects of language learning: reading, speaking, listening, and writing (Bialystok, 2001; Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Thompson & Rubin, 1993). Several studies found positive correlation between general high strategy use and learning achievement (Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995) and the effect of the appropriate use of strategies on improved performance in specific skill areas, such as: vocabulary (Atay & Ozbulgan, 2007; Rasekh & Ranjbary, 2003), reading (Carrell, 1985; Chamot, 2005; Cohen, 1998; Macaro & Erler, 2007; Oxford 1996; Zhang, 2008), listening (Graham & Macaro, 2008; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010) and oral communication (Nakatani, 2005; Naughton, 2006). *Strategy instruction and vocabulary*

Rasekh and Ranjbary (2003) investigated the effect of metacognitive strategy training through the use of explicit SI on the vocabulary improvement of Iranian learners of English as second language (ESL). For approximately 10 weeks, both a control ( $N = 26$ ) and an experimental ( $N = 27$ ) group of students received general vocabulary learning strategy training. However, metacognitive learning strategies were taught only to the experimental group of participants. The chosen method of delivering SI was Chamot and O'Malley's (1994) Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), which includes a five-step cycle of introducing, teaching, practicing, evaluating, and applying learning strategies. One of the benefits of this approach is the gradual decrease of teaching instruction that allows language learners to become more independent and autonomous in their learning, selecting and applying appropriate learning strategies without instructor's support. Once the process of selecting the right strategy and applying becomes almost automatic, the cycle is repeated, and new strategies are added to student repertoire (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994). At the end of the course the results of the vocabulary achievement test showed that explicit metacognitive strategy training provided a significant positive effect on the vocabulary acquisition.

The important benefit of teaching metacognitive strategies is equipping learners with a wide repertoire of strategies and techniques, while teaching them how select and use the best combination of strategies that will satisfy the requirements of the task. Similarly, to teaching a man to fish instead of giving him a fish, a good WL teacher prepares language learners to choose and apply the strategy that will work in each particular situation, rather than teaching one effective strategy. This metacognitive method had been tested in another vocabulary acquisition study, conducted by Atay and

Ozbulgan (2007), who believed that successful vocabulary learners are aware of their own learning strategy use as opposed to poor learners who do not know how to apply different strategies to learn new vocabulary and connect it to their previous linguistic knowledge. In their experiment with Turkish ESL students, Atay and Ozbulgan (2007) confirmed that applying memory strategy improved vocabulary learning, especially when teachers introduced the whole assortment of learning strategies and let the students select the most effective strategy that worked for them. Additionally, Atay and Ozbulgan (2007) claimed that SI helped students self-assess their learning difficulties and language performance.

#### *Strategy instruction and reading comprehension*

Improved vocabulary knowledge leads to another important aspect of language learning, reading comprehension. Consequently, it is important to consider how specific SI affects reading proficiency. A number of researchers recorded improved text comprehension observing students who were taught to think about text structure, find the main idea of a paragraph and distinguish it from supporting details, concentrate on key words, and use context to guess meaning (Carrell, 1985; Macaro & Erler, 2007; Raymond, 1993). These researchers found that interventions focusing on reading strategies provided positive results with language learners' reading comprehension scores at different levels of language proficiency, from beginning to advanced.

When Macaro and Erler (2007) investigated the impact of an SI intervention program, focusing on reading comprehension success, reading strategy use, and attitudes toward reading in WL on learners of French in England, they found evidence of improved performance and attitudes. This longitudinal 15-month study included both a



control ( $N = 54$ ) group and an experimental ( $N = 62$ ) group of students whose reading scores and attitudes toward reading were measured before and after the experiment. Only the experimental group of participants received the intervention that consisted of awareness raising and strategy modelling, scaffolded reading practice, followed by gradual removal of scaffolding, and evaluation of attitudes toward reading (Macaro, 2001). At the end of the experiment, when the post-test measures were taken, the reading comprehension test results suggested that SI improved comprehension of both simple and more elaborate texts, and the questionnaire eliciting strategies use and general approaches to reading French text revealed a sign of growing learner independence and confidence. Finally, the responses on the questionnaire eliciting students' attitudes to reading in French showed improved attitudes towards reading in WL.

These research results support the earlier findings of Carrell (1985), who examined whether explicit teaching of text structure could facilitate ESL reading. After a week of intervention, the experimental group ( $N = 14$ ) outperformed the control group ( $N = 11$ ) on a reading test that consisted of actually reading a text about environmental issues, writing an immediate free recall (Vogely, 1995), and identifying the text organization by answering an open-ended question. The strategy training included explicit teaching about expository text structure and strategies to identify and use that structure for reading purposes. The experiment results demonstrated that explicit strategy teaching can improve learners' reading comprehension, as measured by quantity of information recalled after reading and recollection of supporting details. Moreover, the persistence of the training applied to both major topics and subtopics of the text was demonstrated by the experimental group for 3 weeks after training.

Similarly to Carrell's (1985) experiment, Zhang (2008) focused on reading strategies while studying Chinese students learning ESL in Singapore. For over than 2 months, Zhang (2008) observed both a control group ( $N = 49$ ) and an experimental ( $N = 50$ ) group of students who practiced reading comprehension, writing skills, and aural oral communication as a part of an English for academic purposes program in Singapore. However, only the experimental group received strategy-based instruction that consisted of the enrichment of metacognitive knowledge, direct reading instruction for pre-, while-, and post-stages in reading, teacher modeling and scaffolding, monitoring, and finally gradual removing of teacher support for student autonomy and self-regulation. The results of the study demonstrated that the experimental group outperformed the control group in reading comprehension improvement, which supports the pedagogical push to embed SI into WL teaching (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Cohen, 1998; Oxford, 1999).

#### *Strategy instruction and listening comprehension*

Another aspect of language learning, listening comprehension has been studied with regards to SI and its effectiveness in raising the success rate. It is important to notice that SI in general has been found to lead to smaller improvement in verbal communication skills (listening and speaking) than in reading and writing, and the research results have been inconsistent. For example, O'Malley & Chamot (1990) did not find a statistically significant difference on the posttest of ESL learners who received listening strategies intervention. Yet, Thompson and Rubin (1993) found significant improvement in an experimental group ( $N = 24$ ) of students as compared to the control group ( $N = 12$ ) on a video comprehension test. However, the improvement rate was much smaller on the audio test in the same group of participants.

When Graham and Macaro (2008) conducted their experiment with three groups of learners of French in England over one academic year, they found positive correlation between the SI and improved listening comprehension along with learners' confidence. The researchers used three groups of participants: the experimental group that received high-scaffolding instruction ( $N = 29$ ), the experimental group that received low-scaffolding instruction ( $N = 39$ ), and the control group ( $N = 39$ ). The strategy intervention included the following steps and procedures: providing students with the listening strategy lists to be used before, during and after listening practice, training students to "sound out" and "visualize" unfamiliar words and expressions, training students to "segment" strings of sentences into smaller chunks, teaching students to make predictions and inferences, and finally teaching students to assess the effectiveness of the listening strategies applied.

In addition to these techniques, the participants in high-scaffolding group analyzed and discussed a number of statements about language learning made by other students in terms of their effectiveness and control over learning. These discussions increased students' self-awareness and helped them adapt new learning strategies. Throughout the experiment, the students in the high-scaffolding group kept a diary where they recorded reflection on the learning progress and strategy use application. Each group of participants was tested using a free recall method where students listen to audio recording and then immediately write what they understood (Vogely, 1995). Moreover, immediately after the listening test, the students completed a questionnaire, reflecting on their own listening skills and confidence in their abilities. These measures allowed the researcher to come to a conclusion that the strategy intervention program had a positive

impact on listening performance in both experimental groups and the participants themselves recognized that improvement.

Comparable results were found in a Canadian study conducted by Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) with learners of French as a WL. Similar to Graham and Macaro's (2008) research, the experimental group of students ( $n = 59$ ) was taught to use prediction before approaching listening task, monitor their learning, and evaluate the use of metacognitive strategies. As a result, the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group ( $n = 47$ ) on the final comprehension test, which led to believe a positive correlation between the SI and improved listening comprehension exists.

#### *Strategy instruction and verbal communication*

Speaking, as another aspect of verbal communication, has not been studied extensively by researchers in regard to SI and its effectiveness. Several scholars suggested that students' oral proficiency skills can be improved by raising learners' metacognitive awareness and developing strategies for successful communication (Cohen, Weaver & Li, 1995; Dörnyei, 1995; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). However, only few researchers attempted to conduct experiments with SI influence on interaction production and oral proficiency level (Nakatani, 2005; Naughton, 2006). One of the few researchers was Nakatani (2005), who examined the effect of explicit instruction in oral communication on ESL learners in Japan. Both the experimental group ( $n = 28$ ) and the control group ( $n = 34$ ) were taught English using communicative approach by the same instructor. However, only the experimental group received explicit strategy training, which consisted of the following steps: review, presentation, rehearsal, performance, and evaluation. This SI empowered students to activate their prior knowledge, brainstorm

best possible ways to approach communication tasks, monitor and evaluate their own performance, and finally reflect on their metacognitive awareness. In the end of the 12-week course, the participants in the experimental group improved their oral proficiency test scores significantly, outperforming the control group, which led to the conclusion that strategy training has positive effect on oral communication ability.

Another researcher, Naughton (2006) came to similar conclusions, though her experiment was focused more on small group discussion and cooperative training. The experiment consisted of 3 experimental groups ( $N = 24$ ) and 2 control groups ( $N = 21$ ) of ESL students in Spain. The experimental groups were taught the following major communication strategies: asking follow-up questions, requesting and giving clarification, repairing mistakes, requesting and giving help. After each strategy was introduced to the students, it was practiced in small groups in a cooperative game form. These games encouraged student participation and positive interdependence, empowering the students to collaborate with each other through oral communication. At the end of the 8 weeks, the posttest results revealed that the strategy training was successful in improving student communication skills in TL.

Summarizing the abovementioned quantitative and qualitative research findings, there are several important points. First, research suggests that strategy use is related to language learning success. Second, enhancing learners' awareness of strategy use can lead to improved performance in all aspects of language learning: vocabulary, reading, writing, and speaking. Third, it is not the number of strategies used, but the effective use of strategies according to particular tasks that leads to success in WL acquisition. Finally, it is important to notice that until now, language learning strategy use was

studied from the angle of a student, and thus far, no study found has employed the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Oxford, 1990) from the teachers' perspective. The present research has the potential to shed light on how high school WL teachers approach SI with L2 and L3 learners.

Once the value of language learning strategies has been established, it is important to understand how these strategies can be taught to help students become stronger and better learners. All major second language acquisition and L3 scholars, including Bialystok (2001), Chamot (1998), Green and Oxford (1995), O'Malley (1987), Oxford (1990), Rubin (1975), and Wenden (1991) believed that language learning strategies can and should be taught to students which expands the role of WL teachers. While many SI studies focused on vocabulary memorization skills and mnemonic keyword method (Atay & Ozbulgan, 2007; Pressley, Levin, & Delaney, 1982; Rasekh & Ranjbar, 2003), many others investigated the broader effect of SI on speaking, reading, and listening proficiency (Carrell, 1985; Chamot, 2005; Cohen et al., 1995; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Zhang, 2008). Moreover, there is evidence that SI increases learner motivation (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989), leads to better and more frequent strategy use (Grenfell & Harris, 1999), thus resulting in greater self-efficacy (Chamot, A. U., Barnhardt, S., El-Dinary, P., & Robbins, J., 1996; Macaro & Erler, 2007). These research findings support the claim that WL lessons should be centered not only around delivering language content, but also focus on developing learning strategies that help facilitate language acquisition and foster more effective and autonomous learners.

When Plonsky (2011) conducted a meta-analysis on 61 primary studies to determine the effectiveness of SI, he found small to medium overall effect of SI ( $d =$

0.49) on learning contexts (proficiency, age, level of education, and environment), treatments (number and type of strategies, intervention length), and outcome variables (reading, writing, listening, speaking, vocabulary). Overall, Plonsky (2011) noted that larger effects were observed in L2 settings with younger learners than in foreign language (FL) settings with older language learners. This data corresponds with Krashen's (1976, 1981, 1982) Monitor Model, which was discussed in Chapter 1. But most importantly, Plonsky's (2011) work on the effectiveness of SI provided the most comprehensive overview of all possible variables that might influence SI effectiveness, including setting, age, proficiency and educational level, type and number of strategies introduced, and duration of intervention.

#### *Strategy instruction and learning contexts*

Analyzing the effect of SI on language proficiency, Plonsky (2011) concluded that the relationship is positive and linear (Cohen, 1998; Green & Oxford, 1995; Park, 1997; Wharton, 2000), especially in intermediate language learners. Despite the fact that no one solid model of successful SI was revealed, intermediate language learners were found to use strategies more often, and to use a broader variety of strategies when compared to beginning language learners (Carrell, 1985; Corrales & Call, 1989; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Phillips, 1990; Wharton, 2000). In addition to that, studies of Ikeda and Takeuchi (2003), along with Moore and Surber (1992) revealed that students with higher language proficiencies benefit from SI more than lower proficiency students. However, it is unclear from this meta-analysis whether SI is effective for beginning language learners, who are the primary focus of this doctoral research.

Besides testing the effect of SI on different proficiency levels, the experiments

were carried out in both FL (Barnett 1988; El-Koumy, 1999) and L2 (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) environments separately. Unfortunately, no significant attention was paid to the difference between the two; though Riley and Harsch (1999), compared Japanese learners of English as FL in Japan and as ESL in the U.S., and found no distinction between the two environments.

In addition to proficiency and environments, the effectiveness of SI was tested in student groups of different age, gender, and level of education. The positive correlation between SI and improved language skills was found across all educational levels with children (Macaro & Erler, 2007), adolescents (Dewaele, 2005; Rodriguez & Sadoski, 2000), and adults (Griffiths, 2003; Rubin, 1975; Song, 1997).

#### *Strategy instruction and treatments*

The amount and types of strategies taught to language learners, together with the length of intervention, are considered SI treatments. It is important to define how many language learning strategies exist before choosing what strategies and how many of those to teach. Though there is no consensus on one classification scheme among the researchers, Oxford's (1990) strategy classification system was selected for this doctoral study and its overview will be discussed later in this chapter.

Overall, various groups of learners were taught the following types of strategies to measure their effectiveness: cognitive strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990), metacognitive strategies (Dreyer & Nel, 2003; Vandergrift, 2003), and social strategies (O'Malley, 1987). Regardless of what type of strategy to train, it was noted by Abraham and Vann (1987) that effective language learners were more flexible in their use of strategies while the less effective learners approached all tasks in similar manner



without choosing appropriate strategies to apply. Hence, it is not the wide repertoire of strategies, but the ability to choose between the most applicable among them that makes a good language learner.

In addition to a wide repertoire of strategies, effective SI can also be influenced by the length of the intervention. Though some researchers stressed the importance of repeated and consistent SI over long periods of time (Carrell, 1998; Manchón, 2007; Nyikos & Fan, 2007), the most prominent scholars in the field, Bialystok (2001) and Oxford (1996) suggested embedding teaching strategies into daily practice and TL application.

#### *Strategy instruction and outcomes*

Measuring the dependent variables (reading, writing, listening, speaking, and vocabulary) to demonstrate the effectiveness of SI has been widely used by different groups of researchers. Most commonly, reading skills were tested (Dymock, 2007; Taylor, Stevens, & Asher, 2006; Walters, 2004), followed by writing skills (Bishop, 2001; Ching, 2002; Sengupta, 2000). As previously described, SI in teaching verbal communication skills, which include listening and speaking was not as successful as reading and writing (Chamot, 2005; Rubin, 1975; Thompson & Rubin, 1993), probably due to their social interactive nature where one participant can obscure or alter the meaning.

Finally, students' vocabulary acquisition skills (Fan, 2003; Graham, 2007; Griffiths, 2003), attitudes and beliefs (Chamot, 1993; Sengupta, 2000), autonomy (Chen, 2007; Oxford, 1999), and grammatical accuracy (Ayaduray & Jacobs, 1997) were positively affected by SI in multiple studies, suggesting that WL teachers should include

SI into their curriculum to help students take more control and responsibility over their learning. On the whole, after Plonsky (2011) analyzed 61 primary studies on strategy training, he revealed two conditions of successful SI: selecting strategies that are level appropriate for the target student group and using strategies based on pretest of the students (Grenfell & Harris, 1999; Harris, 2003). These findings correspond with the previous research on the effectiveness of SI and benefits of teaching learning strategies to students (Cook, 1991; Larsen-Freeman, 1991; O'Malley, 1987; Oxford, 1990).

These research findings have important pedagogical implications on the entire teaching and learning community. With the assumption that language learning strategies can be taught, the teachers' role in the classroom should include coaching the students on language learning strategy awareness and use (Nyikos, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Thompson & Rubin, 1993). To sum it up, Rivera-Mills and Plonsky (2007) recommended the following steps for WL educators:

1. Giving students preassessment on strategy use at the beginning of WL course to identify beliefs and potential gaps. Oxford's (1990) SILL could be used to evaluate learners use of strategies.
2. Keeping ongoing conversations with the students on learning strategies that can be applied to the specific situations during the course, making them aware of the benefits of implementing strategies.
3. Incorporating explicit SI where students are taught how to use new strategies and more importantly, how to evaluate strategy effectiveness and transfer them to new learning tasks.

This way, students become more self-directed and independent learners who can

take control of their learning experiences and improve their language performance regardless of their previous experiences. As Chamot and Rubin (1994) stated, the good language learner is not the one who is equipped with a single set of strategies, but the one who can develop a personal set of strategies that are effective to that particular learner in each educational task.

### Oxford's Strategy System

As mentioned above, several prominent scholars created different taxonomies for categorizing language learning strategies (Bialystok, 1978; Naiman et al., 1978; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Rubin, 1987). However, Oxford's (1990) model of language learning strategies provides the most comprehensive classification system nowadays.

Oxford (1990) classified language learning strategies into six categories:

- *memory strategies* (relating to how students remember language),
- *cognitive strategies* (relating to how students think about their learning),
- *compensation strategies* (helping students to make up for limited knowledge),
- *metacognitive strategies* (relating to how students manage their own learning),
- *affective strategies* (relating to students' feelings and emotions)
- *social strategies* (involving learning by interaction with others).

#### *Memory strategies*

Memory-related strategies are used by language learners to link new information, usually vocabulary terms in the beginning stages of language learning to an already existing concept or term. Drawing pictures, making associations, using body movements

and acronyms are examples of memory strategies. Though memory-related strategies are found useful in initial stages of L2 acquisition (Oxford & Ehrman, 1995), intermediate and advanced language learners do not rely heavily on memorization as their vocabulary becomes richer.

### *Cognitive strategies*

Cognitive strategies are used by language learners to process new information and attribute deeper meaning to it. Examples of cognitive strategies are: analyzing, synthesizing, reasoning, finding similarities between L1 and L2, reorganizing information. Using TL in naturalistic settings, like watching TV programs, listening to music, operating electronic devices in TL are also considered cognitive strategies as they allow learners to process language and bring deeper understanding. Multiple scholars believe that cognitive strategies have positive impact on WL proficiency (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995).

### *Compensation strategies*

Language learners use compensation strategies in order to make up any missing piece of information when listening, speaking, reading, or writing in TL. Like a missing puzzle piece, learners use gestures and body language, rephrasing and pausing, guessing and asking for clarification, to complete the picture of the message that is being delivered. Even though making guesses based on the context can be attributed to both cognitive and compensation categories, Oxford (1990) believed this strategy to be compensatory because it allows to make up for a gap in student knowledge. Researchers found positive correlation between the use of compensation strategies and WL performance (Cohen, 1998; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995).

### *Metacognitive strategies*

This category of strategies empowers students to plan and organize their own language acquisition, allowing them to take learning to a new level. Examples of metacognitive strategies are: identifying student's learning style, needs, and preferences; planning and organizing for learning; monitoring progress; analyzing mistakes; evaluating success; adjusting goals and tasks. Overall, metacognitive strategies help students become more autonomous and self-regulating in their own learning.

Metacognitive strategies are proven to be strong predictors of WL proficiency (Dreyer & Oxford, 1996; Oxford, 1990; Purpura, 1997). Metacognitive strategies play the most significant role for the current research study as they allow students to reflect on their learning and evaluate success of the strategies used. Thus, bilingual students who acquire L3 can analyze usefulness of language transfer from L1 to L3, and WL teachers can help facilitate student learning through explicit language strategy teaching.

### *Affective strategies*

Affective strategies relate to students' feeling, emotions, and attitudes about TL. It is obvious that some learners feel anxiety and fear when trying to communicate in a foreign language, especially in the beginning stages of language acquisition. Affective strategies, such as: relaxation, deep breaths, positive self-talk, rewards, and self-encouragement can help learners deal with language anxiety and overcome fear. However, these type of strategies are more likely to play important role only in the beginning levels of language learning, as students with higher levels of proficiency no longer use and need affective strategies (Mullins, 1992).

### *Social strategies*

Language learners use social strategies to interact with others while learning the TL and culture. Asking clarification questions, talking to native-speakers, asking for language advice and suggestions to improve, exploring cultural and social norms are examples of social strategies that help language learners cooperate with others and raise their cultural awareness. Use of social strategies positively correlates with WL learning success (Dreyer & Oxford, 1996; Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995).

As mentioned above, Oxford's (1990) classification system provides the most comprehensive model of language learning strategies, and the SILL based on this model has been widely used by researchers around the world.

Research on Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

The SILL was originally designed by Oxford (1986) for the U.S. Defense Language Institute to determine the impact of learning strategies on language proficiency among military personnel. Later, this instrument was broken into two surveys: version 7.0, a 50-item questionnaire for students learning English as second language (L2), and version 5.1, an 80-item questionnaire for English-speakers who learn a WL. The researcher chose to employ the simplified 50-question version of the SILL to be administered for the current study considering the time participants are willing to spend on the questionnaire and repeated nature of some of the questions on 80-item questionnaire.

Multiple studies have been conducted using the SILL with students learning English as an L2 in many countries of the world, including China (Yang, 1992), Iran (Ghavamnia, Kassaian & Dabaghi, 2011), Japan (Watanabe, 1990), Korea (Park, 1997),

the U.S. (Phillips, 1990) and also with the English-speakers learning Arabic (Saleh, 1999), Italian (Sanders, 2004), Japanese (Mori, 2007), Korean (Murray, 2010), Spanish (Peterson, 1997), Portuguese, French, Italian, and Romanian (Flemens, 2009). In fact, Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) estimated that approximately, 9000 language learners were involved in about 50 studies with the SILL all over the world. However, at present, there are no studies found that have used the SILL to survey teachers rather than learners.

### Strategies for Teaching Spanish-speaking Students

Teachers, parents, school administrators, and policy makers have been struggling for generations to find the best way to teach language to both children and adults. In fact, one method that works well for educating diverse students effectively does not exist and a one-size-fits-all approach fails to meet the needs of bilingual students due to the diverse nature of this student group. In essence, the best practices for teaching any monolingual student should work well with the speakers of multiple languages (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, & Rivera, 2006; Gay, 2010; Peske & Haycock, 2006) even though bilingual students have their own unique needs and challenges.

Teaching French language to students whose primary home language is Spanish is a challenging task that requires WL teachers to have an understanding of the principles of both L2 and L3 theories as well as approaches to teaching bilingual and heritage speakers in addition to the pedagogical methods and techniques for teaching diverse students. Researchers have defined two major strengths of multilingual students that WL teacher may tap into: (1) cross-linguistic knowledge (Cenoz, 2000) and (2) metalinguistic awareness (Jessner, 2008; Thomas, 1988), which distinguishes speakers of multiple languages from monolingual learners. Recently, de la Fuente and Lacroix (2015)

proposed several practical suggestions for WL teachers that can be summarized as followings:

- Encourage multilingual students to look for similarities between languages and reactivate their prior linguistic knowledge.
- Use contrastive analysis to address differences between languages and avoid negative transfer, especially in languages from the same language group.
- Allow multilingual students to act as “languages experts,” explaining and illustrating similarities and differences between languages to their classmates to promote motivation and improve self-image.
- Advise students to reflect upon their previous language learning experience and reapply strategies they used in the past to new learning situations.

Given these points, that best practice for teaching an L3 is in the combination of cultural responsiveness (Gay, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 2006; Villegas & Lucas, 2002), linguistic sensitivity (Villegas & Lucas, 2002), strategy training (Oxford, 1990; Richards & Rogers, 1986), and activation of metalinguistic awareness (De Angelis, 2011; Jessner, 2008; Thomas, 1988). Exploring and analyzing these strategies might help bring effective instruction to linguistically diverse WL classrooms and improve language teaching practices.

ACTFL World-Readiness Standards and CAEP/InTASC Teacher Preparation Guidelines

Whereas the importance of using students’ linguistic backgrounds to their advantage and positive effect of SI on language production has been confirmed by research results (Bialystok, 2001; Bild & Swain, 1989; Cenoz, 2000; Oxford, 1990; Thomas, 1988), teacher training programs in the U.S. should prepare preservice WL



teachers to educate heterogeneous groups of monolingual and multilingual language learners equally well. At present, teacher education programs are held accountable by various stakeholders, including the U.S. Department of Education, state boards of education, university and college boards, accreditation agencies, potential employers and administrators, and even future students and their families. The main document that defines content knowledge for preservice teachers is the ACTFL/CAEP Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers designed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and adopted by the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP) and the Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC) that regulate teacher preparation programs.

The Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers (ACTFL, 2015a) contains five principles: (a) The Learner and Learning, (b) Content, (c) Instructional Practice, and (d) Professional Responsibility which are aligned with six ACTFL standards for professional preparation of WL educators. In addition to this document, ACTFL (2015b) also designed the World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages, which WL teachers adhere to in their own classes. The World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages consist of five goals that are called the 5 C's: Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities, which include 11 standards associated with the goals. The area of Communication, which includes the ability to communicate in real life situations in TL, is broken down into three modes: Interpretive, Interpersonal, and Presentational. The Cultures area defines how students should gain knowledge and understanding of other cultures. The area of Connections is where students learn to relate multiple disciplines in school and outside. Comparisons

area is probably the most important in the framework of the present study as it allows comparing and contrasting cultures and languages, such as: L1 and L2, and in case of Spanish-speaking students, comparing Spanish to French as L3 and vice versa. Lastly, the area of Communities includes learning opportunities for the students to participate in multilingual activities inside and outside the classroom to develop global citizenship skills.

Even though the development and implementation of the Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers (ACTFL, 2015a) and the World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages (ACTFL, 2015b) has been a much needed change, their impact has been limited (Byrd, Hlas, Watzke, & Valencia, 2011; Magnan, Murphy, Sahakyan, & Suyeon, 2012). As Abbott and Phillips (2011) reported in their study titled *A Decade of Foreign Language Standards*, the greatest challenges in full implementation of the standards were budget, time, and teacher turn-over. A separate concern on teacher preparation programs has been expressed, when in 2011 only 56% of the new teachers were familiar with standards as judged by district supervisors (Abbott & Phillips, 2011). In addition to better familiarity with the standards, recommendations are provided for better use of technology and local heritage linguistic resources to promote higher language competence (Abbott, Feal, & Looney, 2014).

#### *The Georgia Performance Standards for Modern Languages*

In July 2007, the Georgia Department of Education released the Georgia Performance Standards for Modern Languages (GPS) that are based on Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL) Performance Guidelines for K-12 Learners

(Georgia Department of Education, 2007). These performance standards include assessment recommendations and a list of suggested skills and topics for each level of study. Even though the GPS integrate the national standards and partially align with ACTFL's standards, they require continuous update. It is also important to add that Georgia Department of Education does not have a state-wide assessment for WL at K-12 level, and WLs are not included in graduation requirement.

As shown above, higher education institutions are challenged to prepare qualified teacher graduates based on the Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers (ACTFL, 2015a) while facing changing curriculum and student demographics. However, it is presently unclear how teacher training programs deliver strategy training and differentiate between FL, L2, and L3. Thus, this study has the potential to uncover what types of strategies are used in class with L3 learners and what training was received by French teachers on teaching bilingual and Spanish-speaking students a third Romance language.

In summary, Spanish-speaking students who learn a third Romance language (French) should have advantages over monolingual language learners for the following reasons: (1) they can rely on two language systems instead of one (Cenoz, 2000), (2) they have a better understanding of how languages work (Bialystok, 2001; Muñoz, 2000; Sanz, 2000), (3) they have more tools and strategies to apply to L3 acquisition (Bialystok & Codd, 1997; Clarkson 2006), (4) they have developed a repertoire of language learning strategies and metalinguistic awareness (Thomas, 1988), and (5) they have improved cognitive control, mathematical skills, problem-solving, creative thinking, better developed empathy, and conceptual transfer (Bialystok, 2001; Cenoz, 2000; Muñoz,

2000; Sanz, 2000).

At the same time, research has shown that SI improves language performance when explicitly taught to students (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Cohen, 1998; Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford, 1996). Meanwhile, language learning strategy use has been only investigated from the student perspective and not from that of the teacher. Therefore, by investigating the SI used by WL teachers with their Spanish-speaking students as well as examining teachers' opinions on how they were prepared to teach this student population, this study has the potential to fill a gap in the present body of knowledge on L3 instruction and strategy use and expand what is currently known about L3 teaching in the U.S.

Chapter III  
METHODOLOGY  
Introduction

This chapter provides a description of the procedures that were used to examine French Language teachers' use of strategies when teaching Spanish-speaking students a third language (L3) in Georgia. The following research questions were addressed in the present study:

1. What types of strategies (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social) do French teachers report using with third language learners of French who are native or heritage speakers of Spanish?
2. What type of training do French language teachers report receiving during their teacher preparation programs on strategy instruction and language learning strategy use for teaching Spanish-speaking students a third language?

The research design, the participants, population, sampling, and the instruments used in this study are described in this chapter. Additionally, the data collection methods and procedures, that were used to answer the research questions, are presented.

Research Design and Rationale

This study employed a non-experimental qualitative grounded theory research method. A qualitative method of research was chosen because of its inductive approach and emphasis on specific people and/or situations (Maxwell, 2013) that allows researchers to collect and interpret data rich in details and in this case embedded in the

teaching context. There is limited research on what pedagogical strategies are used by instructors when teaching an L3 to students who are native or heritage speakers of Spanish. This study investigated and analyzed the reported strategies used and training of French teachers in an attempt to add to the understanding of approaches currently being used.

Grounded theory was chosen for this research to generate a theory in the process of data collection and behavior analysis. According to Glaser and Strauss (1967), the goal of grounded theory is to connect research and theory to explain social processes and behavior directly from data. Grounded theory is a systematic, naturalistic, bottom-up research approach that requires data collection through field research, such as interviews with open-ended questions, informal observation, conversation, and document review. The researcher planned to derive theory from systematic comparative analysis of data and did not have a preconceived hypothesis in mind, prior to conducting the research. These grounded theory stages were followed: collecting data, taking notes, coding data, taking analytic memos, developing a theoretical outline, and writing the theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

The grounded theory approach was chosen based on the fact that the researcher desired to explore how French teachers use language strategies with Spanish-speaking students with the intent to develop a theory explaining the reality of the participants being studied. Considering the types of research questions together with the purpose of this study and recognizing the advantages of the constant comparative method of qualitative research, it was chosen as the most appropriate approach to find the answers to the research questions.

## Population and Sample

The state of Georgia contains 181 school districts with over 2,200 schools (Georgia Department of Education, 2017). The largest school districts are located in urban and suburban areas surrounding the capital city of Atlanta. Given that the target population of this study consisted of all high school French language teachers in the state, the participants varied in their educational and cultural backgrounds, level of education, cultural and linguistic exposure, and years of teaching experience. According to Maxwell (2013), the main goal of grounded theory is to collect relevant information from an adequate population based on purposeful sampling. Thus, the researcher has determined that all high school French language teachers in Georgia could be an appropriate population for this study.

In addition, Glaser and Strauss (1967) suggested using theory-based sampling, where researchers select the first group of participants based on initial understanding of a phenomenon or event. After emerging categories are developed, researchers go back to the field to collect more data from the next group of purposefully selected participants. This iterative sampling process is an important component of developing theory that is grounded in real life events. Taking this into account, the participants of the study were selected from all French teachers who were working in school systems in Georgia in 2017-2018 school year, because they had firsthand knowledge of the World Language (WL) classrooms' realities.

The Georgia Department of Education provides data reports detailing the roster of high school French language teachers by online request. The original 2017-2018 list contained 440 teacher names, however the researcher eliminated classes with less than 10

students because of insufficient data as the possibility that the names listed as primary teachers could be the facilitators of Georgia Virtual School. The final list of French language teachers in 2017-2018 school year is listed in Appendix A. For the purpose of the present study, the researcher needed to find French teachers who have experience teaching Spanish-speaking students, seeking data from the counties with significant percentage of Hispanic population where French programs are available. As Maxwell (2013) demonstrated, the researcher's goal is not to generalize from a sample to a larger population, but to describe, explain, and interpret a social phenomenon or an event. Thus, the researcher did not seek to obtain representative opinions on L3 instructions, but rather to develop a rich, thorough understanding of teacher perspectives across each area.

#### Instruments and Measures

The following instruments and measures were employed in the present study: Oxford's (1990) modified Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) survey (see Appendix B), the Teacher Background Questionnaire (see Appendix C), and open-ended interviews (see Appendix D). After the Institution Review Board Approval was received (see Appendix E), the researcher used the roster of French teachers obtained from the Georgia Department of Education to gather responses from all French teachers in Georgia. In the first phase of the research, the SILL survey together with the background questionnaire were emailed to 266 educators, inviting them to participate in the research. Permission to use SILL was granted by Dr. Oxford (see Appendix F). The collected data were used to examine the number of Spanish-speaking students taking French as a WL class and to identify the possible participants for the second phase of the research, where the selected teachers were invited to participate in open-ended interviews. After the first



round of emails, the researcher sent additional emails to increase the number of participating teachers. Finally, 119 high school teachers agreed to participate in the research and signed a consent form prior to completing the survey.

After the data were gathered from one hundred participants, who fully finished the survey, the responses were coded, the researcher selected 10 participants from the first survey responders for the follow-up interviews. The choice was based on the reported number of Spanish-speaking students in French classes, teachers' willingness to participate in the follow-up interviews, and overall years of teaching experience.

Thus, the results of the first stage drove subsequent sampling for the second stage of the research, open-ended interviews. The researcher contacted the selected educators and invited them to answer open-ended questions on types of strategies used with L3 learners of French and teacher training experiences in teaching bilingual students. The initially proposed interview questions can be found in Appendix D; however, some of the questions were changed during the interviews based on participants' responses and themes identified during the analysis. The participants' answers were later coded and analyzed until a strong theoretical understanding emerged.

#### *Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)*

The SILL is a self-report questionnaire that uses a five-point Likert-scale system for each strategy ranging from 1 to 5 (1- never or almost never true of me, 2 - generally not true of me, 3 - somewhat true of me, 4 - generally true of me, and 5 - always or almost always true of me). All items in the questionnaire are grouped into six learning strategy categories: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and

social. Moreover, as shown in Table 3, the questions applicable to bilingual language learners are identified in three categories.

Table 3

*Composition of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning*

Category	Strategies	Questions	Questions Geared Towards Spanish-speaking Learners
Memory	Creating mental linkages	1-9	1, 3, 5
	Applying images and sounds		
Cognitive	Reviewing well	10-23	19, 20, 21, 22
	Employing action		
	Practicing		
	Receiving and sending messages		
Compensation	Analyzing and reasoning	24-29	24, 26, 29
	Creating structure for input and output		
Metacognitive	Guessing intelligently	30-38	NA
	Overcoming limitations		
Affective	Centering learning	39-44	NA
	Arranging and planning learning		
Social	Evaluating learning	45-50	NA
	Lowering anxiety		
	Encouraging		
	Taking emotional temperature		
	Asking questions		
	Cooperating with others		
	Empathizing with others		

*Follow-up Interviews*

After the first phase of the data collection, for which French language teachers completed the survey on language learning strategies used in class, the smaller group of participants was selected for the follow-up interviews based on the response rate and the number of Spanish-speaking L3 learners in their French classes. During this second phase of the data collection, the teachers were interviewed by phone on their own language learning experience and strategy training instruction received in college or as a

part of professional development. The participants who indicated experience teaching Spanish-speaking L3 learners were asked questions geared specifically towards Spanish-speaking learners, focusing on memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies used in the classrooms and teachers' experience with both bilingual and monolingual WL learners. Interviews elucidated responses to the SILL survey to further develop insight into how instructors may connect theory to practices in WL classrooms. Overall, the interview questions covered teacher experiences with Spanish-speaking L3 learners and teacher training experiences. Thus, the survey results and interview data furthered understanding of the phenomena and helped answer the research questions on language learning strategies applied in L3 teaching.

#### Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

The validity and reliability of these constructs were measured by triangulation between the methods of data collection. This practice of triangulation from several different sources can help researchers to facilitate deeper understanding of constructs being investigated (Creswell, 2003; Patton, 1999). Denzin (1978) and Patton (1999) named four types of triangulation: (a) methods triangulation, which involves different approaches and methods of data collection; (b) triangulation of sources, which refers to examination of different data samples within the same method; (c) analyst triangulation, which engages several researchers to gather, review, and analyze data; and (d) theory or perspective triangulation, which requires the use of several perspectives or theories to study and reflect on the data.

In this study, the three different methods of data collection served to inform and support each other; the responses from the questionnaire provided themes for interview

questions. According to Creswell (2003), this type of triangulation strengthens the narrative. Though, Patton (1999) warned that various kinds of data can generate diverse results because “different types of inquiry are sensitive to different real-world nuances” (p. 1193), the researcher hoped to identify common patterns in teachers’ responses to find additional aspects of L3 acquisition by Spanish-speaking students. Furthermore, peer checks were performed to strengthen the validity of the present research (Spall, 1998). After data was collected and initial patterns were identified, two colleagues read the interview transcripts and created the separate codes to validate conclusions drawn by the researcher.

Both versions of the SILL, 7.0 and 5.1, were field-tested for validity and reliability, with the Cronbach's alpha being above 0.90 (Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995). According to Oxford (1999), the following types of validity were tested for both versions of the SILL: concurrent validity, content validity, and social desirability response bias. In order to demonstrate concurrent validity, the SILL was compared with the most relevant test of a similar kind, such as the Learning and Study Strategy Inventory, the Modern Language Aptitude Test, the Learning Style Profile, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, the Style Analysis Survey, and the Affective Survey. As a result, the SILL was shown to have significant correlations with these tests (Dreyer & Oxford, 1996; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995). To demonstrate content validity, independent strategy experts matched SILL questions with taxonomy items with 99% correspondence (Oxford, 1990). With the help of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, designed to measure whether participant responses to survey questions truthfully represented their beliefs and experiences or misrepresent themselves to

improve their self-presentation, Yang (1992) asserted that social desirability bias was avoided in the SILL questionnaires.

### *Reporter Bias*

The possible validity issues related to this study could be participants' reactivity and desire to please. As Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) warned, people do not always answer truthfully about themselves, tending to provide the answers that they perceive as acceptable, desirable, and expected. Participants might claim that they read more than they do, donate more money than they do, spend more time with their children than actually do (Oppenheim, 1992). Keeping researcher memos and reflecting regularly on researcher involvement and expectations helped explain and understand the bias rather than eliminate it (Maxwell, 2013). In addition, conducting interviews by phone may decrease participants' reactivity or the influence of the researcher on the interview situation. Given that the French teachers who were selected for the second phase of the study do not know the researcher and their performance or evaluation did not depend on the results of the study, they were not forced or tempted to please the researcher. On the other hand, establishing a professional yet trustworthy researcher-participant relationship is also a key to successful interview. Long-term involvement with the participants (October through June) helped the researcher build an atmosphere of trust and gain better understanding of the issue.

### *Researcher Bias*

As defined by Maxwell (2013), the researcher bias is the subjectivity of researchers, which leads them to select data that fits their existing theory and goals. Given that it is impossible to eliminate the researcher's theories and beliefs, the key to

avoid this bias is to understand how these values and expectations affect the process and the conclusions of the study. The author of this research study is a trilingual WL educator who learned English and French languages in both academic and informal settings. Being raised in a monolingual environment and learning WLs in school and college while travelling and working abroad allowed the researcher to receive firsthand knowledge and experience on language learning and acquisition. Currently, the researcher teaches French and Russian language courses ranging from beginning to advanced levels in a public high school in Forsyth County, Georgia. While these personal experiences informed the researcher's interest in the purpose of the study, they may also pose potential questions regarding the validity of the research. In order to minimize the researcher bias and strengthen the research results, two fellow doctoral candidates examined the interview transcripts without seeing the codes generated by the researcher. Later, the interpretive results were compared to ensure inter-rater reliability.

#### Data Collection Procedures

The present study employed the constant comparative research method to investigate the strategies used by French teachers. In the first phase of the research, the modified Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) survey was used (see Appendix B) together with the background questionnaire (see Appendix C). In the second phase of the study, the selected teachers were invited to participate in open-ended interviews (see Appendix D for the preliminary list of interview questions).

The SILL instrument was sent to all high school French language teachers in Georgia to maximize the number of participants. The invitation to participate included a cover letter that explained the research and the link to the online survey. Online survey

data were collected via Qualtrics (Qualtrics, Provo, UT). Despite being low cost and not time consuming, electronic online surveys can produce a lower response rate as compared to traditional mail surveys (Paolo, A. M., Bonaminio, G. A., Gibson, C., Partridge, T., & Kallail, K., 2000). In the past, response rates of online surveys ranged from 8% to 18% (Couper, Blair, & Triplett, 1999; Hardigan, Succar, & Fleisher, 2012; Sheehan, 2001). The following factors may contribute to increased response rates: the survey design and its user friendliness, the length of the instrument, the importance of the survey topic to the participants, the type and number of communications with the potential responders, offering a choice of electronic or paper and pencil surveys, and the computer savviness of the participants (Kiernan, N., Kiernan, M., Oyler, M. A., & Gilles, C., 2005; McCabe, 2004; Schonlau, Fricker, & Elliott, 2002). Given that the topic of Romance language acquisition would be considered as valuable to the French teachers, the researcher anticipated receiving more than 10% response rate in the present study. Indeed, 119 out of 266 teachers contacted via e-mail agreed to participate and signed a consent form prior to completing the survey, which makes 44.74% response rate. One hundred of those 119 participants completed the survey, and the researcher selected 10 interview participants from the first survey responders based on their experience teaching Spanish-speaking students.

The participants who claimed having experience teaching French as an L3 to Spanish-speaking students were selected for the follow-up interviews, and they were allowed to discontinue their participation at any time in the research process. The sequential nature of the design suggested the use of potential questions related to possible responses regarding pedagogical experiences and strategies teaching Spanish-speaking

students a third romance language (French) and teacher training experiences as related to teaching French as an L3. Partially-structured interviews allowed the researcher to gather in-depth information about individual teacher practices and thus enable the researcher to probe and invite participants to expand upon their responses in order to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomena that is not accessible through online surveys. Though the set of preliminary questions is documented (see Appendix C), the partially-structured interview is an evolving process that allows the researcher and participants to pursue themes that may arise during the conversation (Holstein & Gubrium, 1995).

All interviews were conducted over the phone and/or by Skype and were recorded. Audio files were later transcribed by the researcher and are currently kept in a safe, password protected location. They will be deleted after 3 years. Interview data were analyzed using the grounded theory approach, where multiple themes emerge through careful and repeated data reviews. The researcher read the interview transcripts multiple times and coded emerging themes in appropriate categories. This iterative process elucidated more categories of interest based on responses and allowed the researcher to further explore participant perspectives, determining detailed points of analysis.

#### *Consent procedures and confidentiality*

Throughout the study, the researcher maintained participants' confidentiality. The SILL survey was answered anonymously, and further inquiries were kept confidential. The consent statement was read aloud to each participant at the start of the recorded interviews. No private identifiable information was gathered in subsequent steps, and no real names were used in this dissertation as all participants were assigned



numbers. The digital files with the interviews were reviewed and transcribed by the researcher alone, and no one else saw, heard, or had access to the recordings. All artifacts and recordings are to be destroyed in 3 years after this study is complete per IRB requirements.

### Data Analysis and Coding

Data collected from the interviews (audio recordings and researcher notes) were transcribed, coded, and entered into a table for each participant. Using the constant comparative method, coding was performed at three levels: open, axial, and selective (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Open codes reduced data volume into manageable chunks and key phrases were included in codes for analysis. The process of rereading the transcripts, then finding and revising codes was repeated several times. Lines, sentences, and paragraphs were examined for new codes and concepts using the inductive approach, and codes were merged into categories, themes, and subthemes. Axial coding gave a wider perspective through identification of conceptual connections between these themes and categories. Subsequently, selective coding helped select themes that were present in all data elements to begin creating an emerging theory.

## Chapter IV

### RESULTS

#### Introduction

The purpose of this research study was to examine high school French language teachers' use of strategies when teaching students who are native or heritage speakers of Spanish; more specifically, whether these strategies are research-based practices and what strategy instruction training teachers received. This chapter describes the results of this study, including data analysis from online surveys results and semi-structured interviews. The teachers' responses were interpreted as a whole, and then a holistic analysis was conducted with respect to the participants experienced in teaching Spanish-speaking students. The teachers' responses were compared to determine if there were any similarities as well as differences between their responses. The chapter concludes with a theory of teacher interaction with Spanish-speaking students when teaching French as a third language (L3).

#### Research Questions

This qualitative study began with two research questions designed to explore the phenomenon and generate substantive theory regarding French language teachers' experiences when teaching native or heritage speakers of Spanish an L3:

1. What types of strategies (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social) do French teachers report using with third language learners of French who are native or heritage speakers of Spanish?

2. What type of training do French language teachers report receiving during their teacher preparation programs on strategy instruction and language learning strategy use for teaching Spanish-speaking students a third language?

#### Participant Demographics

An initial theory-based sample of 304 high school French language teachers in Georgia was selected from the data report roster obtained from the Georgia Department of Education. The original 2017-2018 list contained 440 entries under teacher names category; however, the researcher eliminated entries with fewer than 10 students per class due to insufficient data. Additionally, teachers' names such as: Academy, APEX, Columbus Univ, E-learn, GA virtual school, and Virtual High School were excluded from the research due to the possibility that the names listed as primary teachers could be the facilitators of Georgia Virtual School, and online courses were not the focus of the present study. As the next step, the websites of all high schools listed in the report were researched and emails were obtained for 266 participants. The researcher contacted all 266 participants by email, inviting them to participate in the study; 119 high school teachers agreed to participate in the research and signed a consent form prior to completing the survey. One hundred of those 119 participants fully finished the survey, and the researcher selected 10 interview participants, based on the responders' experience teaching Spanish-speaking students, willingness to participate in the follow-up interviews, and overall years of teaching experience.

The demographic data collected on the survey participants included gender, age, race/ethnicity, educational background, languages taught by the participants, number of years teaching French language, and overall teaching experience is presented in Table 4.

Table 4

*Participant Background Information from the Survey*

		Survey <i>N</i> = 100	Interview <i>n</i> = 10
Gender	Female %	77.0	60.0
	Male%	23.0	40.0
Age group %	21-30	11	10
	31-40	14	40
	41-50	38	30
	51+	37	20
Race/ethnicity	White %	79	90
	Black %	14	10
Hispanic or Latino	Yes %	1	0
	No %	99	100
Education	Bachelor's %	23	10
	Master's %	56	70
	Specialist %	17	20
	Doctorate %	4	0
Languages taught	French %	100	100
	Spanish %	7	1
	German %	1	0
	Italian %	1	1
	Latin %	5	0
French language teaching experience in years	Mean	14.6	13.2
	<i>SD</i>	8.3	9.2
Overall teaching experience in years	Mean		
	<i>SD</i>	16.1	14.0
		8.1	9.0
Spanish-speaking students in French classes	Yes %	95	90
	No %	5	10

As shown in Table 4, there were 77 females (77.0%) and 23 males (23.0%). Participants ranged in age from 21 to more than 51. All of the participants taught French as a World

Language (WL) course in Georgia public high schools, but 7 participants (7.0%) also taught Spanish, one participant (1.0%) taught German, one participant (1.0%) taught Italian, and five participants (5.0%) taught Latin. With respect to the number of years of teaching experience, participants ranged from 1 to 34, with a mean of 14.6 years and a standard deviation of 8.3. Regarding experience teaching Spanish-speaking students, 95 participants (95.0%) indicated that they had Spanish-speakers in their French classes.

### Participant Interviews

From the first survey responders, the researcher selected 10 interview participants. Eight of the 10 interviews were conducted via telephone. One was done over Skype, and one participant preferred to answer the interview questions in written form. The length of the interviews was usually between 30 and 60 minutes, though two phone conversations took more than 2 hours. All telephone conversations were recorded with Google Voice application and were later transcribed by the researcher. Two participants were cut off during the interviews due to reception issues, but the connection was reestablished, and the interviews were completed. However, the flow of these interviews was interrupted, and the participants' responses may have been affected by these technical issues. A few respondents agreed to participate in the interview while shopping and doing other household chores, and those interviews were lacking rich discussions and personal stories due to the participants' multi-tasking. But overall, the teachers participated in the research voluntarily and seemed to share their practices and perceptions eagerly.

Of those 10 interview participants, six were females (60.0%) and four were males (40.0%). Participants ranged in age from 21 to more than 51; none of the interview participants (0.0%) identified themselves as Hispanic or Latino, though one survey

participant self-identified as Hispanic, but did not consent to the follow-up interview after the survey. All of the interview participants teach French, one participant (1.0%) also taught Spanish, and one participant (1.0%) taught Italian. With respect to the number of years of teaching experience, participants ranged from 2 to 32, with a mean of 14.0 years and a standard deviation of 9.0. Regarding experience teaching Spanish-speaking students, 9 participants (90.0%) indicated that they had Spanish-speakers in their French classes at the time of the interview, with three participants (30.0%) having more than 50% of Spanish-speaking students enrolled in French course. Table 5 provides the interview participants background information.

Table 5

*Interview Participants*

Participant	Age group	Sex	French teaching experience in years	Number of Spanish-speakers in French classes	Training received
1	21-30	Female	2	more than 50%	Yes
2	41-50	Male	10	21-50%	No
3	31-40	Male	11	6-20%	No
4	51+	Male	32	6-20%	Yes
5	31-40	Male	3	more than 50%	No
6	31-40	Female	10	0%	No
7	51+	Female	25	less than 5%	Yes
8	31-40	Female	7	more than 50%	No
9	41-50	Female	21	21-50%	Yes
10	41-50	Female	11	6-20%	No

The study, which was conducted in two stages, allowed the researcher to investigate teachers' practices when teaching Spanish-speaking students an L3 from different angles. The survey responses collected in the first stage provided the starting point of the interview discussion. When the participants had difficulty providing specific examples of strategy use in their classrooms, or could not add details to their responses,

the researcher read a particular statement from the survey, asking the interviewee to elaborate. Therefore, quoting the survey statements helped move discussion further and facilitated detailed conversations.

### Data Analysis

Two phases of data collection and data analysis were performed in this research. In the first phase of the research, the modified Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) survey was used together with the background questionnaire, followed by open-ended interviews in the second phase. Thus, two stages of data analysis will be described in this section, descriptive analyses of the surveys, and the interview findings.

#### Descriptive analyses of the SILL.

The teachers reported using a variety of strategies, with some being employed more frequently than others. In Table 6, the participants' responses are organized into six categories (cognitive, metacognitive, social, affective, compensation, and affective). Based on the reporting scale established by Oxford (1990), the average scores were divided into three levels of usage: high, medium, and low, with the mean score above 3.5 on any SILL question to reflect high use of a given strategy, 2.5 to 3.4 to indicate medium use, and below 2.4 to demonstrate low use of a strategy (Oxford, 1990). The survey participants reported overall high strategy use ( $M = 3.91$ ) with the cognitive strategies, which were the most frequently used ( $M = 4.13$ ). However, it is insufficient to report the overall strategy use because the French teachers apply these strategies to all students. As the purpose of the present dissertation is to investigate the types of strategies used with L3 learners of French who are native or heritage speakers of Spanish, the researcher separated the questions geared towards Spanish-speaking students from the

general questions addressing strategies used with all language learners. As can be seen from Table 6, the strategies used with the L3 learners have a slightly higher overall frequency rate ( $M = 4.12$ ). Specific strategies used when teaching Spanish-speaking students French as an L3 were explored further in the interview analysis section.

Table 6

*Overall Strategy Use Reported*

SILL questions	$M$ $N = 100$	$SD$	Questions Geared Towards Spanish speakers	$M$ $N = 100$	$SD$
Memory category questions 1-9	3.98	1.10	1 3 5	4.84 4.29 3.25	0.37 0.89 1.22
Cognitive category questions 10-23	4.13	1.10	19 20 21 22	4.73 4.6 4.17 4.68	0.55 0.79 0.97 0.72
Compensation category questions 24-29	3.54	1.26	24 26 29	4.54 2.02 4.16	0.59 0.98 0.8
Metacognitive category questions 30-38	4.01	0.98	NA		
Affective category questions 39-44	3.52	1.49	NA		
Social category questions 45-50	3.9	1.15	NA		

*The most and the least frequently used strategy items.*

In order to understand which strategy items were the most and least preferred by the French teachers, reported frequencies of individual strategy use were calculated. Tables 7 and 8 present the five most and the five least used strategies reported by the research participants with the respective mean, and the strategy category.



Table 7

*Five Most Used Strategies Reported*

Strategy Number	Strategy Description	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Strategy Category
1	Connect new material with old knowledge	4.84	0.37	Memory
40	Encourage speaking despite fear	4.78	0.44	Affective
19	Provide cognates to teach similarities	4.73	0.55	Cognitive
22	Avoid word-for-word translation	4.68	0.72	Cognitive
39	Help relax when anxious	4.63	0.59	Affective

As the results demonstrate, the most frequently used memory strategy used by teachers was creating relationships, (item 1) for which the mean use was 4.84 (*SD* 0.37), considered high use. Two affective strategies (item 40 and item 39) and two cognitive strategies (item 19 and item 22) are also shown among the top five favorite individual strategies reported. These strategies covered encouraging students and lowering their anxiety level, using cognates, and avoiding literal translation.

Table 8

*Five Least Used Strategies Reported*

Strategy Number	Strategy Description	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Strategy Category
26	Make up new words	2.02	0.98	Compensation
44	Talk about feelings when learning French	2.05	1.13	Affective
43	Keep a language learning diary	2.05	1.13	Affective
46	Ask French speakers to correct mistakes	2.56	1.28	Social
28	Predict what will be said next in French	2.97	1.02	Compensation

The least frequently used strategy item reported by the French teachers is the compensation strategy (item 26), *I advise students to make up new words if they do not know the right ones in French*, which had a mean use of 2.02 (*SD* 0.98), which is at the high end of the low use. The other four strategies that were among the least preferred by the participants are two affective strategies (item 44 and item 43), one social (item 46)

and one compensation strategy (item 28). These strategies referred to expressing feelings of anxiety, asking French-speakers for corrections, and guessing.

With regard to training received during teacher preparation programs on strategy instruction and language learning strategy use for teaching Spanish-speaking students an L3, most of the teachers, 63.0% ( $N = 100$ ) claimed that such training was never received, as shown in Table 9. However, many participants, 43.0% ( $N = 100$ ) stated that they received professional development training, such as conferences, seminars, workshops and/or faculty meetings, concerning teaching bilingual or heritage speakers in the past 2 years. Yet, the nature of this training and its effectiveness is unclear, and this question can be explored in further studies.

Table 9

*Participants' Training and Professional Development Related to Teaching Bilingual Students*

Type of training received	Survey $N = 100$	Interview $n=10$
Teacher preparation	37.0 %	40.0%
Professional development	43.0%	60.0%

Interview findings

*Open Coding*

Data collected from the interviews (audio recordings and researcher notes) were transcribed, coded, and entered into a table for each participant. The constant comparative process started with the first interview that was studied closely for emerging topics and underlying connections, when the researcher began transcribing and analyzing the data from the first interview prior to the completion of all 10 interviews. After the second interview, the researcher compared her own notes and both of the interview

transcripts for similar elements and connections between them. Open coding was repeated after each interview recording and key phrases and concepts were included in codes for analysis. The process of rereading each transcript followed by creating and revising the codes was repeated multiple times. While working on the transcriptions, the researcher kept a reflective journal that helped shape further interview themes as new concepts and meanings emerged from data and reflections. After all 10 interviews were conducted, transcribed, and coded, the key words and phrases were identified from the participants' data, and entered into Table 10, which is shown in summary after the discussion of all coding procedures.

Rereading data multiple times and examining discussions of interactions between French teachers and their Spanish-speaking students helped the researcher develop broader categories that cut across the data. A series of key phrases and concepts were moved together as the codes were collapsed to develop an understanding of the relationship between codes, categories, and themes (Creswell, 2003). For example, key phrases such as “they [Spanish-speaking students] have an easier time understanding,” “they’re more willing to speak compared to the Anglophones,” and “they are actually probably my highest achieving group” became a part of the benefits category, which itself became part of the Spanish-speaking Student Identity theme. Similarly, fragments like “I lower their affective filter,” “I can kind of guide them in making the connection between the Romance languages,” “I know enough Spanish so I can relate” turned into a teacher actions category, a branch of a larger theme that emerged and later was titled a Teacher Role theme (see Table 10). As the lines, sentences, and paragraphs were examined for new codes and concepts using the inductive approach, codes were merged

into categories and themes. Additionally, all codes that seemed to be dissimilar were grouped together for further study.

### *Axial Coding*

Strauss (1987) referred to the term of axial coding as further coding within each category that involves investigation of social phenomenon and other conditions and relations among participants relating to the who, what, when, where, and why of the category. However, open and axial coding is not a strictly sequential process, as both proceed simultaneously with data collection, reflection, analysis, and theory building.

The following seven categories were formed during the coding process:

1. benefits
2. struggles
3. Frespañol (The term Frespañol is composed of *français* [French] and *español* [Spanish], which is used to describe a combination of French and Spanish languages, similar to Spanglish.)
4. teachers' own knowledge of Spanish
5. teacher training
6. teacher actions
7. culture

It is important to note that these categories overlap, and no clear borderline can be drawn between them. For example, when teachers talked about the benefits of Spanish-speaking students, they mentioned several indicators of the *Frespañol* category, and student struggles naturally led to teacher actions to help them overcome these struggles.

As the researcher worked through axial coding, three themes emerged from the

process:

1. Spanish-speaking Student Identity
2. Language and culture
3. Teacher Role

*Selective coding*

At the final level of coding, selective coding, defined by Strauss and Corbin (1990) as “the process of selecting the central or core category, systematically relating it to other categories, validating those relationships, and filling in categories that need further refinement and development” (p.116), the researcher connected and consolidated axial codes, identifying themes that thread through the data. Later, the codes were further refined to select a core category, Teacher Role, that became the focus of the current research study. Since the process of an L3 acquisition was investigated through the perspectives and experiences of the French language educators, the Teacher Role was established as the core category, with the other two categories, Language and Culture, and Spanish-speaking Student Identity being examined through teachers’ perspectives. Once the core category, Teacher Role, was established, the researcher was able to apply selective coding to determine the themes that were present in all data elements and create an emerging theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The core category became the focus of the study and dominated the process of theory generation. With the core category in mind, the researcher revised the codes that looked dissimilar in the first stage of data analysis in search of lost or missed meanings. It is important to add, that using the constant comparison method, the researcher constantly returned to the data, especially the

interviews, rereading the transcripts multiple times for the purpose of grounding the research in the data.

Table 10

*Codes, Categories, and Themes Summary*

Key Words and Phrases	Categories	Themes
willing to try	benefits	Spanish-speaking
group them aside	struggles	Student Identity
transfer knowledge from Spanish	Frespañol	Language and Culture
connection between languages	culture	Teacher Role
Spanish accent	teachers' own knowledge of	
pronunciation	Spanish	
see these connections	teacher training	
ESOL	teacher actions	
ELL		
recycle vocabulary		
similar sound		
willing to speak		
able to go back to Spanish		
-E on the end of a word		
days of the week		
-ER verbs		
patterns		
get them together		
noun genders		
masculine and feminine		
<i>tu</i> and <i>vous</i> [you]		
vocabulary		
motivated students		
cognates		
communicate in Spanish		
expressing age		
culture		
relate to Spanish		
easy verb conjugation		
articles		
adjectives		
comparison languages		
suppress their Spanish		
students teaching teachers		

## Identification of Emerging Categories

### *Benefits of Spanish-speaking students*

This category appeared in every participant response. As the purpose of this research was to examine participant practices when teaching Spanish-speaking students, every teacher shared their experiences dealing with bilingual students when teaching them as an L3. Nine out of 10 interview participants expressed highly positive experiences when teaching Spanish-speaking students. Teacher 3, for example, stated that “any Hispanic does very well in my class.” Likewise, Teacher 4 emphasized the knowledge of another Latin-based language that gives them “a leg up over the other students.” Teacher 2 even shared that as students’ progress through the sequence of French 1, 2, 3, and AP French, “by the time I get up into AP, I have no White English-speaking students, they all are Hispanic.”

Teachers described their Spanish-speakers as motivated and hard-working students with good memory skills. According to several participants, motivation comes from the positive experience of using two languages successfully, and good memory skills are formed by constantly practicing vocabulary in both English and Spanish. Teacher 10 made the following comment regarding her experience with Spanish-speaking students:

My experience is very positive. First of all, they tend to be very . . . and I don't know if this is a cultural thing, or if they are just this individual thing, but they tend to be very hard-working, very polite. They do anything you ask them to do, they put in a good effort. Sometimes they tend to be a little bit quiet. They are not usually the ones who are kind of bouncing off the wall, they tend to be a little

more reserved. And I don't know why that is, I don't know if that's a cultural thing, or if that's maybe just the individuals that I have, but they do tend to be very hard-working. Their parents tend to be very involved and very excited about them learning a third language.

However, Teacher 5 shared an opposite opinion on student work habits, stating that “they never learned good study skills” because of lower socioeconomic status and struggling households.

When describing the benefits of Spanish-speaking students, many participants mentioned that judging from their experiences, these students have an easier time understanding written and spoken French because they rely on cognates, they apply the grammar patterns of Spanish to French, and they feel more confident when speaking another language. Most of the teachers shared that verb conjugation “comes easy” and “makes more sense” to Spanish speakers who learn French as an L3. These types of learners also have less difficulty differentiating between masculine and feminine nouns because “they already have something in their brain to account for gender,” unlike their monolingual English-speaking counterparts. As the categories and themes overlap, many indicators of the student advantages and benefits were included in the *Frespañol* category. The indicators from the interviews that were relevant to the category of benefits are located in Appendix H.

#### *Struggles of Spanish-speaking students*

Half of the participating teachers talked about the struggles common to Spanish speakers, thus this category was derived from five of the 10 interviews (see Appendix I). One issue that several teachers mentioned was the pronunciation of French and how



Spanish-speaking students tend to have a Spanish accent when speaking French, though this accent generally is not noticeable in their English speech. However, one of the teachers commented “in general I don't find that their pronunciation is an obstacle to comprehension.” Besides general accented pronunciation, the teachers described students’ tendency to articulate (pronounce) the letter E at the end of a French word, which is common among many language learners of French, including Spanish speakers.

As previously mentioned, Teacher 5 talked explicitly about the struggles and challenges of home environments and students’ basic needs not being met, resulting in a lack of study skills and poor academic performance. Further investigation revealed that this teacher works in a Title 1 school with high percentages of children from low-income families, and the socio-demographic composition of this school is different from the rest of the participants’ schools. Nevertheless, the contribution of this teacher is very valuable for the present study, which attempted to collect comprehensive data on French teachers’ practices.

Among other challenges mentioned by the participants were specific examples of confusing French preposition *et* [and] with Spanish *y* [and], using *pour exemple* instead of *par exemple* [for example] as a result of Spanish *por ejemplo* [for example] influence, and wrong word order with direct object pronouns, when a French language learner incorrectly places direct object pronoun *le* [him] after the verb *aider* [help], instead of before the verb, as in *je peux l'aider* [I can help him]. While incorrect word order is a common struggle of many French language learners, regardless of their previous language knowledge, the first two examples are particular to Spanish-speakers only.

### *Frespañol*

The term *Frespañol* is composed of *français* [French] and *español* [Spanish], which is used to describe a combination of French and Spanish languages, similar to Spanglish, being a combination of Spanish and English. The elements of this category were evident in every participant response when teachers talked about similarities between French and Spanish languages and how these similarities help Spanish-speakers acquire the French language (see Appendix J). Many elements of this category can be attributed to either the student benefits category or the teacher actions category because features of participant interviews often overlapped between thematic centers.

Cognates (words with the same or similar spelling and meaning in both languages) were the most frequent indicator in every participant interview. As Teacher 3 stated, “if I say *la bibliothèque* [library] my Hispanic students are probably going to guess it means library because in Spanish it is also *biblioteca* [library].” Several other cognates were mentioned in different interviews, and overall, teachers rely on the use of English-French cognates by every language learner in their class. In addition to that, Spanish-speaking students also benefit from French-Spanish cognate use. Teacher 1 elaborated:

I think that the bilingual Spanish students definitely have a little bit more of an advantage because they can recognize the English cognates, but also the Spanish cognates. Whereas the monolingual English students they can recognize some like *orange* [an orange] but they have no idea what *champignon* [a mushroom] is because they have no prior knowledge about that.

Teacher 7 also mentioned the days of the week as another example of French-Spanish cognates that help Spanish-speakers acquire new language at a faster pace. Besides similar vocabulary, teachers find that the use of formal and casual language registers is easier for Spanish-speaking students because of their prior language knowledge. Terms of *tu* [you informal] and *vous* [you formal] in French correspond to *tú* [you informal] and *usted* [you formal] in Spanish, which makes formal and informal ways to address people apparent to Spanish-speakers, while monolingual students struggle to differentiate.

Grammar patterns, similar between French and Spanish, were the second most frequent indicator in all interviews. WL teachers notice analogous verb -ER and -IR conjugation, gender of the nouns, adjectives and articles, and direct object pronoun word order. Several teachers mentioned grammatical construction of expressing age that are comparable between the two languages. When a monolingual English-speaker strives to say “I am 15 years old” correctly, a Spanish-speaker uses *j'ai 15 ans* [I am 15 years old] effortlessly, as it is analogous to *yo tengo 15 años* [I am 15 years old] in Spanish. Even the capitalization rules for subject pronoun *je* [I] and *yo* [I] are similar in both French and Spanish. Some of these comparisons were already described in benefits category.

Interestingly, French teachers made these observations between French and Spanish languages sometimes without proper knowledge of Spanish themselves. Prior to conducting the interviews, the researcher did not plan to ask questions on teachers' proficiency in Spanish. However, after the first interviews were transcribed and analyzed and the topic of teachers' knowledge of Spanish emerged, several questions were added to the interview. This sparked the conversations on teachers' experiences learning WLS, including Spanish, and allowed the teachers to reflect on language similarities and the

teachers' part in showing these similarities to students, which later were included in the Teacher Role theme.

The first three categories: benefits of Spanish-speaking students, struggles of Spanish-speaking students, and Frespañol were later included in the Spanish-speaking Student Identity theme.

#### *Teachers' own knowledge of Spanish*

When asked about their Spanish language knowledge, the participants mentioned exploratory courses in middle school, high school, and college courses, study abroad programs, travelling, and conversational practice with native speakers (see Appendix K). Overall, French teachers did not claim profound knowledge of Spanish, but as one of the teachers shared, "I know enough Spanish so I can relate." French teachers, having the benefits of knowing at least one Latin-based language and some basic knowledge of Spanish, were able to find common patterns and similarities between the languages and used them to help students in their classes. In addition to finding these patterns on their own, participants described learning from their students. As Teacher 2 noted, "the beauty is that the Spanish speakers are teaching me Spanish, and they become my teachers." This practice reverses traditional teacher-student roles and adds value to Spanish speakers' home language knowledge.

#### *Teacher Training*

As previously described, only 37.0% ( $N = 100$ ) of the survey participants admitted receiving training during teacher preparation programs on strategy instruction and language learning strategy use for teaching Spanish-speaking students an L3 (see Table 9). Yet, this number was slightly higher, 40.0% ( $n = 10$ ) among the interview

participants. Similarly, professional development received by interviewed teachers was higher 60.0% ( $n = 10$ ) than overall average among all surveyed teachers 43.0% ( $N = 100$ ). Table 11 contains the comparison of participants' training and professional development related to teaching bilingual students.

Table 11

*Participants' Training and Professional Development Related to Teaching Bilingual Students*

Type of training received	Survey $N = 100$	Interview $n = 10$
Teacher preparation	37.0 %	40.0%
Professional development	43.0%	60.0%

Higher rate of professional development training received by interview participants provided the starting point of the interview discussions on specific examples of conferences, seminars, workshops, and faculty meetings attended by the participating teachers. When asked to provide those specific examples, several participants talked about English Language Learner (ELL) and English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) training, instead of strategy instruction and language learning strategy use for teaching Spanish-speaking students a third language (see Appendix L).

Teacher 3 shared her concern that preservice teachers are “not being prepared the way they should be prepared for working with Hispanic students.” Another participant, Teacher 5 asserted, “I just don't have knowledge of how to do more for those the students.” Many teachers talked about their practices of making connections themselves, finding strategies on their own, and even “reinventing the wheel.” Despite this lack of

training and professional development, teachers expressed the need for “some kind of training ideas, series, something given to them to say oh here is how you work with students who already have two languages in their brain.” One participant even went further, suggesting a need of educational change:

I believe that, as it currently stands, teachers who are going through teacher education programs must have a minor in Spanish, whether they be language teachers or not. And I think that all teachers need to have a better understanding, just as they all need to have ESOL as a part of the training.

In summary, the participants noticed the change in student demographics and disconnect between the teacher preparation programs and the realities of WL teaching.

Nevertheless, the teachers tried to find strategies that would work with bilinguals in order to help their students. These educators did not think that they were well prepared to reach out to diverse students and meet the needs of every learner.

#### *Teacher actions*

This study was designed to generate an understanding of the French language teachers’ use of strategies when teaching students who are native or heritage speakers of Spanish. During the open-ended interviews, the teachers eagerly shared their teaching experiences with Spanish-speaking students. However, when it came to the strategies and specific activities that teachers perform, the participants provided polar responses. The range of indicators, from the variety of activities to their total absence, are included in Appendix M. One respondent, Teacher 3 made the following comment regarding her strategy use:

I don't really do this a whole lot with the Hispanic students. More so, it's more of the cognate. I'll ask them, 'How does it relate to Spanish?'. But as far as doing it with the Hispanics, I don't do a lot of that.

Even in this short fragment, two opposing statements are visibly present: "I don't do" and "how does it relate to Spanish." That shows how a teacher who prompts the students to look for connections between French and Spanish does not consider it a strategy geared towards Spanish-speaking students learning an L3. Likewise, Teacher 8 stated that he likes "bringing Spanish into the game," to activate students' prior knowledge, though he did not consider it a special strategy for working with bilingual students. As the evidence suggests, the educators do not always acknowledge the work they do and do not even recognize what steps they take for helping diverse students in their classrooms.

Several teachers shared their concern about Hispanic students "suppressing their Spanish" and "not using it enough" to benefit their learning. Teacher 8 also pointed out the need to prompt students to refer back to their L1, which is Spanish.

I have to make a lot of connections for them. They don't automatically make the connection with the Spanish language; they always like to go to English. So, I have to help them, go back to the native language, I have to tell them, do you notice this in Spanish? And they reflect upon and say, 'yes it's true'. I hope that I make those connections, which at this age, they don't do it automatically. So, I have to stress it a little bit more.

The issue of native or heritage speakers withholding their mother tongue was elaborated on by Teacher 2, when he claimed that our society "suppressed anything but English" and

Spanish language has been compartmentalized in native speakers. This concern will be addressed further in the culture category.

Overall, the participants described grouping Spanish-speakers together, drawing parallels between Spanish and French, and referring to Spanish as three common strategies used in their classrooms. In terms of grouping students according to their native language, Teacher 3 expressed a concern that Hispanic students do not like to be treated differently, but Teacher 8 stated that knowledge of Spanish “makes them proud and others envy.” Drawing parallels between two Latin-based languages overlaps with the *Frespañol* category on linguistic patterns and similarities. Finally, referring to Spanish or simple translation was evident in multiple interviews when teachers had enough language proficiency to translate words, phrases, and sentences. In several cases, when teachers did not have enough Spanish language knowledge, they asked for student assistance, giving them the role of an instructor for the moment. On using the languages interchangeably, Teacher 3 commented:

On the Smartboard, whenever I’m using Flipchart. I will write out the comparison languages and I’ll put Spanish in the middle. You know, *je parle* [I speak] and how you say *yo hablo* [I speak] in Spanish. There’s a lot of those connections that are able to be made if not by me specifically explicitly, the students who are Hispanic are doing it themselves.

Importantly, this reference to Spanish works not only for native or heritage speakers of Spanish, but also for monolingual English speakers who had the experience of learning Spanish prior to taking French in high school. Hence, more language learners could benefit from teacher strategies when learning French in culturally diverse classrooms.



These three categories: teachers' own knowledge of Spanish, teacher training, and teacher actions were later included in the Teacher Role theme.

### *Culture*

In conversations with the researcher, participants constantly referred to a theme of culture, specifically to the issues of dominant monolingual culture versus bilingual students' home language and culture (see Appendix N). Though the question of White privilege has never been the focus of the present research study, teachers shared their classroom observations on interactions and conflicts between the two cultures. The nature of WL classes naturally leads to discussions centered around differences in cultural patterns and traditions, as WL teachers try to expose their students to yet another language with its history, culture, and traditions. Though institutional norms of the dominant group of English-speaking non-immigrant American culture is changing towards a more multicultural society, they still remain the "culture of power" within education (Delpit, 2006; Gay, 2010). The following comment on linguistic homogeneity was made by Teacher 2:

But in this country, there is no official language and therefore majority rules. And because majority rules, there is a stubbornness in hanging on to the cultural history, which isn't the truth. Because if you go back, it was Spanish first anyway. But there's a narrative which is very fearful of anything but English. And because of that, the fallout is that we don't have that ability [to speak multiple languages]. But the fear is what people are dealing with the Spanish language.

Widening people's perspectives, breaking down stereotypes, and changing biases were named among the most favorite aspects of teaching French by the participants of this study. These teachers recognized that the majority of their students have never travelled outside the United States, their state, and even their county. Everything foreign seems strange, unusual, and exotic to students. WL teachers believe it is part of their job responsibilities to expose students to different cultures, give them the opportunities to understand other people's perspectives, ignite their passion for travelling, and increase tolerance towards everything "foreign." The teachers shared that when students learn about other cultures, they learn about themselves as they discover their own heritage and language by exploring the culture of French-speaking countries. This is especially true with the Spanish-speaking students, who are born and raised in immigrant families and often experience resentment toward their heritage language and a need for linguistic and cultural assimilation into the dominant language and culture (Agbo, 2004; Crawford, 1995). The participants of the study shared their belief that students' home languages and cultures are valued in WL classrooms and students are taught to be proud of their diversity. Students' improved self-perception brings the feeling of pride and accomplishment to the teachers, which were named the best reward by several of the participants.

#### Emergent themes

The theme of Spanish-speaking Student Identity emerged as the participants described their perceptions and interactions with students. There were four categories within this theme: benefits of Spanish-speaking students, struggles, *Frespañol*, and culture. The theme of Language and Culture was dominant in most of the interviews when the

participants discussed their own sense of belonging to certain linguistic and cultural groups as well and their vision of student interactions with others. Three categories overlapped in Frespañol, culture, and teacher's knowledge of Spanish categories. The last theme of Teacher Role included culture, teacher's knowledge of Spanish, teacher training, and teacher actions (see Figure 2).

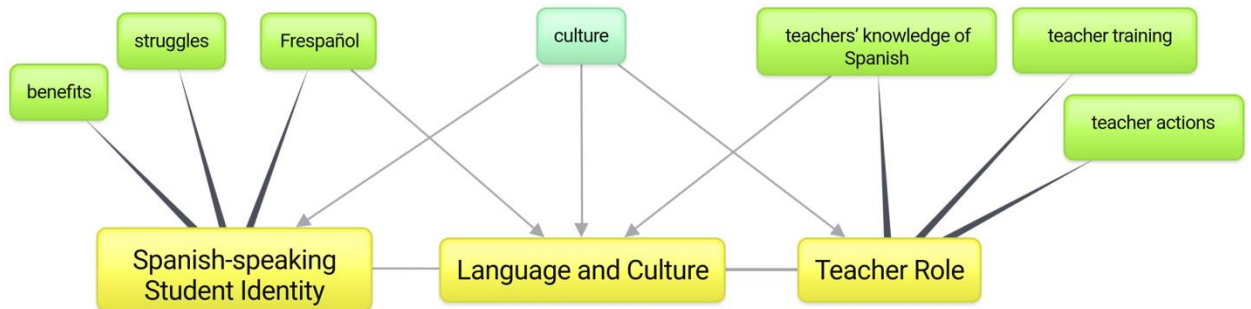


Figure 2. Categories and Themes Interaction

Since the whole process of interaction between the teachers of French with their Spanish-students was investigated through the eyes of the teachers, the themes that emerged as a result of this study reflected participants' state of being in the classrooms. Thus, the theme of Spanish-speaking Student Identity reflects what the teachers see, Language and Culture theme reflects what the teachers know, and Teacher Role theme reflects what the teachers do in their classes.

#### The Theory of Teacher Interaction with Spanish-speaking Students

An analysis of the relationships between three main themes: (a) Spanish-speaking Student Identity, (b) Language and Culture, and (c) Teacher Role, led the researcher to believe that they serve as teachers' See-Know-Do in a larger process of interaction between a teacher and students in a French language classroom. With Spanish-speaking Student Identity theme being what teachers see in their classrooms, Language and Culture theme being what teachers know about their students, and Teacher Role theme

being what teachers do, or how they act in their classes daily. The process of interaction between a teacher and students in a French language classroom requires knowledge of students' home language and culture, understanding of unique needs and challenges of bilingual students, and pedagogical skills to help this group of students succeed in an L3 acquisition. In addition to teacher actions, students' responses and behaviors are integral components of classroom interaction, though they are not the focus of this research. French language teachers' interactions with Spanish-speaking students vary from teacher to teacher, but they depend upon knowledge of students' home language and culture.

Two elements of these interactions are critical: (a) the Spanish-speaking Student Identity element and (b) the Teacher Role element. The Spanish-speaking Student Identity element includes the acknowledgment of Hispanic background value, the awareness of Latin-based languages similarities, and the identification of common patterns in languages, while the Teacher Role element encompasses the training and professional development received by educators, the knowledge of Spanish language that helps make connections and activate students' prior knowledge, and the activities designed to foster student learning.

Teacher practices for the instruction of French as an L3 among Spanish-speaking students are driven by teacher's initial awareness of bilingual students' unique needs, benefits, and struggles, and then by interactions with particular student groups through daily activities and conversations designed to overcome struggles common to Spanish speakers, such as incorrect word order and foreign accent, and highlight language similarities and patterns visible in both French and Spanish. After all, the WL teachers are at least bilingual, or even multilingual learners themselves. The participants of this

research study are proficient in a minimum of two languages: English and French, and many teachers also know other languages, such as Spanish, Latin, Italian, and German. Teachers who are not familiar with the contrastive analysis, a study of two languages to identify their structural differences and similarities, benefit from asking bilingual students to think, reflect, and teach these language connections to the teachers and other classmates. And most importantly, Spanish-speaking students learn to examine and evaluate their own language learning, finding common patterns, and avoiding typical mistakes and become more self-directed in the language acquisition process.

### Summary

The purpose of this qualitative study was to investigate the phenomenon and generate substantive theory regarding French language teachers' use of strategies when teaching native or heritage speakers of Spanish an L3. The study included an online survey, that was completed by a sample of 100 voluntary participants, and a series of follow-up interviews that were conducted with 10 participants. The interviews were transcribed, coded, and analyzed by the researcher. Based upon the coding, three major themes emerged from the data, Spanish-speaking Student Identity theme, Language and Culture theme, and Teacher Role theme. The following research questions were used to provide an initial focus of the research and guide the data collection process:

1. What types of strategies (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social) do French teachers report using with third language learners of French who are native or heritage speakers of Spanish?

2. What type of training do French language teachers report receiving during their teacher preparation programs on strategy instruction and language learning strategy use for teaching Spanish-speaking students a third language?

In response to the first research question, memory and cognitive strategies were named among the most frequently used with Spanish-speaking students. Specifically, connecting new information with the previously learned material in English, Spanish, and French, providing English-French and Spanish-French cognates, and avoiding word-for-word translation between the languages were identified as the most frequently used by French teachers. With regard to the second research question, more than half, 63.0% ( $N = 100$ ) of the survey participants, and 60.0% ( $n = 10$ ) of the interview participants, declared that training on strategy instruction and language learning strategy use for teaching Spanish-speaking students a third language was not received during teacher preparation programs. The concluding chapter five will present a discussion of the findings with implications for practice teaching French as an L3 among Spanish-speaking students.

## Chapter V

### DISCUSSION

#### Introduction

The present research study was driven by the desire to explore French language educators' use of strategies when teaching students who are native or heritage speakers of Spanish, and to examine teachers' current practices and readiness to teach this unique population of students. This study investigated the strategies used when teaching French as a third language (L3), and type of training received by French teachers. The following research questions guided this research study:

1. What types of strategies (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social) do French teachers report using with third language learners of French who are native or heritage speakers of Spanish?
2. What type of training do French language teachers report receiving during their teacher preparation programs on strategy instruction and language learning strategy use for teaching Spanish-speaking students a third language?

Regarding the first research question, the results of the present study revealed high cognitive ( $M = 4.13$ ) and memory ( $M = 3.98$ ) strategy use by French language teachers as measured by the modified Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). More specifically, the most frequently used strategies with Spanish-speakers were (a) connecting new material with old knowledge, (b) providing cognates to teach similarities, (c) avoiding word-for-word translation, and (d) finding patterns in

French. The strategies used with the Spanish-speaking students were later included in Teacher Actions category formed during data coding process.

For the second research question, the results of the present study demonstrated that 63.0% ( $N = 100$ ) of the survey participants and 60.0% ( $n = 10$ ) of the interview participants did not receive any training on strategy instruction and language learning strategy use for teaching Spanish-speaking students an L3. Those participants, who claimed to have a training on teaching bilingual language learners, mainly named English Language Learner (ELL) and English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) strategies for teaching English, not a World Language (WL) (see Appendix L).

In order to answer both research questions, the modified SILL survey and the Teacher Background Questionnaire were administered to 119 high school French language teachers in Georgia. One hundred teachers completed the survey, and 10 participants were interviewed in the follow-up phase of the research. Data collected from the interviews were transcribed and coded at open, axial, and selective levels to identify themes that helped in creating an emerging theory. This chapter presents the discussion of findings and their significance as well as recommendations for future research.

### Discussion of Results

The preliminary literature review was conducted prior to the study to explore social phenomenon and identify gaps in the literature. Prior to conducting this study, the researcher did not have a preconceived hypothesis in mind; though the review of literature demonstrated that bilingual students have the following benefits when learning an L3: (1) better understanding of how languages work (Bialystok, 2001; Muñoz, 2000; Sanz, 2000), (2) repertoire of successful language learning strategies to apply to L3



acquisition (Bialystok & Codd, 1997; Clarkson 2006), (3) metalinguistic awareness (Thomas, 1988), and (4) cognitive control, mathematical skills, problem-solving, creative thinking, better developed empathy, and conceptual transfer (Bialystok, 2001; Cenoz, 2000; Muñoz, 2000; Sanz, 2000). Taking into consideration the ample research results on the effectiveness of strategy instruction that positively correlates with the improved language performance (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Cohen, 1998; Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford, 1996), the researcher sought to investigate language learning strategy use from the teacher perspective. After the survey and interview data were collected, and the emergent themes were proposed, a retrospective literature review was conducted to verify if the themes were present in the current literature and to what extent were they already described and studied. Later, the themes evidenced in the preliminary and secondary literature reviews were integrated with data collected during the research to guide the interpretation of the findings, to form the base of the grounded theory, and explain social processes.

Notably, the themes that emerged from the coded responses of the open-ended interviews correlate with the main aspects of the L3 learning models, Hufeisen's factor model (2004) and Meissner's multilingual processing model (2004), and mostly correspond with the best L3 teaching practices described in the literature (De Angelis, 2011; Gay, 2010; Jessner, 2008; Ladson-Billings, 2006; Oxford, 1990; Richards & Rogers, 1986; Thomas, 1988; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Figure 3 illustrates the overlap between best research-based practices for teaching L3 and five categories formed during data analysis.

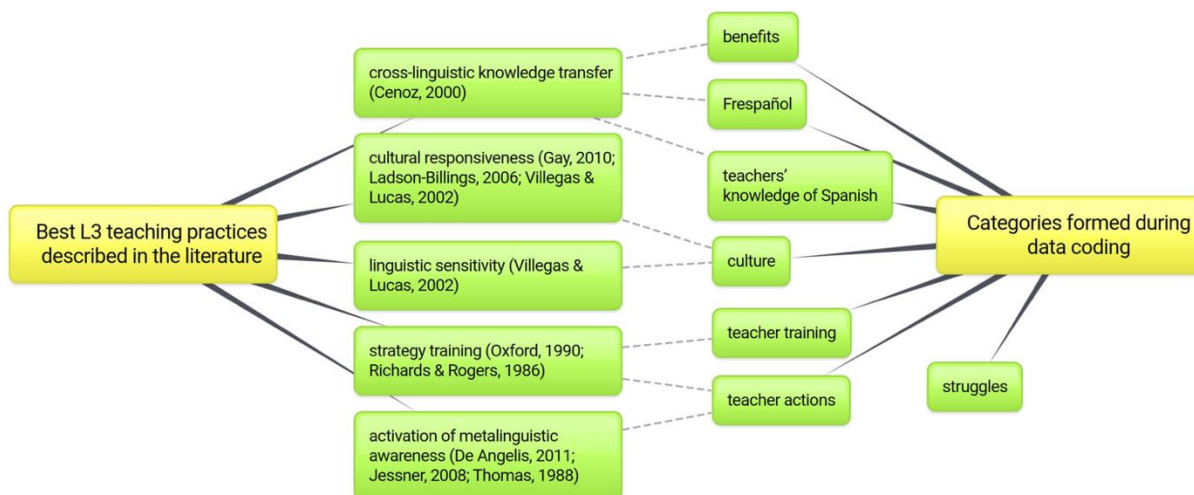


Figure 3. Best Teaching Practices and Categories Overlap

The present study findings suggest the importance of developing an understanding of L3 teaching in linguistically diverse WL classrooms in Georgia. This research is significant and relevant due to the current change in student demographics and the raise of Spanish-speaking population in the U.S. The theory of teacher interaction with Spanish-speaking students to enable learning of French, postulated as the result of this research, expands what is currently known about teaching a third Romance language.

*Theme 1: Spanish-speaking Student Identity*

The research finding related to emergent theme 1 suggests that WL teachers view dimensions of Spanish-speaking students' identity through the lens of their own familiarity and understanding of Latino cultures, language, and traditions. While historically Latino students have faced many obstacles due to their language, ethnicity, socio-economic status, and low academic achievement (Lockwood & Secada, 1999; Lutz, 2007; Vald s, 2008), French language teachers regard bilingual students highly positively. This favorable attitude towards bilingual students might be caused by similar language learning experience and common background that WL teachers and bilingual

students have. Despite the existing body of literature that describes academic discrimination against Latino students (Dolan, 2009; Gandara, 2010; Lutz, 2007; Vald s, 2008), the participants of the current research study expressed highly positive experiences teaching Spanish-speaking students French as a third language (L3). It is important to add that the participants of the present research study, being French language teachers in the U.S., are all proficient in at least two languages, English and French. In addition to that, seven participants indicated proficiency in Spanish, five in Latin, one in German, and one in Italian. Thus, it seems likely the teachers who participated in the present research study could relate to bilingual students who learn another WL and regard them favorably due to similar language learning experience.

Data analysis revealed that WL teachers identified Spanish-speaking students' strengths and weaknesses based on their observations, classrooms teaching experiences, and personal language learning practices. Having the knowledge of at least one Latin-based language, French teachers are able to recognize patterns in student language production, along with common mistakes and difficulties. The findings that associate bilingual students' success in L3 acquisition are consistent with indicators described in the literature. For instance, bilingual students are identified with better cognitive control (Bialystok, 2001), arithmetic and mathematical skills (Clarkson, 2006), creativity and problem solving (Kharkhurin, 2010; Ricciardelli, 1992), empathy (Dewaele & Wei, 2012), and better metalinguistic awareness (Bialystok, 2001; Bild & Swain, 1989; Jessner, 2008; Thomas, 1988) when compared to their monolingual peers.

The findings related to this theme contained many overlapping characteristics among the data collected from WL educators and bilingual students' descriptions found

in the literature. For example, French teachers' emphasis on the use of Spanish-French cognates correlate with crosslinguistic influence and language transfer described by Cenoz, Hufeisen, and Jessner (2001) and Tremblay (2006). Similarly, all indicators included in Frespañol category are highly consistent with the contrastive analysis study detailed by Gass and Selinker (1983) and recommended by de la Fuente and Lacroix (2015) to be used with bilingual language learners to address language differences and similarities. The term Frespañol is composed of *français* [French] and *español* [Spanish], which is used to describe a combination of French and Spanish languages, similar to Spanglish.

However, the findings of this study also revealed important distinctions between monolingual students learning French as an L3 and bilingual Spanish speakers. WL teachers' descriptions of the social and academic characteristic of bilingual language learners allowed the researcher to draw conclusions and build the grounded theory of teacher interaction with Spanish-speaking students to enable learning of French. For example, the participants described bilingual students as "more willing to speak" and "more willing to try" compared to monolingual English-speakers in French classrooms, due to their extensive practice of balancing two languages without reservation. Another difference noted by the participants was the ability to avoid literal (word-for-word) translations and accept idiomatic expression that was already developed in bilingual students and was generally absent in L2 learners.

Thus, the findings related to emergent theme 1 conceptualize L3 learners of French who are native or heritage speakers of Spanish as a new phenomenon and position this group of students in modern learning environments. French teachers, with their own

bi- and trilingualism contribute to social and academic understanding of Spanish-speaking high school students who study French as a WL. As a result of this understanding, WL teachers are able to relate to this group of students, create personal connections, and identify unique needs and challenges of bilingual students.

*Theme 2: Language and Culture*

The findings pertaining to this theme indicate that French teachers have a relatively broad understanding of not only Spanish language, but also cultures, traditions, and histories of Spanish-speaking countries. This familiarity allowed WL teachers to make connections between the languages (French and Spanish), teach vocabulary and grammar making interlanguage connections (cognates and conjugation), demonstrate similar patterns in cultural norms (ways to address people), and familiar traditions and celebrations, for example Carnival and Epiphany. WL teachers feel connected to bilingual students due to sharing familiar cultural and linguistic experience. As the French teachers learned their languages, participated in study abroad and student exchange programs, travelled, took WL classes, they experienced language and language(s) overlap, linguistic and cultural misunderstanding, situations where their home culture was challenged and at times dismissed, they learned to overcome these issues and decided to go into teaching partly because they wanted to introduce students to other languages together with cultures, open students minds, and break down stereotypes.

Analysis of the data revealed that WL teachers view Spanish-speaking students as the bearers of other cultures that can help broaden other students' horizons and see the world from different perspectives. Despite the negative cultural stereotypes associated with Latino students, such as lowered teacher expectations, silenced voices, and devalued

cultural background (Bernal, 2002; Fernandez, 2002; Quiroz, 2001), the participating WL teachers relied on Spanish-speaking students to help them demonstrate cultural and linguistic patterns when teaching about French language, culture, and traditions. This data correlates with the findings that the inclusion of students' home cultures has a positive influence on student success in school (Gay, 2010; Padron, Waxman, & Rivera, 2002; Santamaria, 2009). As culturally responsive education begins with teachers learning about the students and building on that knowledge to demonstrate cultural sensitivity, establish a learning community, and promote student success (Gay, 2010; Villegas & Lucas, 2002), French language teachers, sharing similar language learning background, should relate to bilingual students and know about their needs and challenges. WL teachers know and understand Spanish-speaking students probably better than the majority of school staff members, educators, and administrators, due to similar cultural and language learning experience.

The prior research links high academic achievement of bilingual students with positive feelings about their ethnic group (Kiang, Yip, Gonzales-Backen, Witkow, & Fuligni, 2006), having better experiences towards their ethnic identity affirmation (Supple, Chazarian, Frabutt, Plunkett, & Sands, 2006), and higher self-esteem due to feeling connected to the larger cultural Latino community (Umana-Taylor, 2004; Umana-Taylor, Diversi, Fine, 2002). Since the formation of positive ethnic identity helps students feel closely connected to the Spanish-speaking community with its cultural traditions, celebrations, and rituals, then WL teachers can help create and strengthen this pride of being bilingual by using these students' linguistic and cultural knowledge when teaching other languages. When teaching about French-speaking countries and Epiphany

celebration, called La Fête des Rois [the Kings Day] in French, Spanish-speaking students can use their own experience celebrating Día de los Reyes Magos [Day of the Magi] in Spanish, sharing their background knowledge with the class. This practice of bringing students home culture to class, not only strengthens the curriculum, but also adds value and importance to students' background and heritage. In effect, bilingual students may serve as French teachers' assistants, helpers, and experts in discussions on language similarities, historical and cultural events. According to Rosenbloom and Way (2004), these practices are confirmed to acknowledge and validate students' home culture and values, which in its term, help improve students' self-esteem, resulting in better academic performance.

The findings pertaining to emergent theme 2 have implications for teaching that will be discussed later in this chapter. Taken together, both themes provide the conceptual foundation for the grounded theory and establish the constructs of French teachers' interactions with Spanish-speaking students as fluid, interrelated, and multidimensional concepts that should be interpreted within the context of each student's unique situation and circumstances.

### *Theme 3: Teacher Role*

In addition to knowing students well and being familiar with their home languages and cultures, the findings related to this theme indicate that WL teachers reiterated the use of L1 in French language classrooms to promote L3 acquisition and foster student learning progress. The participants of the study emphasized the importance of helping their Spanish-speaking students feel comfortable using their home language in French class. Similarly, to the culturally responsive teaching described in the analysis of

the emergent theme 2, incorporating students home language into the curriculum and assisting students in making connections between new language (L3) and Spanish (L1) were identified as the key elements in teaching bilingual students French.

Grouping Spanish-speakers together, drawing parallels between Spanish and French, and referring to Spanish were identified as three major strategies currently used by the participants when teaching Spanish-speaking students French as an L3. These findings are supported by the research results described in the literature on the cross-linguistic influence (Cenoz et al., 2001; Flynn et al., 2004) and metalinguistic awareness (Jessner, 2008; Thomas, 1988). Building on previous language experience when teaching an L3 was named as one of the most important and effective strategies by the participants. However, teachers struggled with bilingual students not using their Spanish language skills enough, and even “suppressing” or “compartmentalizing” their Spanish. Though struggling to overcome these obstacles, the participants strived to use bilingual students’ Spanish skills and improve their metalinguistic awareness, which does not often happen in education. As Jessner (1999) stated:

Only very few attempts have been made to focus on common elements of the languages in the multilingual classroom. Rather, it seems to be the norm to ignore the prior language knowledge of the students or, even worse, to regard it as a negative influence. (p. 205)

Notably, when French teachers make explicit references to Spanish when teaching the French language, they help not only heritage or native speakers of Spanish, but they also aid monolingual English-speaking students with prior Spanish language learning experience. This finding is also supported by Kellerman (1995), who claimed that any



language learning experience serves as a foundation for the new language, even when the learner has not reached proficiency in that language. Thus, when helping Spanish-speaking students by activating their prior knowledge, using cross-linguistic examples, and teaching to apply patterns from previous learning experiences, French teachers help not only Hispanics, but all students in culturally and linguistically diverse classes.

Furthermore, the results related to emergent theme 3 revealed that no sufficient training was provided to help French teachers tailor to the bilingual student's needs. This finding is supported by Lockwood (2000) who stated that the American teachers were not properly trained to instruct Hispanic immigrant students, and even felt uncomfortable teaching bilingual students due to language barriers and cultural differences. Lockwood and Secada (1999) conducted case studies in seven school districts across the U.S., investigating Hispanic dropout rates, the role of teachers, families, effective school strategies, and educational policies. After reviewing cases of exemplary school programs, they concluded that Hispanic students' success was promoted by teachers who were familiar with their culture; however, teacher training and professional development was required to develop teachers' skills necessary to educate bilingual students (Lockwood & Secada, 1999). In their report titled *Transforming Education for Hispanic Youth: Exemplary Practices, Programs, and Schools*, Lockwood and Secada (1999) concluded:

Ongoing professional development should help teachers learn about their students' backgrounds and interests, curriculum adaptation, and other instructional strategies for heterogeneous student populations. Teachers should be familiar with second language acquisition theory, and how to adapt instruction for

students of varying levels of English language proficiency. Teachers' knowledge of their students' cultural heritage and the implications of language learning and loss are important for effective teaching and the creation of well-functioning home-school linkages. (p. 11)

Thus, every teacher who deals with diverse students benefits from better understanding of the students, their home cultures and languages. Meanwhile, the language and cultural differences, combined with the lack of teacher training and professional development programs, hinder successful learning experiences for students whose home language is different from English.

Likewise, the lack of qualified teachers and the use of inappropriate teaching practices were named as the main factors affecting the underachievement of Hispanic students by Padron et al. (2002). These findings align with the current study results that discovered the lack of training focused on teaching bilingual and heritage speakers of Spanish.

Overall, needs in training and professional development were acknowledged by the French teachers participating in the present study. The interview participants, all certified educators who work in public high schools in Georgia, emphasized the lack of knowledge on how to teach bilingual students effectively and what strategies work the best for Spanish-speaking students. The findings pertaining to emergent theme 3 reflect educators' concerns about improving efficacy of teaching L3 to bilingual students. For instance, several participants shared the feeling of "not being adequately trained" or prepared to teach such groups of students, and the necessity to invent their own strategies to help this unique group of students.

## The Grounded Theory

According to Glaser (1998), the goal of grounded theory is to generate a theory that explains social processes and behavior of the participants. As the main purpose of this grounded theory study was to develop a substantive theory about how French teachers interact with Spanish-speaking students when teaching them French as an L3, this methodology enabled the researcher to discover participants' main concerns on the appropriate strategy use with this group of students and preservice training and professional development that should prepare teachers for the challenging task of educating every student. The substantive theory generated from this research was developed from a systematic and iterative process of data collection and examination, based on educators' experiences working with bilingual L3 learners, and the researcher named it the theory of Latin-based L3 teaching.

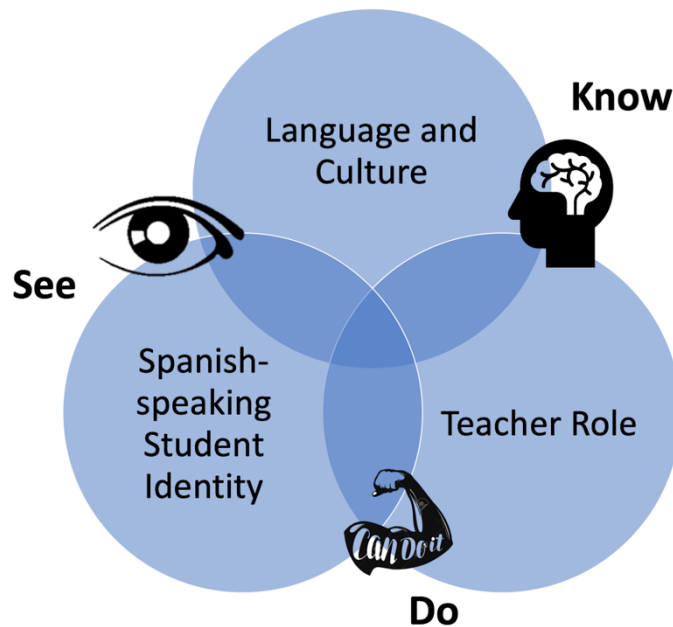
The theory of Latin-based L3 teaching that was discovered grounded in the present research integrates three core themes that emerged during data analysis and reflect the key elements of classroom interaction between French teachers and their bilingual students. Emergent theme 1 indicates that WL educators view Spanish-speaking students favorably, without discrimination based on students' home language, culture, and socio-economic status. As a group, the participants associated bilingual students' identity with the valuable benefits of knowing Spanish-French cognates, using similar grammatical patterns, and having previous language learning experience. Emergent theme 2 demonstrates that French teachers have knowledge of not only Spanish language, but also culture, traditions, and history of Spanish-speaking countries. Emergent theme 2 shows that the participants employ various strategies, including

activating prior language knowledge, using cross-linguistic examples, and teaching, to apply patterns from previous language learning experience to help bilingual students learn French as an L3, despite a possible lack of training and professional development that prepares WL educators to teach students with diverse backgrounds. Thus, the theory of Latin-based L3 teaching generated by the current research study introduces a new understanding of the practices of teaching Spanish-speaking students French as an L3 that is grounded directly in teachers' classroom experiences.

### Theoretical Model

The theory of Latin-based L3 teaching led to the formation of a new theoretical model for teaching and determining the best practices for Spanish-speaking students learning French as an L3. Figure 4 represents the three emergent themes that determined the interaction between teachers and bilingual students in a French language classroom as indicated in this study. The model starts with the Spanish-speaking Student Identity theme that incorporates students' best interests and needs, and this is what the educators observe and *see* in the classroom. The second circle, Language and Culture, covers the teachers' knowledge of the student home culture and the Spanish language itself; this is the *know* component of the model. Finally, the third circle, the Teacher Role is what the French educators actually do in the classrooms to help bilingual language learners; this is the *do* component, that is also driven by the teachers' education and professional development. This theoretical model depicts how teachers build interactions with their students based on their classroom observations, professional knowledge, and training. The overlapping areas between the circles show the reciprocal nature of these interactions, where for instance, the degree of the teacher' knowledge of the students'

home language affects teachers' actions in class, and as a result of those actions and activities, students' language knowledge changes.



*Figure 4.* Theoretical Model for Teaching Bilingual Students a Third Language

Furthermore, the looped organization of this model suggests the interconnectivity of all the elements of the teacher and student interaction, where a change in one circle will eventually lead to the modification and adjustments in the remaining elements. Thus, the system remains flexible to be responsive to contemporary changes in educations, such as student demographic change, teacher professional readiness, training and professional development implementation.

#### Implications for Policy and Practice

This discussion leads to several implications to district policy makers, higher education institutions, curriculum developers, school administration, WL teachers, students, and parents. The goal of this research was to explore the strategies that French language teachers use with students who are native or heritage speakers of Spanish, and what type of training these teachers received. This research is just a beginning, a first

step towards understanding this current issue in education. The findings of the current research suggest that WL teachers who are aware of the bilingual students' unique needs, benefits, and struggles, design their own activities around Spanish-speaking students to build on students' prior knowledge, helping them advance in their language learning progress. Teachers do their best to highlight similarities and patterns in both French and Spanish, helping their bilingual students, despite the lack of training and professional development.

As the previous studies confirmed bilingual students' advantages in language learning (Bialystok, 2001; Cenoz, 2000; Muñoz, 2000; Sanz, 2000, Thomas, 1998), the present research results also support the argument of bilingual students' good language learners' features. Therefore, WL educators and curriculum developers need to keep in mind that a homogeneous language policy does not succeed in a diverse community where multiple cultures and languages interact. This study suggests that the examination of students' home languages should be combined with strategy training provided for the WL teachers in order to assist students develop more effective learning strategies and advance in an L3 learning. As previous studies demonstrated the effectiveness of appropriate strategy training (Bialystok, 1981; Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford, 1996; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Thompson & Rubin, 1993), strategy training in form of preservice teacher training and professional development may contribute to enhance WL practices and lead to an increase in overall language performance.

### *Pedagogical Implications*

Language educators who work with multilingual and multicultural students might benefit from learning more about students' home language and cultures, and strategy

training for teaching bilingual speakers. WL teachers cannot possibly know all the languages used by their students, but they can pursue the recommendations provided in this chapter to help their Spanish-speaking students succeed in language learning. The major pedagogical implication is that the teachers should increase their cultural understanding of the student home language and cultures to be more effective in teaching bilingual students. WL teachers need to conduct a further analysis of the learners' Spanish language knowledge and origin, because Spanish-speaking students come from a variety of different backgrounds, such as different levels of proficiency in Spanish and different levels of English learning experience, which makes a difference in how students learn. Knowing students' backgrounds and language proficiency, educators can make better decisions and adjust teaching material, methods, and assignments to use Spanish language knowledge to students' advantage.

The results of the present research suggest that WL teachers need to provide explicit instructions on language learning strategy use. For instance, teachers can administer the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, a survey designed by Oxford (1990) to get information on how a foreign or second language learner learns the language. Besides that, teachers need to demonstrate how to choose a strategy that allows success and promotes language learning. In addition, French educators should teach bilingual students how to look for similarities between Spanish, English, and French, as well as apply the rules of their previous language to the new language (L3).

Due to the proven benefits of the metacognitive strategy use, (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994), teachers should design activities and assignments, allowing students take responsibility for their learning. For example, educators can teach language learners

how to set language goals and objectives, to identify the purpose of a language task, to seek for practice opportunities (Oxford, 1990). Even more importantly, teachers need to train their language students how to self-monitor and self-evaluate their learning progress.

Besides that, WL teachers need to encourage bilingual students help them teach French, acting as languages experts, explaining and illustrating similarities and differences between languages to their classmates. Teaching about traditions, celebrations, and historical events are excellent opportunities to build on Spanish-speaking students' prior knowledge and engage them in teaching French. It is also necessary to warn students of the use of false cognates when transferring words directly from one language to another.

To summarize, the findings of this research highlight the need for all WL teachers to receive training on how to teach bilingual students a third language and bring effective instruction to linguistically diverse WL classrooms. The results of this study can lead to a policy change in preservice teacher education and positively impact professional development programs in the U.S.

#### Limitations of the Study

The present study had several limitations, frequently found in qualitative research studies, specifically, participant availability, respondent subjectivity, researcher bias, researcher influence, and students' unmeasured Spanish-language proficiency.

##### *Participant availability*

This study is limited to French educators who teach Spanish-speaking students in high schools in Georgia and those who voluntarily agree to participate in the study. The



initial sample of 266 high school teachers was gathered from the data report requested from the Georgia Department of Education. One hundred high school teachers participated in the survey and only 10 teachers were selected for the follow-up interview. There was no random selection of participants from high schools across the country, thus the findings of this study are not generalizable to the entire population of French teachers of Spanish-speaking students learning an L3 in the U.S.

#### *Respondent subjectivity*

In the first phase of this study, the participants answered on a 5-point Likert-scale to the statements of the SILL survey (Oxford, 1990), yet the answers were still open to teachers' individual interpretation, honesty, and ability to respond accurately to each question. In the second phase of the research, where the selected teachers participated in open-ended interviews, sharing their unique experiences, the validity of the results depended on the participants' level of subjectivity, diverse linguistic and educational backgrounds, professional development and experiences, and individual interpretations of the interview questions. In addition to that, the bilingual nature of the students may have affected teachers' favorable perceptions and practices due to similar backgrounds and language learning experiences.

#### *Researcher bias*

In order to avoid the subjectivity that leads the researcher to select data that fits existing theory and goals (Maxwell, 2013), the author of this study approached the research without a preconceived theory in mind, evaluating her own values and expectations at every step of the data collection and analysis. In addition to that, SILL survey and Teacher Background Questionnaire were used to avoid researcher

interpretation and to allow the participants to respond to open-ended questions. Being a trilingual language teacher involved in WL education, the researcher tried to evaluate how personal values and expectations affected the conclusions of the present study. Finally, after the data was collected and the emergent themes were created, peer check was performed to minimize the researcher bias and strengthen the research results. Two doctoral candidates were given the interview transcripts without the codes generated by the researcher, and the interpretive results were compared for similarities to ensure inter-rater reliability.

#### *Unmeasured Spanish-language proficiency*

In the present study, the level of students' Spanish language proficiency was not measured due to the fact that data on home language proficiency is not collected by the Georgia Department of Education. Thus, heritage speakers of Spanish, and bilingual Spanish speakers with various degrees of bilingualism were called Spanish-speaking students in the context of the present research study, though there is a possibility that these factors might influence the success and effectiveness of an L3 acquisition.

Despite these limitations, the distinct student population, combined with the educators' extensive teaching experiences, contributed to the richness of data. The teachers' unique experiences working with students who speak one Latin-based language at home and choose to study French as an L3 in high school, contributed new perspectives to the field of WL teaching. Moreover, the participants' attempts to build on students' L1 when teaching an L3 led to the construction of new knowledge, thus adding to the current body literature and helped in construction of a new theory.

## Suggestions for Future Research

Future research is needed that examines this phenomenon at a national level, as the present study only focused on teacher strategy use and training for L3 instruction in Georgia. Further studies of quantitative and mixed method research designs can also focus on educator preparation programs to discover whether teacher training programs in the U.S. support L3 instruction and prepare preservice WL teachers for the realities of teaching in diverse language classrooms. Additionally, the effectiveness of strategies for teaching WL to bilingual students can be examined in future research. By examining the effectiveness of the strategies with the unique population of Spanish-speaking students, it may be possible to uncover to what degree Spanish as L1 affects learning French as an L3. As the U.S. becomes increasingly diverse and multicultural, there is a critical need for more studies of this kind.

## Conclusion

The results of the present study are encouraging for the WL educators, students, and parents in the changing demographic situation in the U.S. As students from different cultural and language backgrounds bring their knowledge to the WL classrooms, teachers need to adapt to this change and use students' prior knowledge to the student's advantage. The findings of the present study that examined how educators teach Spanish-speaking students French as an L3 suggest that French language teachers must have knowledge of students' home language and culture, understand bilingual students' unique needs and challenges, and master pedagogical skills to help this unique group of students succeed in an L3 acquisition.

In addition, the present study also examined strategy instruction and language learning strategy use from the perspective of the teacher. Thus far, the SILL survey and the past studies on language strategy use only examined how students applied language learning strategies. The results of the present study suggest that exposure to various language learning strategies, in combination with modeling and self-evaluation might help bilingual students who already know one Latin-based language, acquire French as an L3. Besides that, the results of this study suggest that teachers might benefit from specific training and a professional development series tailored to the needs of bilingual language learners.

As Glaser (1992) stated that a grounded theory study can result in an empirically grounded hypothesis that could be tested, verified, and applied in future studies, the researcher hopes that this new theory generated by the present study will contribute to change in current practices for teaching WL to diverse students with various language backgrounds. As the findings of this study clearly point to the need to update the WL teaching practices and policies for teacher preparation programs because language learners are no longer monolingual English speakers without any prior WL knowledge. The language diversity of our students mandates WL teachers, administrators, policy makers, and curriculum designers make this change.

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APPENDIX A:

High School French Language teachers in Georgia

*High School French language teachers 2017/18 school year*

School System Name	Number of French Teachers
Baldwin County	1
Barrow County	2
Benn Hill County	2
Bibb County	6
Bryan County	2
Bulloch County	2
Burke County	1
Buttes County	2
Camden County	5
Carroll County	4
Chatham County	16
Chattahoochee County	2
Cherokee County	14
Clarke County	3
Clayton County	13
Cobb County	33
Coffee County	2
Columbia County	5
Coweta County	6
DeKalb County	37
Dodge County	1
Dougherty County	1
Douglas County	14
Early County	1
Effingham County	3
Fayette County	7
Forsyth County	7
Franklin County	1
Fulton County	41
Gilmer County	1
Glynn County	1
Gordon County	2
Gwinnett County	69
Habersham County	2
Hall County	1
Haralson County	2
Harris County	2
Henry County	10
Houston County	5
Jackson County	2

Jasper County	2
Jeff Davis County	1
Lowndes County	1
McDuffie County	1
Morgan County	1
Muscogee County	4
Newton County	3
Oconee County	2
Paulding County	6
Pickens County	1
Pike County	1
Richmond County	8
Rockdale County	4
Spalding County	1
Sumter County	1
Thomas County	1
Tift County	4
Walton County	1
Wayne County	1
Whitfield County	5
Atlanta Public Schools	20
Calhoun City	2
Carrollton City	1
Dalton City	3
Decatur City	3
Gainesville City	1
Jefferson City	1
Marietta City	3
State Charter Schools	9
Commission Charter Schools	1
Rome City	1
Social Circle City	1
Thomasville City	1
Valdosta City	3
Total	429

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Data from Georgia Department of Education (2019).

APPENDIX B:

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)



Modified Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL) © R. Oxford. 1989

This survey is confidential. Valdosta State University and the researcher will keep your information confidential to the extent allowed by law. Your participation is voluntary. You may choose not to take the survey, to stop responding at any time, or to skip any questions that you do not want to answer. You must be at least 18 years of age to participate in this study. Your completion of the survey serves as your voluntary agreement to participate in this research project and your certification that you are 18 or older.

Questions regarding the purpose or procedures of the research should be directed to Anna Surin at [asurin@valdosta.edu](mailto:asurin@valdosta.edu). This study has been exempted from Institutional Review Board (IRB) review in accordance with Federal regulations. The IRB, a university committee established by Federal law, is responsible for protecting the rights and welfare of research participants. If you have concerns or questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the IRB Administrator at (229) 259-5045 or [irb@valdosta.edu](mailto:irb@valdosta.edu).

### **Part A**

#### **As a French teacher ...**

1. I encourage my students to think of relationships between what they already know and new things they learn in French.  
\*I encourage my Spanish-speaking students to think of relationships between what they already know (in Spanish, English, and French) and new things they learn in French. Is this different for monolingual and bilingual students? How?
2. I provide my students with the opportunities to use new French words in a sentence so they can remember them.
3. I try to connect the sound of a new French word to picture or image to help students remember the word.  
\*I try to connect the sound of a new French word to a sound of Spanish word to help Spanish-speaking students remember the word. Can you give an example?
4. I teach my students to remember a new French word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.
5. I use rhymes to help students remember new French words.  
\*I use rhymes in English/French/Spanish to help students remember new French words.
6. I use flashcards to help student remember new French words.
7. I demonstrate how to physically act out new French words.
8. I review French lessons with my students on a regular basis.
9. I teach students to remember new French words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a classroom wall.

### **Part B**

#### **As a French teacher ...**

10. I make my students to say or write new French words several times.
11. I advise students to try talking like native French speakers.
12. I practice the sounds of French with my students.
13. I encourage students to use the French words they know in different ways.
14. I initiate conversations among my students in French.

15. I use French language TV shows and/or movies spoken in French in class.
16. I inspire students to read for pleasure in French.
17. I assign writing notes, messages, letters, and reports in French.
18. I teach my students to first skim a French passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.
19. I provide examples of English-French cognates and teach students to look for words that are similar in two languages.  
\*I build on Spanish-speaking students' knowledge Spanish by teaching them to look for Spanish-French cognates.
20. I teach students how to find patterns in French.  
\*I teach Spanish-speaking students how to find patterns between French and Spanish.
21. I demonstrate how to find the meaning of a French word by dividing it into parts that they understand.  
\*I demonstrate how to find the meaning of a French word by dividing it into parts that they might understand in Spanish.
22. I advise students to avoid word-for-word translation.  
\*I advise students to avoid word-for-word translation between French and English, Spanish and English, Spanish and French.
23. I teach students making summaries of information that they hear or read in French.

### **Part C**

#### **As a French teacher ...**

24. \*I train students to make guesses to understand unfamiliar French words.
25. I show students how to use gestures when they can't think of a word during a conversation in French.
26. \*I advise students to make up new words if they do not know the right ones in French.
27. I promote reading French without looking up every new word.
28. I teach students to try to guess what the other person will say next in French.
29. \*If students can't think of a French word, I teach them to use a word or phrase that means the same thing.

### **Part D**

#### **As a French teacher ...**

30. I try to find as many ways as I can for my students to use French inside and outside the classroom.
31. I coach students to notice their French mistakes and use that information to help them do better.
32. I advise students to pay attention when someone is speaking French.
33. I motivate students to try to find out how to be a better learner of French.
34. I encourage students to plan their schedule so they have enough time to study French.
35. I teach students where to look for people they can talk to in French.
36. I encourage my students to look for opportunities to read as much as possible in French.
37. I set up clear goals for improving my students' French skills.

38. I instruct students to think about their progress in learning French.

**Part E**

**As a French teacher ...**

39. If I notice that my students feel afraid of using French, I try to help them relax

40. I advise my students to speak French even when they are afraid of making a mistake.

41. I reward my students when they do well in French.

42. I teach students to notice if they are tense or nervous when they are studying or using French.

43. I demonstrate how to use a language learning diary to write down feelings when learning or speaking French.

44. I provide students with the possibilities to talk to someone else about how they feel when they are learning French.

**Part F**

**As a French teacher ...**

45. If my students do not understand something in French, I teach them to ask the other person to slow down or say it again.

46. I advise students to ask French speakers to correct them when they talk.

47. I provide my students with the opportunities to practice French with each other.

48. I explain how to ask for help from French speakers.

49. I direct students to ask questions in French.

50. I teach about the culture of French speakers.

\*questions are specifically geared towards Spanish-speaking language learners

APPENDIX C:

Teacher Background Questionnaire

*Please choose the best answer to the following questions:*

Sex: Male Female Prefer not to answer

Age: a. 21-30 b. 31-40 c. 41-50 d. 51+

Race/Ethnicity: American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, White, Prefer not to answer

Are you Hispanic or Latino or Spanish Origin? yes/no

What World Language(s) do you currently teach?

- Spanish
- French
- German
- Italian
- Portuguese
- Latin

Other(s): please specify \_\_\_\_\_

Circle one option that best describes your educational level.

- Non-degreed
- Associate
- Bachelor's
- Master's
- Specialist
- Doctorate

In which areas do you hold a teaching certificate? (Please circle all that apply)

- French language
- Elementary Education
- Special Education
- ESL
- Other(s): please specify \_\_\_\_\_

What is your first language?

What language(s) do you speak at home?

List all the languages you know \_\_\_\_\_

How many years of French language teaching experience do you have?

How many years of overall teaching experience do you have?

Do you currently have Spanish-speaking students in your class?

If you answered "yes", how many Spanish-speaking students are enrolled in your French course this year?

- less than 5%
- 6-20%
- 21-50%
- more than 50%

Did you receive any training on strategy instruction and language learning strategy use for teaching bilingual students? yes/no

Please indicate the number of hours you have spent in professional development (conferences, seminars, workshops and/or faculty meetings), in the past five years, that addressed teaching heritage, bilingual, or Spanish speakers.

- 0

- 1-9
- 10-19
- 20+

APPENDIX D:  
Interview Questions

How did you become a World Language teacher?

Describe your language learning experiences.

What led you to choose this profession?

What is your favorite aspect about teaching French?

Do you currently have Spanish-speaking students in your class? What are your experiences teaching Spanish-speaking students a third language?

Did you receive any training on strategy instruction and language learning strategy use for teaching Spanish-speaking students during your teacher preparation coursework?

What strategies do you use with Spanish-speaking students?

**Follow up questions depending on the participants' answers to the following survey statements:**

\*I encourage my Spanish-speaking students to think of relationships between what they already know (in Spanish, English, and French) and new things they learn in French. Is this different for monolingual and bilingual students? How?

\*I try to connect the sound of a new French word to a sound of Spanish word to help

\*I use rhymes in English/French/Spanish to help students remember new French words

\*I build on Spanish-speaking students' knowledge Spanish by teaching them to look for Spanish-French cognates.

\*I teach Spanish-speaking students how to find patterns between French and Spanish.

\*I demonstrate how to find the meaning of a French word by dividing it into parts that they might understand in Spanish.

\* I advise students to avoid word-for-word translation between French and English, Spanish and English, Spanish and French.

\*I train students to make guesses to understand unfamiliar French words.

\*I advise students to make up new words if they do not know the right ones in French.

\*If students can't think of a French word, I teach them to use a word or phrase that means the same thing.



APPENDIX E:  
Institutional Review Board Approval



**Institutional Review Board (IRB)  
For the Protection of Human Research Participants  
PROTOCOL EXEMPTION REPORT**

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**PROTOCOL NUMBER:** 03494-2017                      **INVESTIGATOR:** Ms. Anna Surin  
**SUPERVISING FACULTY:** Dr. Victoria Russell &  
Dr. Kelly Davidson Devall  
**PROJECT TITLE:** *An Examination of Teacher Practices for the Instruction of French as a Third Language Among Spanish Speaking Students in Georgia.*

---

**INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD DETERMINATION:**

This research protocol is Exempt from Institutional Review Board (IRB) oversight under Exemption Category 2. You may begin your study immediately (08.23.2017). If the nature of the research project changes such that exemption criteria may no longer apply, please consult with the IRB Administrator ([irb@valdosta.edu](mailto:irb@valdosta.edu)) before continuing your research.

---

**ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:**

- *Provided that the participant (teacher) interviews are NOT conducted on a school district campus, it is not required for the researcher to obtain school district permission.*
  - *However, if it becomes necessary to conduct an interview on a school campus, it is mandatory that you request & obtain formal authorization from the school district(s) – PRIOR to the interview. The IRB must receive the district letter authorizing your research study before the interview is scheduled.*
- *It is required that the Research statement (consent) be read aloud to each participant at the start of audio taping. Your voice must be part of the taped interview, and documented in the official transcript - thereby verification that the participant was informed.*
- *Audio tapes must be destroyed immediately upon creation of each interview transcript.*
- *Upon completion of your research study, compiled data (including – email address, data lists, etc.) must be securely maintained (locked file cabinet, password protected computer, etc.) for a minimum of 3 years.*

*If this box is checked, please submit any documents you revise to the IRB Administrator at [irb@valdosta.edu](mailto:irb@valdosta.edu) to ensure an updated record of your exemption.*

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*Elizabeth W. Olphie*                      *08/23/2017*  
Elizabeth W. Olphie, IRB Administrator                      Date

*Thank you for submitting an IRB application.  
Please direct questions to [irb@valdosta.edu](mailto:irb@valdosta.edu) or 229-259-5045.*

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APPENDIX F:  
Permission to Use SILL

Re: permission to use SILL - Google Chrome

Secure | <https://outlook.office.com/owa/projection.aspx>

Reply all | Delete | Junk | ...

### Re: permission to use SILL

 Rebecca Oxford <[rebeccaoxford@gmail.com](mailto:rebeccaoxford@gmail.com)>  
Wed 9/28/2016, 10:20 PM  
Anna Surin ↕

Inbox

You forwarded this message on 9/29/2016 9:53 AM

You have

On Sep 28, 2016 2:19 PM, "Anna Surin" <[asurin@valdosta.edu](mailto:asurin@valdosta.edu)> wrote:

Dear Dr. Oxford,

I am a doctoral student at Valdosta State University in Curriculum, Instruction, and Technology. My reason for writing to you is to request your permission to use your survey instrument, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL Version 7.0). The tentative title of my dissertation is "An Examination of French Language Teachers' Practices Teaching Native and Heritage speakers of Spanish". The purpose of this study is to identify the teaching strategies used by French language high school teachers with both second language learners of French who are monolingual English speakers and with third language learners of French who are native or heritage speakers of Spanish. I would like to use your instrument from a teacher's perspective, which I believe has not been done before. The modified version of the SILL that I would like to use for my study is attached.

If permission is granted, you will be given full credit for the development of the SILL. I would greatly appreciate your consent to my request. If you require any additional information, please do not hesitate to contact me. I can be reached at [asurin@valdosta.edu](mailto:asurin@valdosta.edu) or 404-245-7104. My dissertation chair is Dr. Victoria Russell, who may be reached at [varussell@valdosta.edu](mailto:varussell@valdosta.edu) or (229) 333-7357.

I look forward to hearing from you at your convenience regarding permission to use your instrument in my dissertation research. Any suggestions or further information would be appreciated.

Windows taskbar: 4:05 PM 3/28/2019

APPENDIX G:

Permission to Reprint Figure 1

Reply all | Delete | Junk | ...

### AW: permission to reprint Figure from How can DaFnE and EuroComGerm contribute to the concept of receptive multilingualism?



Hufeisen, Britta <[hufeisen@spz.tu-darmstadt.de](mailto:hufeisen@spz.tu-darmstadt.de)>

Sun 11/6/2016, 2:19 AM

Anna Surin



Reply all | ...

Inbox

You replied on 11/7/2016 7:51 PM.

Dear Anna Surin,

Thank you for your request which I am happy to grant. Your thesis seems very interesting, and I would be interested to get more information once you are done with your study. Do you read German? Then I would be able to send you more background information on the model and its evaluation worldwide.

Good success and all the best,

Britta Hufeisen

\*\*\*\*\*

Prof. Dr. Britta Hufeisen

Technische Universität Darmstadt

Sprachenzentrum &

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APPENDIX H:

*Analysis of the Benefits Category*

*Analysis of the Benefits Category*

List of indicators:

cognates  
easier time understanding French  
gender  
all Hispanic in AP class  
do very well  
easy verb conjugation  
makes so much sense  
top students in each class  
already gone through learning English  
have a leg up over the other students  
do a little bit better  
great experience  
highest achieving group  
helpful  
can recognize vocabulary  
helps them remember  
motivated  
comes easily  
innate advantage  
Spanish background  
language connection  
recycle vocabulary  
similar sounds  
willing to speak  
willing to try  
pronunciation  
go back to Spanish  
figure out the grammar  
closer to French  
hard-working students  
transfer from Spanish  
great technique  
have something in their brain  
account for gender  
brains are naturally outfitted  
had to do it in their own language



APPENDIX I:  
Analysis of the Struggles Category

*Analysis of the Struggles Category*

List of indicators:

French pronunciation

silent E

add the accent

not a Spanish E

y instead of *et* [and]

do not use Spanish

study habits

home environment challenges

organizational skills

basic needs not being met

single parent home

weaker overall student

not motivated

not strong

*pour example* instead of *par example* [for example]

*je le peux aider* instead of *je peux l'aider* [I can help him]

Spanish accent

APPENDIX J:  
Analysis of the Frespañol Category

*Analysis of the Frespañol Category*

List of indicators:

transfer knowledge from Spanish

connection between languages

see these connections

*champignon* similar to *champiñón* [mushroom]

look like Spanish

recycle vocabulary

sound similar

able to go back to Spanish

days of the week

-ER verbs

patterns

noun genders

masculine and feminine

*bibliothèque* similar to *biblioteca* [library]

*tu* [you informal] and *vous* [you formal]

vocabulary

cognates

expressing age

culture

relate to Spanish

easy verb conjugation

articles

adjectives

comparison languages

*étudier* similar to *estudiar* [to study]

encourage their Spanish

APPENDIX K:

Analysis of the Teachers' Knowledge Category

*Analysis of the Teachers' Own Knowledge of Spanish Category*

List of indicators:

I studied abroad in Spain  
middle school  
exploratory  
University of West Georgia  
senior year of high school  
semester of Spanish  
high school  
many Spanish friends  
European Tours for 30 years  
kept up with the Spanish  
in 7th grade studied Spanish  
travelling  
my Spanish is decent  
I know a little bit of Spanish  
Italian native speaker  
a few phrases in Spanish.  
in college  
surrounded by Spanish teachers  
I hear it all the time  
I pick it up

APPENDIX L:

Analysis of the Teacher Training Category

*Analysis of the Teacher Training Category*

List of indicators:

ESOL certificate

doesn't really deal with learning L3

instruction for Spanish speakers mostly

ESOL students

English classes

no support

professional development

technology

strategies that we would need

I've made that connection myself

pedagogy must change

no who can do a comparative

inventing it as I go

teacher education programs

must have a minor in Spanish

teachers need to have a better understanding

part of the training

how do I reach this person

second language, never a third

not being prepared

language teachers specifically

training ideas

series

how you work with students who already have two languages in their brain

Dr. Rebecca Oxford

a little bit on ELL

No, I didn't

Nothing

Not at the undergrad level

I never did



APPENDIX M:

Analysis of the Teacher Action Category

*Analysis of the Teacher Actions Category*

List of indicators:

too much attention

finding the connections

show that to them

guess which words already know

making those kind of connections

more reading

vocabulary

skimming passage

get the main idea

finding cognates

avoid word-for-word translations

teaching *avoir* [to have] from *tener* [to have]

differentiation

remind them content

*“como ce dice content en Español?”* [how to say happy in Spanish?]

show them *le* [the] corresponds with *un* [a]

written in Spanish

write out the comparison languages

put Spanish in the middle

*yo hablo* [I speak] in Spanish and *tu hablas* [you speak]

we're going to do the same here

a lot of those connections

doing it themselves

made by me specifically explicitly

how to communicate this particular idea in Spanish

take those pieces apart

What did you just use?

let's put those in French words

try to guess

prompt them to use their L1 and L2

what is the word look like

how does it relate to Spanish

can you think of a word

pop into Spanish

use the language interchangeably

lower the affective filter

sigh of relief

miscommunication or a concern

I don't have to have a different strategy for them

they don't like being treated differently

being able to communicate with me in Spanish

talking about age

I'm not doing something specifically different  
I'm not using anything with them  
I know enough Spanish so I can relate  
especially in the first year  
just like in Spanish  
doing -ER verbs just like -AR verb in Spanish  
looking for patterns  
nouns that are masculine  
make a lot of connection for them  
they don't automatically make the connection  
stress it a little bit more  
*tu* [you informal] and *vous* [you formal] forms differentiation  
conjugation works the same  
talk about Christmas traditions  
put inside a king cake  
go to cemetery  
Bien Dit [textbook] has tips for Spanish speakers  
*étudier* [to study] English doesn't help  
get them all together  
common hispanophone mistake  
point these out to you  
pull them aside  
so you can transfer  
reflect on that  
look at it carefully  
guide them in making the connection  
little light bulb moment  
if they haven't figured it out on their own  
need to see these connections

APPENDIX N:

Analysis of the Culture Category

*Analysis of the Culture Category*

*List of indicators:*

changing people's mind  
I gotta take this foreign language class  
it was terrible  
cool stuff associated with this  
opening up their mind  
they kind of dismissed  
breaking down stereotypes  
opening up people's world  
different ways to communicate an idea  
finding a new way to say something  
share my passion for music  
students are so connected  
making it real and relevant  
connecting to actual authentic francophone sources  
bringing in guest speakers  
students who have never left a state  
the opportunity to understand  
what life is like for other people  
go visit other countries  
feeling proud  
sense of accomplishment  
not aware that many countries speak French  
they haven't traveled outside the United States  
interested in all the difference in culture, history  
connections that they can make to their history  
that's so different and strange to them  
become passionate  
suppress their Spanish  
compartmentalized their Spanish-speaking  
take their Spanish more seriously  
nobody else is in my school  
their society, their culture  
pedagogy, cultural things that must shift  
it was controversial  
Nigerian kids  
"I'm sorry I don't know your language but you tell me what this is" suppressed anything  
but English  
Orwellian control over society  
disadvantage my students  
dealing primarily with white Christian cultural understanding  
misunderstanding  
linguistic socio-cultural levels

black English was inferior  
was scared of being sued  
no value judgment on any language  
social ramifications  
totally strip all culture from culture  
will have a safe culture  
create not a dominant culture, but also not a culture  
different perspective  
white Christian southern cultures the dominant culture  
Nathaniel Bedford Forrest statue  
Hispanic Diaspora in 25 years  
totally changed our culture  
exotic  
total utter demographic shift  
southerners hate change  
it makes people feel uncomfortable